Jean Murray · Anja Swennen
Clare Kosnik *Editors*

International Research, Policy and Practice in Teacher Education

Insider Perspectives

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Preface

Being a teacher educator is frequently underestimated, a complex activity that seems deceptively easy to those looking from the outside. Why? There are so many reasons. Chief among them is that teaching has always appeared easy to those who have never taught, so can teaching teachers about teaching be considered any more serious or challenging? Also, because there are no requirements for being a teacher educator, no preparation or credential other than (perhaps) prior teaching experience, our ranks are populated by too many who have confirmed that teaching must be easy since they have so easily stepped into—and been equally easily accepted for—the role of teacher educator, regardless of their experience or background. All this has been exacerbated by the move of teacher education into the academy, which has not afforded us higher ranking, or greater respect, but rather has served to further fuel debates about our (lack of) disciplinary identity and positioned us as a field without a knowledge base.

It is no wonder then that the work we do is characterized by contradictions, blind spots and tensions: teaching others how to teach is not a step-by-step curriculum, a series of strategies or methods to implement with fidelity, despite dogged perceptions that it can/should be that simple; we depend on many others to assist us in our work—arts and sciences faculty, school practitioners, for example—but have little say over the substance or quality of the assistance these others contribute; our teacher candidates can enter the field—or not—regardless of whether we deem them to be ready, often in spite of or completely aside from our efforts; everywhere in the world, policymakers shift, shape and (re)direct via edict and mandate what we do, often in ways we know are wrong-sighted or premature but feel powerless to resist. We are simultaneously blamed for the failures of schools and teachers, at the same time that we are perceived to be essential instruments—linchpins—of reform, change and innovation. If we experience dissonance, there are plenty of good reasons.

Clearly this is not a pretty state of affairs; teacher educators find themselves caught in-between compliance and resistance, sometimes pawns, sometimes targets or even agents, of reform policies. It is no wonder that we are overcome by "profound pessimisms" (Chap. 14) as we struggle to assert our independence and our

relevance, even while we find ourselves marginalized and too frequently absent from the sociopolitical decision-making table. Competition for resources, threat of censure or funding reductions and ever-proliferating regulations keep us busy and distracted; we retreat into our "tribes" and "territories" (Chap. 14) as a survival tactic, a way to preserve what little we may have and stay in the game.

Undoubtedly, I too could be accused of being profoundly pessimistic, authoring a preface that emphasizes the constraints and limitations teacher educators face and the untenable position they/we seem to frequently find ourselves, the brunt of criticism and scapegoating. And yes, it is important to clarify that not all teacher educators are subject to the same surveillance and restrictions teacher educators in places such as the USA, the UK and increasingly Australia are undergoing. Still,

> As part of the agenda for reforming schools, many governments across the world now see teacher education as a policy lever for improving teaching and school performance at national levels, and for reforming teacher professionalism. (Chap. 1)

Education reform has become ubiquitous, as all nations look to schools and schooling as the key to economic and social advancement and the development of productive citizens. It is also widely accepted that teachers are essential to student achievement and that quality teachers produce quality outcomes. Thus, there is a frenzy of reform efforts in education that focus on teachers, especially at the preservice level—their preparation, retooling and upgrading, professional development and assessment. All of this has focused attention on teacher education/educators worldwide, which situates this volume as more than timely because it offers a perspective of the global reform movement from within, giving voice to those who are uniquely positioned to comment first-hand on the scope and impact of prevailing shifts in teacher education policy and practice on an international scale. The fact that this volume puts teacher educator scholars in conversation with one another is critical not just because teacher educators from many nations can use its pages to share knowledge and experiences, but because they are able in addition to speak in a more coherent voice to a diverse audience of teacher educators of all nationalities about "the ways in which policy is both produced and reproduced, that is, how it is lived and played out by 'insider' groups in the field" (Chap. 1).

Collectively then, this book addresses a series of questions, with each chapter offering thoughtful answers that help to illuminate how teacher educators on the ground and actively engaged in the work of preparing quality teachers own, interpret, enact and experience education reform policies. These questions include:

1. *Who are teacher educators?* Chapters that speak to this question take up the issue of teacher educator identity, membership, preparation and nurturance. Some of the issues tackled include the blurring lines between university-based teacher educators and school-based mentors and how their roles overlap and connect; teacher educator knowledge(s) and skills and what teacher educators now need to know and be able to do as notions of quality teachers and teaching evolve; teacher educator legitimacy, marginalization and renewal; and how teacher educators navigate among competing discourses about them and their purpose.

2. *In what ways are teacher educators responding to the current policy and reform landscape?* The conversations in relation to this question reveal teacher educator resistance, agency and inventiveness in the face of policy directives and impositions and describe the various ways in which teacher educators have used the reform movement as an opportunity for learning and professional development. One example has been the creation of "third space[s]" for different ways of working with schools or other partners; another is the renewal that has occurred when teacher educators find their roles redefined; yet another is the reconceptualization of knowledge and knowing and who owns expertise in pre-service education.
3. *What new knowledge(s) are teacher educators contributing to the field?* The various reforms teacher educators face have also helped to galvanize their energies around new inquiries that further inform not just practice and programmes but also policy. Thus, teacher educators are simultaneously recipients and generators of policies and policy change. Through research into teachers' professional development and leadership, new pedagogies and instructional tools, alternate ways of doing teacher preparation that emphasize collegiality and co-teaching and diverse research methodologies that can better explicate the intricacy of pre-service teacher preparation, teacher educators exercise their autonomy and their agency, even as they instruct.

Through their work, research and theorizing, these teacher educator authors transform the "shoulds," "oughts" and "musts" that seem to exemplify too much of contemporary policy—which seeks to control or manage what happens in teacher education—into possibilities and narratives of genuine practice, showcasing how singular ideas mandating change can actually play out in unexpected, yet productive, ways that honour and respond to very real and multiply diverse contexts. This collection is a strong reminder that teacher educators may be under scrutiny, many may be operating under severe constraints or questionable policies, but they are not simply acted upon but are also actors who have clear positions, productive ideas and inventive practices. They—and the work they do—are undoubtedly buffeted by change, but here these teacher educators demonstrate their capacity to take hold of change through analysis, research, creative response and imagination.

New York, NY, USA A. Lin Goodwin

Contents

About the Editors and Authors

Editors

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Chapter 1
International Policy Perspectives on Change in Teacher Education

Jean Murray, Anja Swennen, and Clare Kosnik

1.1 Introduction

The timeframe for publishing this book is an interesting one internationally. As increasingly sophisticated and economically competitive 'knowledge societies' evolve around the world, national and international demands on education multiply, demanding the production of high-quality educational 'outcomes' from schooling and higher education. Intensifying globalisation and international competitiveness has had profound consequences for national and transnational government policies for education. Certainly, in schools, results from PISA and other international attainment indicators have often driven high senses of government anxieties about educational – and hence economic – competitiveness and sometimes result in attempts to reform schooling, change teaching methods and/or introduce austere testing regimes. As part of the agenda for reforming schools, many governments across the world now see teacher education as a policy lever for improving teaching and school performance at national levels and for reforming teacher professionalism.

There is now a widespread, international understanding that the quality of an education system is dependent in large part on the quality of its teaching force. This consensus has placed high focus on the effectiveness of recruitment and retention strategies in attracting and keeping well-qualified teachers in the profession. In particular, the quality and focuses of teacher education throughout the professional life

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course have also been placed under the policy microscope. Preservice teacher education, in particular, is often seen as a policy lever for bringing about change to teachers and teaching. Historical analyses internationally show that in many ways this emphasis is not new: teacher education has long been a major context in which the discourses and practices about what it means to be a teacher are both produced and reproduced. The potential for control of schooling this offers has meant that, since the inception of organised systems of teacher training, national and local governments – and in many countries religious bodies – have been major stakeholders in the field of teacher education, again with preservice a particular area of contestation. When a national education system as a whole has come under scrutiny, teacher education has always been subject to changes, as the historical analyses of Larabee (2004) on the USA, Furlong (2013) on England and Swennen (2012) on the Netherlands show, to offer just three examples.

What is new about the changes of recent decades though is that there has been a systematic politicisation of teacher education, with globalisation pressures increasing levels of government intervention in and regulation of teacher education in many countries across the developed and developing worlds (Trippestad et al. 2017). These interventions have happened over broadly similar time scales and often in similar ways, with new, sometimes radical and often fast-changing policy requirements implemented quickly in order to improve schooling through 'reform' of teacher education. Pressures from globalisation have also contributed to growing change and 'marketisation' of the higher education sector – in which nearly all teacher education programmes are still based – and the accompanying growth of neo-liberal regimes of performativity and audit in our universities and teacher education institutions. Many such institutions are now graded in national or international league tables, facing pressures to achieve numerous and often competing goals in teaching, research and community service. Overall, this situation means that externally generated policy requirements for both higher education and schooling sectors combined to change the face of teacher education worldwide. We give a brief overview of these changes in teacher education here in order to provide contexts for the research studies in this book; such an analysis is also useful for understanding the current issues in teacher education emerging from the studies. But our focus here is not only on these policy shifts per se but also on the less overt aspects and effects of them, as we discuss in more detail below.

1.2 Teacher Education Policy Change

It is not possible to undertake an analysis of teacher education policies without also taking into account the broad social, cultural, political and economic changes currently taking place across the developed world. It is clear that the economic crisis of 2008 onwards has had profound political and social effects on many countries and their policies for education, as well as for other areas affecting social welfare and

cohesion, including health, social care and employment. In relation to EU member states, for example, a report in 2015 stated:

> Public budgets in all Member States are under great pressure. The global economic downturn and declining revenue in many Member States in recent years have aggravated this problem and put greater pressure on education and training budgets, as countries try to balance their public finances. Fiscal constraints have led to cut-backs in public funding for some phases of education. (European Commission 2015, p. 2)

But in addition to these economic factors, we also need to consider increasing social, cultural and linguistic diversity in many countries, the rising levels of social inequality in some and the ways in which all nations are dealing with the fallout from conflict and social unrest, particularly the current refugee crisis, fuelled in part by the Syrian civil war and in part by ongoing economic and social disadvantages in the Global South. Some of these factors have contributed to increasingly political turbulence and rejection of so-called 'expert' and 'establishment' views in the USA and across parts of Europe, notably the UK and Italy. Furthermore, the fast pace of technological changes is now clearly leading to changes in social behaviours in every nation; these changes affect the ways in which we understand the world, view knowledge production and participate in knowledge dissemination. Education is inevitably caught up in these social changes as all generations of learners and teachers experience them within whichever educational settings they learn and work.

These factors form powerful background influences on how education policy 'reforms' for teacher education are devised, implemented and evaluated. Kosnik et al. (2016) in their analysis of such policies identify eight types of teacher education 'reform' initiatives happening internationally. Given the variety in the architectures of teacher education nationally and transnationally and the often-differing cultural and educational values which underpin that variety, there are inevitable divergences between countries in the exact forms these initiatives take, what they mean and how they are being implemented, but, over and above these differences, there are some interesting commonalities which emerge from Kosnik et al.'s analysis. Most of their identified initiatives focus on preservice teacher education, underlining its centrality in reform efforts, although one important emphasis is a growing emphasis on in-service professional development or professional learning for serving teachers. The other seven initiatives can be grouped into two interlinked categories: first, increased, external regulation and surveillance of teacher education and, second, reforms which refocus curriculum content, format and, sometimes, even the location of preservice programmes.

In the first of these categories, Kosnik et al.'s analysis refers to reforms which impose the standards that programmes must ensure student teachers attain before they become teachers. The details of such standards are, of course, tailored to meet the social, cultural and political imperatives considered appropriate for teaching in specific national contexts, but the analysis shows common features including emphasis on the importance of high levels of subject knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge, a range of good 'practical' teaching skills, the possession of a

good range of strategies to support pupils with diverse needs and being a good role model (Kosnik et al., ibid).

Linked into this standards reform – and also aiming to regulate – are the types of reforms which establish minimum requirements for teacher education programmes to meet. Here examples given include higher admission standards for beginning teachers, higher academic qualifications for teacher education and prescriptions about the length of programmes. Kosnik et al.'s analysis also identifies the prevalence of reforms aiming to increase the surveillance of teacher education through the external assessment of programmes. The authors indicate that these assessments vary greatly in terms of form, frequency, purposes, effectiveness and degrees of collaboration or imposition. Their detailed case studies explore the impact of such external assessments in the USA, where 'a regulatory and accountability climate' is now established in 'an era of increased surveillance of university teacher preparation' (p. 281), and England, where teacher education programmes undergo often high stakes and intrusive inspections by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted).

A second category of reforms involves a focus on curriculum content, format and, sometimes, changes in the location of all or parts of preservice programmes. Here Kosnik et al. (ibid) cite reforms which involve moves towards more 'research-based' teacher education. These authors offer two definitions of that often contested term: first, teachers drawing on and conducting research to improve the quality of practice and, second, research conducted *on* teacher education programmes in order to evaluate their effectiveness. The BERA-RSA review, conducted to identify how teacher education (2014, p. 5) in the four countries of the UK were or might be informed by research, adopted a 'broad and inclusive' view of the word 'research', which offers the following definitions of the ways in which preservice may be research-based or research-informed:

> First, the content of teacher education programmes may be informed by research-based knowledge and scholarship, emanating from a range of academic disciplines and epistemological traditions. Second, research can be used to inform the design and structure of teacher education programmes. Third, teachers and teacher educators can be equipped to engage with and be discerning consumers of research. Fourth, teachers and teacher educators may be equipped to conduct their own research, individually and collectively, to investigate the impact of particular interventions or to explore the positive and negative effects of educational practice. (BERA-RSA 2014, p. 5)

Kosnik et al. also identify the ongoing trend in some countries for teacher education provision to move from colleges of education to universities (OECD 2011, quoted in Kosnik et al), with the growth of master's level preservice programmes also occurring in some nations. Murray (2015) in her analysis of teacher education across the UK and the Republic of Ireland refers to the 'the university turn', underway in at least three of those countries, influenced in considerable part by the Bologna Accord of 1999. This Accord, as a key piece of education legislation across Europe, formed a European Higher Education Area with a common qualifications framework, leading to the development of master's level preservice awards in many EU countries, including Ireland, Finland, Portugal and Hungary. In other countries

including Norway and the Netherlands, similar reforms increasing the length of time of study and the qualification level for new teachers are still underway.

A master's level of qualification in preservice certainly involves *more* time in the university and *more* sustained student teacher involvement in research (BERA-RSA 2014), signifying national commitments to strengthening the 'academic' and 'cognitive' elements of teacher education. This also brings epistemological changes to the curriculum of teacher education as it changes and extends the distinctive knowledge base of teaching to be acquired in considerable part through research engagement and study at a university.

A further series of reforms have involved making teacher education more practical, with 'two main ways of achieving this … proposed: (a) enhancing the theory-practice connection in campus courses; and, (b) linking the campus program more closely with the schools' (Kosnik et al. 2016, p. 273). This 'practicum turn' or 'practice turn' in teacher education (Furlong and Lawn 2011; Mattsson et al. 2011; Reid 2011) has certainly been a noted feature of teacher education policy internationally in the last decade. An OECD report in 2012 (quoted in Kosnik et al., ibid) comments that in many countries, '[i]nitial teacher education is increasingly being transferred to schools'; the same report also argues for greater 'complementarity between field experience and academic studies'.

In a similar vein, the European Commission report of 2015, looking at all European Union member states, identifies:

> A trend towards re-modelling Initial Teacher Education for student teachers to learn in school settings so that they can get into real classrooms early in the programme, spend more time there and receive stronger support in the process. (European Commission 2015, p. 4)

As Groundwater-Smith (2011, p. ix) articulates, this kind of 'turn' to practice has involved exploring 'professional practice knowledge and the ways in which our understandings impact upon the design and enactment of … "the practicum curriculum"'. Faced with the need to accommodate this 'turn', many universities have engaged in various forms of knowledge generation on/in practice, as part of their changing teacher education provision, including the development of 'clinical practice' (Burn and Mutton 2013).

This turn has, however, again played out very differently across various countries and institutional settings. In some countries, for example, parts of the USA and England, it has resulted in 'a hyper-emphasis on clinical practice – extensive immersion in the field, *(and)* limited (or no) emphasis on research or "theoretical" course work' (Goodwin and Kosnik 2013, p. 335). In countries where such emphases are found, traditional routes in teaching are often under threat, alternative routes into teaching proliferate and teacher educators based in higher education see themselves as living in a hostile political landscape and subject to sustained criticisms (Gilroy 2014; Goodwin and Kosnik 2013).

In contrast to this picture, in parts of Continental Europe, the 'practicum turn' has instead involved following the Finnish model in which 'research-informed practice' is part of preservice provision in both universities and schools (Kansanen 2013). In this kind of model – again following the example of Finland – specialist

'training schools', with specially trained and well-qualified mentor teachers, may also be established. An example of this is the type of school-based teacher education established in the Netherlands (see Van Velzen, Volman and Brekelmans in this volume) in which schools and teacher education institutions collaborate to educate new teachers. This has not only led to the improved education of teachers but also to the development of primary and secondary schools as partners in teacher education and the development of teachers as school-based teacher educators.

Alternative routes into teaching have also proliferated in some contexts. Examples here include programmes in which all or most of the training takes place in schools rather than universities (as in the School Direct programme in England) and 'direct-to-teaching schemes that give a professional qualification with a minimum of formal teacher education (whether university- or school-based) before or shortly after beginning to teach' (Kosnik et al. 2016, p. 272). Many countries have also experienced the rapid spread of programmes – based originally on the Teach For America scheme – which recruit only those with 'good' undergraduate degrees onto 'fast track' schemes for teaching and educational leadership. European countries as diverse as Estonia, Norway, England, Bulgaria and Austria now have such 'Teach for…' schemes. Online training programmes (such as Hibernia in Ireland) also continue to proliferate in some contexts.

There are often strong links between the generation of these alternative routes and the 'turn to the practical' through largely school-centred training models in teacher education. Other drivers for these alternative routes vary from concerns about the quality of existing teachers and their academic knowledge, desires to widen the demographic profile of the teaching population (e.g. by attracting more mature entrants or those from ethnic minorities) or the creation of simple 'stopgap' measures to address temporary teacher shortages in a given area (Kosnik et al. 2016). Some of these alternative routes may provide high-quality learning for student teachers, but others are untested, and the quality of learning is not always guaranteed, particularly when essentially experimental routes are expanded rapidly and at scale.

More worrying still, schools in some countries are now permitted to recruit and employ untrained teachers, if they so wish. The absence of any kind of preservice programmes in such cases is particularly lamentable – and is certainly divergent from the norm in many developed countries. Across Europe, for example, analysis of TALIS data (European Commission 2015) shows that more than nine out of ten teachers have completed preservice courses (91.2%). The same analysis shows that trained teachers feel better prepared for the different aspects of their job than those who have not completed such a programme. A large majority of these teachers (80%) say that their studies included what many experts – including the Commission itself (European Commission 2015) – would consider to be the essential elements of a preservice programme: the 'content' of teaching (subject knowledge); its 'pedagogy' (understanding of teaching and learning); and 'practice' (classroom-based training). These elements can be defined alternatively as pedagogical competences, subject-matter knowledge and subject didactics, practice and the development of students' capacities for reflective practice and on-the-job research.

As Kosnik et al. (2016) identify, there has certainly been an enhanced focus on teacher subject knowledge in many teacher education reforms. In some countries this emphasis has meant demands for more subject knowledge to be incorporated into education degrees at undergraduate or master's levels; in other nations it has resulted in a demand for higher levels of qualifications for entry into postgraduate routes or for screening of teacher candidates' ability in literacy and numeracy. Some – but by no means all – nations have also increased their focus on the specifics of subject knowledge for teaching, including subject didactics or pedagogical subject knowledge (see, e.g. Swennen and Volman 2017).

1.3 Policy and 'Insider' Perspectives

We give an overview of these policy changes here in order to provide contexts for the research studies in this book; such an analysis is also essential for understanding the current issues in teacher education emerging from the studies. But our focus here is not only on these policy shifts per se, rather on the many, often hidden aspects of them as and when they make their complex ways to implementation in the field of practice. Policy analyses of change in teacher education abound, but many of these texts focus on the macro level of the field. There is, of course, considerable value in many such analyses, not least because they enable the exploration of contemporary trends in educational policy-making per se. Policy analysis understood in this way can also contribute to the critique of what Popkewitz (1987) terms 'the public discourses' or macro discourses of teacher education as they shift over time. And as Popkewitz (1987, p. ix) argues, 'public discourses also often serve to "dull one's sensitivity to the complexities that underlie the practices of teacher education … (by) a filtering out of historical, social and political assumptions"'. Yet beneath the public discourses of the moment, it is often possible to trace recurring, historical factors, themes and issues of the field.

Some analyses of educational reform, though, tend to portray policy essentially as a static and preformed entity, generated by anonymous government agents and then handed down in fixity to practitioners and other stakeholders in the field to undertake essentially straightforward and homogeneous processes of implementation. Here we adopt a definition of power which deploys the work of Michel Foucault (1988) to see power as a relation exercised through the social body and at the micro level of social relations; it is not purely owned and exercised by governments or regulatory organisations, and it can be productive as well as repressive. One of our interests in this book is in the effects of policy when it is understood as a mechanism of power, in Foucauldian terms as part of a 'discipline'. The work of Stephen Ball (1994, p. 16) is useful in understanding policy as a series of 'representations' which are 'encoded and decoded' by stakeholders. We want to explore how policy in this sense is created in complex ways 'via struggles, compromises, authoritative public interpretations and re-interpretations' (Ball, ibid) and how it plays out or is given meanings by actors and stakeholders in teacher education drawing on 'their history,

experiences, skills, resources and context' (Ball, ibid). We are then interested in the ways in which policy is both produced and reproduced, that is, how it is lived and played out by 'insider' groups in the field. Here we define these stakeholder groups as the teacher educators working in both higher education institutions and schools, mentors and co-operating teachers and the students learning to become teachers. As part of this emphasis, we are interested in analysing how some of the 'insiders' in teacher education experience, participate in, mediate and resist policy reform.

'Insider' perspectives on policy, research and practice in teacher education, particularly those of teacher educators, are still under-researched and poorly understood (Murray 2014). Yet the perspectives of all 'insiders' are, we would argue, not only valuable in their own right, but they also contribute to better understanding of the field of teacher education. The term 'insider perspective', as used here, typically refers to the perspective of individuals and groups within the social context in which they work (Sikes and Potts 2008). Insider perspectives have been particularly well developed in disciplines such as anthropology and sociology (Loxley and Seery 2008) where studies place great importance on the perspectives of the individuals and groups they research. The work of researchers, such as Jean Clandinin in Canada and Christopher Day in England, amongst many others, has taken this emphasis into education research. This book aims to work from these – and similar – research influences to understand teacher education from the perspectives of the insiders who work, teach, study, research, guide and lead in the fast-changing contexts of that field.

In this book we look at the perspectives of a number of 'insider' groups, but we give particular focus to teacher educators. This is because we see this occupational group as central to policy implementation through their pedagogies, professional values and visions for their student teachers. As Furlong et al. (2000, p. 36) state, 'what student teachers learn during their initial training is as much influenced by who (our italics) is responsible for teaching them as it is by the content of the curriculum'. This centrality of teacher educators has been belatedly recognised in a series of transnational policy statements including a detailed report from the European Commission (2013) and continuing emphasis in later policy documents (see, e.g. European Commission 2015). In line with these policy statements, we argue that considering and understanding 'insider perspectives' are particularly important to the long-term 'success' of teacher education programmes; however that success may be defined.

Teacher educators belong to a heterogeneous occupational group, and there has long been a 'problem of definition' (Ducharme 1993, p. 2) in discussing who belongs to it. This is in part because of the differing roles and types of work undertaken within the field but also because of issues around self-ownership and communal ownership of the definition. As educational changes often trigger shifts in who can be defined as a teacher educator, this is an interesting and highly relevant time to be studying what is now a rapidly changing and enlarging group of teacher educators.

1.4 The Structure of the Book

The various chapters in this edited book report on and analyse methodologically and conceptually strong empirical work; these structures are deployed to explore work, identity and practices for insiders in teacher education and to give broader insights into how national and institutional policies are mediated and played out in practice.

The chapters of this book focus on three areas: organizational and national changes in teacher education, teacher education responding to social and educational change, and teacher education and the changing needs of 'insiders'. Chapters 2, 3, and 4 explore how organisational and national changes in teacher education have changed the policies and perspectives of teacher education in particular national contexts, impacting on the practices and identities of teacher educators.

In Chap. 2 – 'Collective Agency: Promoting Leadership in Finnish Teacher Education' – Päivi Hökkä and her co-authors, Anneli Eteläpelto, Matti Rautiainen and Tiina Silander, explore the effects of changes in teacher education in Finland. This is a context characterised by its long history of academic teacher education, its high educational achievements in schools and a strong tradition of professional autonomy for individual teachers and teacher educators. Here reforms have often occurred slowly and been challenging to implement. In this chapter the author's particular focus is on how what they term 'agency-promoting' leadership practices have the potential to transform organisational practices in Finnish teacher education and to develop traditions of individual and communal agency.

In Chap. 3 – 'An Insider Look at The Implications of "Partnership" Policy for Teacher Educators' Professional Learning: An Australian Perspective' – Simone White takes as her starting point the National Partnership Agreement on Improving Teacher Quality in Australia which has called for greater partnership links between universities and schools. The chapter discusses the findings from a small-scale study of such a partnership as it develops; it then goes on to discuss the implications for all teacher educators – in both schools and universities. The chapter illustrates how teacher educators and mentors in the partnership work in a 'third space' between schools and universities and the knowledge areas traditionally assigned to each location by the old 'theory-practice' binary of teacher education. The chapter concludes with a call for a more 'networked' teacher educator workforce in the future.

Chapter 4 is entitled 'An Exploration of Teacher Educator Identity Within an Irish Context of Reform'. Its authors, Catherine Furlong and Maeve O'Brien, draw on research mapping the terrain of teacher educator identities and, in particular, the responses of the occupational group to the growing neo-liberal agenda for accountability and performativity. The chapter explores how recent policy agendas for the reform of teacher education in Ireland impact on teacher educators at the national level. The findings show that, as those policies were implemented, three major issues arose: a new inversion of the traditional binarisation of theory and practice; a tension between the push for performativity and accountability; and the need for autonomy and trust and a forceful drive for greater research outputs.

Chapters 5, 6, and 7 deal primarily with how teacher education and its insider groups respond to and mediate the social and educational changes in which they are involved. In this group of chapters, our focus is particularly on teacher educators as faculty within higher education institutions, dealing with 'glocal' (i.e. both local and global) issues.

In Chap. 5 – 'From Tinkering Around the Edges to Reconceptualizing Courses: Literacy/English Teacher Educators' Views and Use of Digital Technology' – Clare Kosnik, Lydia Menna, Pooja Dharamshi, Cathy Miyata, Yiola Cleovoulou and Shawn Bullock from Canada report on a qualitative study of 28 literacy/English teacher educators in four countries (Canada, the USA, Australia and England). Their study focuses on the pedagogical use of digital technologies in teacher educational programmes in all four national contexts. From 'insider' perspectives, these educators describe some of the digital technologies they use whilst also identifying the pedagogical, social and technological challenges they face in mediating social and educational change through their teaching of intending teachers.

Chapter 6 – 'Sustaining Self and Others in the Teaching Profession: A Personal Perspective' – by Cheryl Craig is based on systematic narrative inquiries, a methodological approach often used within the self-study movement. The study was conducted with both intending teachers in preservice programmes and experienced, practising teachers in Texas. Given current policy directions in the USA, the chapter takes up the critically important question of what teachers and teacher educators require in order to feel sustained in the teaching profession. Drawing on deeply personal perspectives, the chapter argues that improvements in *teaching and teacher education* can be achieved by centring on what Schwab called the 'best-loved self' and analysing how that concept plays out in both educative and non-educative ways.

In Chap. 7 – 'Learning to Walk Your Talk: The Pre-service Campus Programme as a Context for Researching and Modelling Reflective Pedagogy in an Era of Transmission and Testing' – Clive Beck also draws on self-study research methods to identify and resolve the two main challenges he deals with as a teacher educator in Canada. This is an environment where there is pressure on teachers to teach instrumentally, 'transmitting' subject knowledge and simply 'covering' the contents of the curriculum. The chapter provides a systematic account of how constructivist approaches to teaching can be fostered in ways which require the teacher educator to forge a distinctive identity and to learn how to negotiate the possible 'fallout' from colleagues and administrators. Drawing on aspects of self-study methodology, the argument is made that achieving these modes of personal pedagogy leads to better experiences for student teachers.

The focus of Chaps. 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13 is on teacher education and the shifting needs of 'insiders', including student teachers, teacher educators in higher education and mentors/school-based teacher educators within the changing social and educational, national and international contexts in which they work.

Chapter 8 – 'The Development of the Profession of Teacher Educators in the Netherlands' – by Anja Swennen and Monique Volman draws on detailed case studies to explore how the profession of teacher educator has developed in the Netherlands over the last two decades. A particular focus is on the Dutch

government's historical prescriptions of the content and structure of teacher education programmes through laws and regulations, national exams, content knowledge and financial incentives. Using the examples of three teacher educators, working in different timeframes and in different types of institutions, the chapter argues that government interventions may sometimes enhance the quality of teacher education, but they decrease the autonomy of teacher educators, affect practice and change core values around work.

Chapter 9 – 'Teaching About Teaching, from Teacher Educators' and Student Teachers' Perspectives' – by Marit Ulvik and Kari Smith explores 'competence' in teacher education as seen from both student teachers' and teacher educators' perspectives. Drawing on a qualitative study of teacher educators in Norway, the chapter looks at the challenges posed in a context where teacher educators are often employed using only academic criteria (notably possession of a doctorate) and sometimes without any relevant experience of school teaching. These educators place considerable value on research-informed knowledge of teaching acquired through academic study at the university. Yet the study shows that student teachers are more likely to value classroom experience and to prioritise practical advice about the skills of teaching, rather than what they term 'academic' knowledge. Comparing these two sets of 'insider' perspectives here illuminates the complex question of how best to prepare intending teachers.

In Chap. 10 – 'Who is Teaching Me and What Do They Know? Student Teachers' Perceptions of Their Teacher Educators' – Jean Murray and her co-authors, Gerry Czerniawski and Patti Barber, report on a large-scale survey and interview study in England. The focus here is exploring how 442 student teachers construct the identities and knowledge bases of teacher educators in higher education and mentors in schools. Like the Norwegian research, this study indicates that student teachers value mentors and teacher educators who can provide practical advice about the skills of teaching; they are less likely to attribute high value to what they term the 'academic' or research-based knowledge of those educating them. The findings provide evidence of the significant – and sometimes worrying – ways in which policy changes in teacher education in England have impacted on the lived experiences of student teachers and their multiple perceptions of educators and mentors.

Chapter 11 is titled 'There is No Need to Sit on My Hands Anymore! Mentor Teachers as Teacher Educators During Actual School Practice'. The chapter, authored by Corinne van Velzen, Monique Volman and Mieke Brekelmans, all from the Netherlands, outlines recent Dutch government reforms in teacher education. These policy changes have created partnerships between higher education institutes and schools, resulting in new types of 'co-operating teachers' or school-based teacher educators, who now work in Dutch schools to support student teacher learning. Acknowledging that mentors have always played an important role in student teachers' practicum, the chapter researches the ways in which those traditional mentoring roles and practices have changed and become extended into new forms of practice as partnerships develop and new forms of work-based teacher education evolve.

In Chap. 12 – 'We Are All Teacher Educators Now – Understanding School-Based Teacher Educators in Times of Change in England' – Gerry Czerniawski and his co-authors, Warren Kidd and Jean Murray, use in-depth interviews within an interpretive study of changes ongoing in teacher education in England. The time-frame for this study is just as radical changes in government policy begin to move preservice provision far more extensively into schools. This policy had the effects of extending the roles and responsibilities of school-based teacher educators; this in turn extended the membership and work locations of the traditional, occupational group of teacher educators based in universities. This chapter promotes understanding of the knowledge bases and identities of an emerging group of 'new' teacher educators and aims to give 'voice' to its members. Exploring these issues contributes to understanding how policy impacts on – and is mediated by – this divergent and diverging occupational group.

In the final chapter in this group of chapters, Chap. 13 – 'Strategies Employed by Pre-service Teacher Educators in Ireland in order to develop second order knowledge' – by Rose Dolan, the focus shifts to how teacher educators develop their own learning in response to student teachers' needs. Within the context of recent policy reforms in Ireland which raise most preservice teacher education programmes to master's level, the author analyses and conceptualises the strategies employed by teacher educators in order to teach student teachers effectively, at the same time as supporting the development of their professional knowledge. The chapter argues that both pedagogical practice and professional development need to include opportunities to transmute knowledge-in-action into knowledge-of-practice, as knowledge that integrates both theoretical constructs *and* practical knowledge.

As a conclusion to the book, in Chap. 14 – 'Teacher Education Internationally: Perspectives, Practice and Potential for Change' – the editors draw together and analyse the previous chapters to provide a conceptual overview of research in this area.

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Chapter 2
Collective Agency-Promoting Leadership in Finnish Teacher Education

Päivi Hökkä, Matti Rautiainen, Tiina Silander, and Anneli Eteläpelto

Abstract Globally, there is a political and social consensus that teacher education is a key priority for the twenty-first century. However, studies have so far paid little attention to a crucial issue, namely, leadership in teacher education. This chapter contributes to discussion on transforming teacher education practices by focusing on leadership practices in a particular Finnish teacher education department. Adopting a subject-centred sociocultural approach, we elaborate the main challenges, insights, and lessons learned, as perceived by the four leaders of the department, in efforts to move towards more innovative and collaborative practices. We argue that teacher education leaders currently require competencies to support professional agency and to lead the identity work of their staff. In addition, leaders need the resources to build collective leadership practices while renegotiating their own professional identities. Overall, we highlight the importance of what we term *collective agency-promoting leadership* in developing teacher education practices.

2.1 Introduction: Importance of Leadership in Teacher Education

In the globalised word, there is a political, societal, and educational understanding that the teaching profession and teacher education are key priorities in confronting the demands of the twenty-first century (Niemi 2008; Murray and Harrison 2008). There is also a global consensus that teacher education must be transformed to meet the challenges of complex modern societies. At the same time, many countries are struggling with challenges in developing teacher education programmes, practices, structures, and policies (Madalinska-Michalak et al. 2012). The challenges have led to continuous restructuring and to the introduction of a *new public management*

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culture in teacher education organisations (Murray et al. 2009; Hökkä and Vähäsantanen 2014). The changes have involved a greater accountability culture; thus there have been more external assessments, with more monitoring of teacher education organisations, individual teacher educators, and teacher education leaders. At the same time, many teacher education organisations, especially in universities, have struggled to promote evidence- or research-based teacher education. At the individual level, these trends have caused many teacher educators to experience challenges in renegotiating their professional identities and roles, with particular difficulties in moving from a teacher identity towards a researcher identity. The combining of these two roles seems to be a continuing source of tension in teacher education (Murray et al. 2009; Robinson and McMillan 2006).

The challenges in teacher education have been widely discussed, and research on teacher education has expanded. So far, most studies have addressed *policy-level issues* (e.g. university- vs. school-based teacher education), *organisational issues* (i.e. how to develop practices, programmes, structures, and cultures), or *individual teacher educator development* (encompassing professional learning, professional identities, competencies, and pedagogical knowledge) as key factors in developing teacher education. Recent studies have also indicated that changes in teacher education occur slowly (e.g. Peck et al. 2009) and that it is the issues of teacher educator identity and agency that have become most salient (e.g. Hökkä and Eteläpelto 2014; Murray and Harrison 2008).

One aspect that has been somewhat neglected is the actual meaning of *leadership*, and the role of leaders in teacher education – even if in school and university contexts the issue has received considerable attention (e.g. Bolden et al. 2008; Spillane and Healey 2010). Since the landscape of teacher education has dramatically changed, one can argue that the leading of teacher education organisations must also change. Thus, in the present chapter, we shall contribute to discussion on reforming teacher education by focusing on leadership practices in one Finnish teacher education department which has successfully transformed its practices. Conducted within the framework of a subject-centred sociocultural approach (Eteläpelto et al. 2013, 2014), the study reported here elaborated pitfalls and insights applicable to moving teacher education in a more innovative and collaborative direction. The focus was on a group of four teacher education leaders who were striving to build shared leadership practices and thus to develop teacher education practices and culture.

2.2 Theoretical Outlines: Promoting Shared Leadership Practices Through Agency

In leadership studies there has been a move from a ‘heroic’ understanding of leadership towards notions of shared leadership practices and multi-leader approaches. The concept of shared leadership can be seen as a conceptual umbrella that includes

leadership models such as co-leadership (leadership divided between two people), distributed leadership (with leadership distributed broadly, but with some persons following rather than leading), and collective leadership (with leadership shared by all the persons in the group) (Offermann and Scuderi 2007).

This shift towards shared leadership has involved a movement towards leadership being viewed as a real-world phenomenon that encompasses the interpersonal and situational dynamics of hybrid leadership practices – practices applicable to both individual leaders and holistic leadership units (Gronn 2009). In terms of the units of analysis, this approach has underlined the importance of studying micro-level activities in leadership processes (Chreim 2015; Gronn 2002). Gronn (2009) has put forward the notion of *leadership configurations* as an approach to studying the interpersonal, situational, and hybrid phenomenon of leadership practices. By focusing on leadership configurations, it is possible to analyse the kinds of ambiguous leadership spaces that emerge in everyday work practices – which may often involve conflicts, changed relationships, ambiguous roles, or power struggles. In a comparative case analysis covering acquisition contexts, Chreim (2015) found four different types of emergent leadership configurations: (a) distributed leadership (referring to the conjoint agency of the leaders), (b) distributed leaderlessness (i.e. a lack of leadership practices), (c) overlapping leadership (meaning duplication of the role and agency of leaders, which was found to lead to tensions), and (d) non-distributed leadership (meaning corporate leader control and hierarchical authority). The distributed leadership configuration was characterised as including strong leadership skills on the part of the leaders. It also manifested conjoint agency, with successful devolution of authority among different leaders.

In the discussion of distributed leadership, recent studies have raised questions concerning *professional agency* within workplace practices. Thus, in a recent review on distributed leadership, Tian et al. (2015) have highlighted the importance of research on leadership agency and, in particular, on what agency actually means in distributed learning practices. They conclude that a combination of distributed leadership theories and professional agency theories could help in understanding how leadership practices may be enhanced in multifaceted educational contexts. Along similar lines, advocates of shared leadership emphasise the importance of conjoint or collective agency (Chreim 2015; Gronn 2015). Agency, and particularly collective agency, is seen as a crucial prerequisite for constructing distributed leadership configurations.

The concept of agency has also recently gained attention in other fields. In workplace studies in particular, the concept has been fruitful in understanding the need for innovation and transformation in the workplace. In current theoretical discussion, professional agency refers to professional actors (employees and leaders) who can exercise control over, or have an effect on, their work and work environment (Eteläpelto et al. 2013; Goller and Paloniemi 2017). Professional agency is seen as crucial at a time of changes within societies and workplaces and, further, as underlining the importance of innovations and continuous learning. Agency can be manifested individually or collectively. Collective agency refers to what is manifested when a group of people share and pursue a common interest in order to improve

their own lives and to affect larger contexts, for example, by transforming structures and cultures (Hökkä et al. 2017; Pantic and Florian 2015). Collective agency can be manifested in terms of a group of employees' collective initiatives to develop new work practices or to arrive at a new shared understanding of themselves as a professional group amid external challenges.

In this study our starting point in understanding professional agency was a subject-centred sociocultural approach, which made it possible to address both sociocultural conditions and professional subjects (Eteläpelto et al. 2013). In such an approach, professional agency is seen as manifested in and resourced by a relational interaction between social conditions (including certain cultural and material resources and constraints) and individual subjects with their professional identities and competencies. We see professional agency as manifested and practised when professional subjects and/or communities make choices, take stances, and have an influence on their work and/or professional identities. This means that professional agency is closely intertwined with subjects' professional identities, competencies, knowledge, and experience, but that it is always temporally realised within sociocultural conditions. The latter encompass resources and constraints such as material and physical conditions, cultures, power relations, and discursive structures (Eteläpelto et al. 2013). Agency is seen as related to professional identity, in accordance with the need for continuous identity renegotiation amid changing work conditions (Buchanan 2015; Vähäsantanen 2015). This approach also stresses the importance of agency for the transformation of work practices and cultures.

In teacher education, recent challenging conditions have forced teacher educators – and particularly teacher education leaders – to reshape their professional identities and roles. Leaders are thus required to practise active agency in adapting to new issues affecting their work and themselves. They are required to understand the changes and new demands placed on them, to negotiate their professional identities and orientations towards these changes, and to find new solutions (Hökkä and Vähäsantanen 2014; Tian et al. 2015). This is certainly the case in Finland. Hence, in this chapter we shall examine leadership configurations in Finnish teacher education, focusing particularly on the issue of professional agency and shared leadership.

2.3 Teacher Education in Finland

There is a national consensus in Finland that academically educated teachers are the key to high-quality teaching and good learning outcomes. Legislation provides the main guidelines for education, but teacher education belongs within the university system. The universities are autonomous, and departments and faculties of education make their own decisions, in the main, about education (including the curriculum, teaching content, and pedagogical methods). The Ministry of Education and Culture supervises teacher education but focuses mainly on regulating the overall

numbers of teacher students to be admitted (according to their calculations of the future numbers of qualified teachers of different subjects required).

Despite this freedom, the culture of teacher education departments throughout Finland is fairly similar. All universities place an emphasis on teachers' pedagogical thinking, their readiness to make use of research, their willingness to reflect on the theory and practice of teaching and learning, and their career-long professional development (Silander and Välijärvi 2013). Teacher education is research-based; thus the aim is that the teacher's professional outlook should be founded on sound scientific knowledge and that teachers should have the capacity to broaden and deepen their competence as lifelong learners, through exploration and critical reflection throughout their career (Niemi 2012).

In the study reported here, the focus was on teacher education leaders' inside perspectives on the resources and obstacles that had been critical in transforming practices in a particular teacher education department and in moving the department towards a more shared leadership configuration. Seeking a retrospective view, we framed the following question: *What were the most critical issues in building shared leadership within the teacher education department?*

2.4 Methodological Considerations

2.4.1 The Context of the Study

This study was connected to a larger research project (Proagent), which aims to understand how professional agency is practised and how it can be promoted through multilevel interventions in education and health-care organisations (Vähäsantanen et al. 2016). In this project, the main idea has been that in order to develop and transform practices and individual learning, there is a need to enhance learning at individual, work community, and organisational levels.

The present study was implemented as a case study (using purposeful sampling) at the Department of Teacher Education of the University of Jyväskylä, Finland. During recent years, this institution has developed its organisational culture and leadership practices towards a more collaborative model, transforming work practices to place more emphasis on research-based teaching. The organisation comprises about 80 employees (including teachers, researchers, professors, and other academic staff) and is situated within a large multidisciplinary university. The university was recently ranked among the top universities in the world in educational sciences (QS World University Rankings 2017).

The Department of Teacher Education is the oldest teacher education unit in Finland (established in 1863). This long tradition has both strengths and weaknesses. When teacher education became more academically oriented in the 1970s, education was formulated in a new way, but sociocultural practices continued to follow the old traditions. Indeed, in the early 2000s, 20 years after the earlier

reforms, teacher education in the department was still fairly similar to what it had always been, characterised by an abundance of contact lessons, limited attention to research (with a lack of – or only small – research groups), and minimal cooperation between researchers and educators in the various subject groups. The situation generated considerable tension, and the culture in the department had elements of conflict and competition (Hökkä 2012). Leadership practices, too, were tense. Leaders in the department were often perceived as targets for complaints by staff members. Moreover, organisational change (involving changes in practices, as applied to implementing education programmes and conducting research) was seen as hard to achieve.

All in all, it can be said that in the teacher education department in question, the problems were recognised, as was demonstrated also by several studies (e.g. Hökkä 2012; Nikkola et al. 2008; Rautiainen et al. 2010). There was a real desire to make a change and to build a new kind of teacher education based on collaborative culture. The main concern now was what to do and how to find solutions to these problems within the department and among the educators.

2.4.2 Leadership Practices in the Department

The Department of Teacher Education has had four leaders since 2005: the head, the vice head, the research leader, and the pedagogical leader. However, between 2005 and 2009, those in post, as teachers and also as researchers, were working as individuals rather than as a team. In 2009, all the leaders of the department were changed. At this point, the new people selected stressed that the members of the leading team should share a similar vision concerning the development of teacher education (as an alternative to merely representing a certain group); thus, the new leaders gradually started to share their experiences of their work. This sharing resulted from their own ideals and also from negative experiences of the work, which they had found oppressive and exhausting.

Initially, there were no fixed objectives and no aims to develop the department towards any particular organisation or leadership model (e.g. team leadership). This ‘simple’ initiative was merely a matter of finding ways to reduce the individualistic culture and to move towards more collaborative and research-focused procedures. Although the precise direction of the development was not yet clear to the four new leaders, they shared the same overall vision, that is, that teacher education should be collaborative and research-based.

2.5 Data Collection and Analysis

The main data for this study consisted of videotaped group discussions, in which the four leaders of the teacher education department recalled their shared leadership histories and the most critical events in the department in the years 2009–2013. The group discussion covered four main themes: (1) how the shared leadership culture was established, (2) the most important resources and obstacles in transforming leadership practices, (3) how the leadership practices supported or obstructed the agency of the staff, and (4) the most important changes in teacher education practices and culture.

The data were analysed via qualitative approaches, applying qualitative content analysis (Saldaña 2013) and utilising researcher triangulation (Hastings 2010). As a first step in the analysis, the data (verbatim transcriptions) were transferred to the Atlas.ti program. This stage involved coding the critical incidents and transforming actions that occurred during the period in question, as referred to in the leaders' talk. As a subsequent step, the codes were grouped into three meta-categories forming the three categories of critical issues in building shared leadership. This process of analysis was iterative in the sense that it included elaborations and conversations between the researchers throughout the analytical process.

2.6 Findings

In the following sub-sections, we shall illustrate the most critical issues in building shared leadership practices. These fall into three categories: (a) creating collective leadership practices, (b) enhancing the agency of staff, and (c) building leaders' collective agency.

2.6.1 Creating Collective Leadership Practices

One of the most important insights was the leaders' desire to move from an individual 'leadership burden' to *collective leading practices*. When the four leaders started their work in 2009 and discovered a shared desire to work collaboratively, they decided to work towards new structures and new practices (e.g. regular Monday meetings). Having the same vision, that is, of developing teacher education as a whole rather than representing different groups, helped to create an atmosphere of trust and emotional support. It also gave a sense of safety in addressing difficult issues, including critical voices and tense relationships.

At the same time, the leaders were challenged to critically renegotiate their own leader identities, both individually and as a group. Thus, they became familiar with

Fig. 2.1 New collective leadership practices

their own defensive practices. They also found that they needed scaffolding actions (e.g. external coaching support) to renegotiate their collective leader identity as a group. The new kind of leadership culture that emerged promoted new creative practices and made possible structural transformation within the department including a regular 'teaching-free Tuesday' plus informal meetings between leaders and subject groups. The entire process involved continuous discussions among leaders and group evaluations. Shared meetings and informal conversations with all the staff provided other important sources of feedback. Figure 2.1 above provides a summary of the most important new collective leadership practices.

2.6.2 Enhancing the Professional Agency of Staff

One of the first needs was to support the professional agency of the teacher educators. The critical issues here included (a) creating processes, places, and spaces for participation, for taking stances, and for influencing shared issues (including leadership practices), (b) being sensitive to and giving spaces for emotional processing (including socio-emotional support), (c) trusting and supporting people who wanted to take responsibility in shared practices (e.g. in arriving at a curriculum), and (d) taking critical comments seriously and acting on them. These are discussed further below.

Supporting the staff's influence on shared issues included furthering staff participation in such a way that people were able to take stances and influence policies. The aim was to get the staff as a whole to be involved, at different levels. Thus there

was to be scope for influence on the curriculum, on leadership principles, and on leadership practices. Another issue seen as crucial in supporting the professional agency of staff was that *leaders should show sensitivity and provide emotional support*. Leadership competence was seen as involving the ability to act with appreciation and to give support, especially in challenging situations such as dealing with negative student feedback or resolving conflicts between employees.

The third prominent issue involved *giving trust and responsibility* to those who wanted to develop shared practices (regarding, e.g. the curriculum). This trust was not seen as dependent on a person's job title, years of service, or hierarchical position; rather it was a matter of the person's enthusiasm, will, and commitment. In the extract below, two leaders (A and C) describe how curriculum responsibilities were negotiated:

> Leader A: 'it was not any kind of official position or anything like ' I have the longest teaching career' or 'I am a professor' or anything like that…I think it was interesting in hierarchical terms that within that process the young women [other leaders nod assent] who didn't even have a full contract took charge. I think [it was] how they took on responsibility, without asking permission or asking 'do I have the mandate?' or 'how many hours do I have in my working plan?'…but all this just happened very smoothly and naturally and our community did not question it at all.
>
> Leader C: Yes, yes…it was amazing to realise that this was possible.

The fourth crucial aspect in supporting professional agency was *taking seriously the constructive comments, complaints, and criticisms voiced by staff*. This meant that criticisms, for example, of leadership practices or shared practices, were always taken seriously. Representations of this kind always led to constructive actions. Forums (embedded, e.g. in department meetings, in addition to less official 'coffee break' conversations) were created to process critical issues. It was seen as essential that difficult issues were not swept under the carpet and that leaders always entered into shared conversations. In the extract below, the leaders describe a situation where they had had critical feedback from staff; this led them to organise three coffee meetings with everyone concerned to discuss issues connected to leadership:

> Leader C: It was kind of a situation where if we didn't sort it out we couldn't continue as leaders. It was a kind of a no-confidence vote [Leader A: yes] … and it was the kind of feedback that we really needed to hear (emphasis in the original), otherwise our leadership wouldn't function in terms of leading [Leader B: yes], because it was striking right at the heart of our collective leadership, [along the lines of] 'It isn't such a good thing that you are such a close-knit leader group'.
>
> Leader A: Yes it sort of came at us out of the blue, and indirectly it was aimed at one of us, but Leader D brought it up in front of all of us, and didn't think, 'Ok, I'm being trashed here,' rather 'This is now our shared problem (emphasis in the original).' And then we decided to arrange with the staff to have these three coffee meetings, each with a theme connected to leading.

2.6.3 Building Leaders' Collective Agency

In efforts to create good leadership practices, it was vital to build up the leaders' own collegial practices. In this chapter we use the concept of *collective agency* to refer to the mutual development of these leadership practices and this culture. The findings revealed three important issues that supported this development of collective leadership practices through collective agency. One involved a shift from accidental 'leading in corridors' to *clearly structured and shared leadership practice*, with regular meetings and with *designated times and spaces for collaborative work*. Leaders described the previous 'accidental' leading culture as 'a kind of loose leading; we sometimes occasionally met in corridors and shared a word or two. There wasn't any kind of true structure'.

Within this process, the four leaders had to negotiate a flexible distribution of work and to agree that although they all had their own responsibilities, these were not strict or stable but rather porous and negotiable. They also needed to learn to deal with dissenting opinions. Through negotiation, they were able to build trust and a supportive atmosphere in their group. This trust offered a safety net for everyday leadership practices and also for the processing of emotional issues. It was mentioned that the group offered strength and protection and reduced the fear of being 'shot down' by the staff, for example, in departmental meetings. The group also offered the kind of support that made possible deliberate discussion of difficult issues, including deeply unpleasant matters such as tense relationships and critical feedback from students. The leaders commented on collective leadership and on the sense of agency connected to it in the following terms:

> Leader B: In terms of agency it is kind of concrete, I mean the emotion is totally different, and you can somehow behave through common sense [others nod assent] and if you yourself freeze up you can trust that some other person will take the lead and continue. And also the kind of repeating of things afterwards … I mean wallowing in emotions doesn't happen anymore [others nod assent] so you can respond neutrally. Those feelings can kind of immediately … [makes gesture of sweeping away with the hand], so that those powerful tensions do not arise. We have deliberately agreed that … right? That [Others: yes, yes, nodding assent] we'll support each other.

Collective agency thus empowered the leaders to address problems and tense situations, such as criticism of the leaders themselves, tensions between employees, and negative feedback from students – and to do so in an active manner.

Another central issue in building collective agency was creating a *shared understanding of the socio-material conditions* that regulate and structure teacher education. This included understanding and reacting to policy-level and upper-level strategy regulations, plus gaining a view on economic resources and conditions. The organisation in question had recently come under austere new public management forms of governance (Moos 2005) (e.g. increased external assessments plus a more performance-based salary structure), and the economic restrictions now in place were not fully understood by the staff. These factors occasionally manifested themselves in unrealistic expectations about how far desired changes to teacher educa-

tion could be implemented or about the implementation of unavoidable strategic priorities. In addition, the department was going through an important strategic shift towards more intensive forms of research-based teacher education. The leaders collaboratively negotiated understanding on the new strategic alignments, creating a basis for rational action and for a future orientation. In terms of the employees' work, this meant reducing certain functions (e.g. arts and craft teaching lessons) and even ending contracts altogether. Such a situation is inevitably distressing for the employees concerned and for the manager. Collective leadership offered a certain degree of support for both the staff and the leaders in this kind of emotionally burdensome situation.

The third important issue was the collective *renegotiation of leader identities.* Through collaborative work, the leaders had found their own professional identities to be strengthened and discovered also that their shared collective identity (i.e. their sense of 'what kind of leadership team we are') had crystallised. In this renegotiation process, a crucial element was the shift from externally determined leadership roles towards a personal leadership style and towards finding one's own leader identity. A key aspect here was each leader recognising their personal strengths and weaknesses and having the courage to take risks and make mistakes. The leaders indicated that peer support and the chance to share sorrows and joys in the work were essential for effective leadership and for the renegotiation of leader identities. One important issue that arose involved making one's own leadership commitments visible. This was implemented through expressions of what leadership entailed. These were reported to the staff as a whole.

2.7 Conclusion and Discussion

Although based on a small-scale case study, our findings suggest that in teacher education transformations, collective leadership and the leaders' professional agency are salient. In creating collective ways of working, educational leaders need time and space to build trust and openness and the courage to take risks and to make mistakes. It is imperative that these leaders should be able to renegotiate their professional identities as leaders and to create their personal ways of leading, recognising their own professional strengths and weaknesses.

It should be noted that in this study collective agency refers to the team of the four leaders (the head, the vice head, the research leader, and the pedagogical leader) and their collective actions in leading and developing teacher education. However, at the same time, this study acknowledges that leaders' collective agency is always embedded within shared leadership practices of the whole teacher education organisation. This implies that one of the main goals for leaders' collective efforts is to support agency among all the teacher educators and thus support their influence on shared issues through participation, collaboration, and common responsibility.

The findings of this study suggest that in developing leadership practices, the concept of agency should be highlighted and agency-promoting practices should be enhanced. Agency-promoting leadership refers to the idea that educational organisations should be managed through communication, collaboration, and interaction; the emphasis should be on people, relationships, and learning, rather than on strong management, externally set standards, or an accountability culture (Brennan and MacRuairc 2011; Hökkä and Vähäsantanen 2014). This will require educational leaders to be able to support the identity renegotiations and professional agency of their staff and to deal with issues connected to their *own* professional identities as leaders. Furthermore, agency-promoting leadership means that leaders should have the competencies to increase collaboration, interaction, innovations, and creativity within their organisations, since all these aspects can enhance organisational transformations (Vähäsantanen et al. 2017). Such leadership practices do not evolve through policy-level instructions nor by relying on leaders' individual power. Agency-promoting leadership requires collaboration and the deliberate building of leadership teams.

All in all, in advocating *collective agency-promoting leadership*, we see the following as crucial:

Collective Leadership Turbulent realities and constant changes are so demanding in educational contexts that it is no longer possible for individuals to exercise leadership on their own (Jäppinen 2014; Weick and Sutcliffe 2007). Indeed, our findings imply that the era of individually based leadership is over. All in all, it appears that the need now is for collective leadership practices. Within collective leadership, leaders have opportunities to become emotionally empowered in their challenging work and to become conscious, for example, of the (possibly unproductive) defensive practices they might be drawn to adopt.

A Focus on Professional Identities and Learning The findings of this study suggest that it is crucial for leaders to understand the significance of professional identities and to gain strategies for dealing with identity issues in working life interactions. However, this does not mean that strategic leadership should be discarded. On the contrary, teacher education organisations need crystallised strategies if they are to build sustainable visions for the future. The pivotal issue is that the staff should be involved in formulating strategic processes and that their agency in debating and resolving shared issues should be supported.

Promoting the Agency of Staff It appears to be critical for leaders to promote the professional agency of their staff. Studies have shown that the active involvement of employees in shared issues is connected to their well-being, enthusiasm, and overall work engagement (e.g. Hakanen et al. 2006). By promoting the agency of the staff, it may be possible to discover innovative solutions to some of the most acute problems of organisations. This can be done, for example, by deliberately creating processes, spaces, places, and times for participation. Agency can also be enhanced by

not merely giving space to critical voices but rather by actively working with critical representations, addressing difficult issues head-on.

Crafting Leader Identities Leading is a challenging task, based on constant interactions and on complex relationships. Thus, it cannot be performed via externally set role models; every leader has to find her or his individual way of leading, reconciling personal strengths and weaknesses alongside socially set expectations and roles. The crafting and renegotiation of a personal leader identity is a lifelong process. Within this crafting, leaders should have the possibilities to enlarge their own identities, at the same time as they encounter and support a wide range of identities among their staff.

Emotional Agency Emotional agency implies that leaders should understand and have the capacity to consider the role of different emotions – their own and those of others – within the work. In the best case, the leaders will show sensitivity, leniency towards themselves and others, and the ability to evoke enthusiasm. Through such emotional agency, leaders can promote resources in such a way that people feel able to set limits to the most stressful aspects of their work and to achieve a sense of meaningfulness within it.

Overall, we suggest that collective agency-promoting leadership will support transparency and trust within an organisation, leading to possibilities for sustainable structural changes and new practices. Furthermore, it can enhance the well-being of both the staff and the leaders themselves. For this to be achieved, leaders should be supported in efforts towards achieving collective leadership. This will help them in renegotiating their own professional identities and in promoting the identity work of their staff. We believe that in the field of teacher education, collective agency-promoting leadership will be necessary in facing up to the unpredictable – but in all probability, enormous – challenges of teaching teachers in the twenty-first century.

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Chapter 3
An Insider Look at the Implications of 'Partnership' Policy for Teacher Educators' Professional Learning: An Australian Perspective

Simone White

Abstract Encouraging, strengthening and in some countries mandating, school-university partnerships is a policy strategy used by governments globally to drive teacher education reform. The past decade has seen a rapid move by the Australian federal government from initially fostering partnerships to now mandating partnership agreements with schools. Shortly, all initial teacher education providers will need to demonstrate their formal partnership agreements in writing, tied to accreditation purposes. Within this policy environment, teacher educators (particularly university-based) are instrumental in what the design, development and implementation of these mandated partnership models might look like. Many teacher educators however appear ill-equipped for such work and are reluctant to step into these boundary spaces between universities, schools and their communities. This chapter reports on one component of a broader study conducted to better understand the current 'partnership' policy implications for teacher education, the possible reasons for resistance in partnership work by university-based teacher educators and the professional learning needs to facilitate such partnerships.

3.1 Introduction

Teacher education is a growing but still relatively new field of empirical study (Grossman and McDonald 2008) and so too is the focus on those who work in teacher education: teacher educators (both university-based and school-based). While research into this particular occupational group has expanded over the past decade (see, e.g. Murray and Male 2005; Swennen and Van der Klink 2009; Boyd et al. 2011; Mayer et al. 2011; Williams et al. 2012, Goodwin and Kosnik 2013), studies to date have not been able to keep ahead of the intense political gaze

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and increasing reform pressure placed on this group by policymakers. Just like teachers, teacher educators have been described by Cochran-Smith (2003) as 'linchpins in educational reforms of all kinds' (p. 5). While this group may be viewed as instrumental to reform agendas by public 'outsiders' to teacher education, the capacity to do policy-practice-research bridging work is simply assumed rather than explicitly understood, fostered or enabled by those who create the agendas. As a consequence, teacher educators are *implied* as change agents in order to create, design and deliver exemplary teacher education partnership programs, but without the matching attention to research (or resourcing) into the knowledge base and professional learning needs necessary to enable teacher educators to do so.

To illustrate this point, research into the components of what might make an effective teacher education program, for example, has revealed that exemplary programs tend to be those that integrate coursework and professional experience and where effective school and university partnerships are created. As Darling-Hammond (2006) notes:

> Three critical components of such [exemplary] programs include tight coherence and integration among courses and between course work and clinical work in schools, extensive and intensely supervised clinical work integrated with course work using pedagogies that link theory and practice, and closer, proactive relationships with schools that serve diverse learners effectively and develop and model good teaching. (p. 300)

While such research above provides the empirical and theoretical insights into the 'what' of effective teacher education programs, which are so vital to better prepare teachers, the implications of the 'how' of this type of program development and the 'who' is to do this work are left largely unexamined. To date the *work* and *professional learning* of teacher educators (both school-based and university-based) to enable these types of exemplary programs and partnerships to flourish are not yet well understood. To contribute to a better understanding of the professional learning needs of university-based teacher educators engaged in partnership work, and the policy implications surrounding their work, a small qualitative study was conducted. This smaller study sits within a larger research project currently funded by the Victorian Department of Education and Training (DET) that has examined the professional learning of a broader group of partners (e.g. principals, mentor teachers and pre-service teachers). For the purposes of this chapter, a particular spotlight on the policy implications for university-based teacher educators (rather than other groups) is provided.

The qualitative study consisted of two parts: first, a teacher education policy document analysis and second, interviews with the initial sample of teacher educators (n = 3) engaged in establishing and building school-university partnership models. Before further describing the study, attention first turns to the very heart of the problematic nature of defining 'teacher educators' as an occupational group or profession. Also, some of the contributing factors of the perceived lowly status and position of teacher educators betwixt 'field and ivory tower' (Murray 2002) in universities and of a 'Janus-faced' profession (Taylor 1983) are examined. These two areas are important to understand as teacher educators appear unaware of their own significance in the research-policy-practice nexus, a position that appears to be part

of the important contextual backdrop, and further adding to the problem of teacher educators being ill-equipped to respond to 'partnership' policy imperatives in the first place.

3.2 Teacher Educators: A Profession or Occupational Group?

While Australian policymakers might have begun to firmly focus their gaze on teacher educators as a key occupational group to enact reform change, *who* actually constitutes this group and their professional status and professional learning needs is still very much being debated (see Swennen and Van der Klink 2009; Murray and Male 2005). Recently, Snoek et al. (2011) noted the 'definition of a teacher educator can be formulated as someone who contributes in a formal way to the learning and development of teachers' (p. 652). While traditionally this role and work have referred to those in universities, more recently in the Australian context, the definition (at least by policymakers) has begun to be widened to encompass those who work in schools with pre-service teachers. Mentor teacher or supervising teachers are emerging in the teacher education policy context as vital to improving teacher education, but there is as yet no formal professional learning required in order to accept a pre-service teacher (White and Forgasz 2017).

While the European Commission (2013) recently noted that 'teacher educators work in many different institutional contexts and come to teacher education from different backgrounds' (p. 8), in Australia, teacher educators is a term currently used to describe those who work in higher education institutions (HEI). In the Australian context, a study revealed that most teacher educators come into higher education from a teaching background, with the completion of a doctoral degree as main criteria. As an Australian study revealed, taking on the work of a teacher educator however also involves little preparation and has been described as 'an accidental career' (Mayer et al. 2011). The study further revealed that many university-based teacher educators entered higher education with little to no induction into or professional learning about the role and work: 'entering the teacher education profession often appears to be a phenomenon of chance' (p. 252). Consistent with other studies (Kosnik et al. 2011) and the European Commission (2013) and further complicating the role identification are the issues that many Australian academics involved in teacher education do not actually self-identify as a teacher educator. As noted by the European Commission (2013), 'many of those who teach teachers might not consider themselves to be teacher educators at all' (p. 8).

This statement is particularly true in the Australian context, with those based in either schools or in higher education institutions (HEI), often preferring to define or describe themselves as either a teacher or academic, respectively. As an example, classroom teachers often tend to see their first priority (quite naturally) to the children/students that they teach and are not always willing participants in taking an active role in pre-service teacher education. As a result, the Australian Council of

Deans (2008) has documented the epic struggle of asking teachers to accept pre-service teachers into their classrooms. For those based within an HEI education faculty, some prefer to define themselves by their discipline, for example, as a math educator or by the work of a university scholar or academic. This lack of role and therefore work identification has led to debates about the professional status of this organisational group and to claims of a 'hidden profession' (Snoek et al. 2011). Further complicating the situation is the lower status of teacher education within higher education, an issue that in Australia has resulted in a further marginalisation of those who do choose to identify as a teacher educator and a reason why some choose to not.

3.3 The Janus-Faced Profession: The Problem for Teacher Educators and Their Professional Learning

The consequence of the 'hidden profession' in Australia, like that of England, is largely a result of the late arrival of teacher education into universities and to the feminised nature of the occupational group as well. The last quarter of the twentieth century witnessed teacher education in Australia move from teaching colleges into the university where it remains today, albeit under greater pressure for alternative routes into teacher education to be opened up under a marketisation agenda (similar to England, the United States, and other OECD countries). Just as in the United Kingdom, its late arrival into academia has meant that it has 'also been a late arrival in the status-stakes, too' (Maguire 2000, p. 151). Teacher education's difficulty in clearly positioning itself within higher education has left it open to constant scrutiny from those both within and beyond the university. As a consequence it has been viewed, as Taylor (1983) noted, as 'Janus-faced': 'In the one direction it faces classroom and school, with their demands for relevance, practicality, competence, technique. In the other it faces the university and the world of research, with their stress on scholarship, theoretical fruitfulness and disciplinary rigour' (p. 4).

It seems that neither those within academia nor those beyond, in schools, view university-based teacher educators favourably, due to the often dualist and competing nature of their role and the issues around preparing teachers. The 'late comer' and lower status of teacher education within the university and the subsequent lack of acknowledgement of the importance of professional experience work (e.g. visiting schools, working alongside teachers, supporting pre-service teachers in schools) result in a tendency for this work to be left to adjunct staff, retired teachers and principals or doctoral students and staff who often do not teach in teacher education programs. As Le Cornu (2010) explained in the Australian context, it is a problematic tendency for university advisors to be drawn from adjunct staff 'who are not deeply engaged in the rest of the teacher education program' (p. 204).

Similar to the findings from the study by Beck and Kosnik (2002), pre-service teacher relational work and the time spent in building school-university partnerships are also not as highly regarded or rewarded in Australian universities as graduate

doctoral work, research or publishing. This has led to what is perceived by the public ironically to be the most important 'policy to practice' work being left to those who are not always fully engaged in the research and practice of teacher education. Regardless of individual self-identification or the issue that this group is not yet well understood, policy reforms in Australia continue to focus on this occupational group as implied change agents. It appears that the 'hidden profession' is also hidden but vital in policy implications. The policy gaze has major implications for the future of teacher education and teacher educators' professional learning at both sites (university and school). As such, it was timely to focus research on the partnership policy implications for university-based teacher educator's professional learning.

3.4 The Study

As part of the current Australian policy partnership reform agenda that began federally in earnest in 2008 (noting that partnerships are not new in the Australian research literature) and as one illustration, the Faculty of Education at Monash University partnered with nine schools (three secondary and six primary) to form a particular partnership cluster known as the Monash-Casey Teaching Academy of Professional Practice (TAPP). The project was funded by the Victorian Department of Education for 2 years (2015–2017) and aimed to bring together school and university colleagues to improve the preparation of pre-service teachers. A component of the overall funding was dedicated to researching the partnership project *from the inside*.

The main aim of the research component was to investigate the professional learning needs of teachers and others involved in partnership work within the project. To this end, interviews have been conducted over the funding period from across the various stakeholders involved including principals, key mentor teachers, teacher educators, pre-service teachers and parents and community members. Ethics approval to conduct the study was gained from Monash University Research Office (Project ID CF15/2971– 2015001221). Interviews have been audio recorded and transcribed and returned to each participant for their permission to use the interview transcript as data in the analysis. For the purposes of this chapter, data is drawn from two components: an examination of the teacher education partnership policy trajectory and documentation, drawing from the release of the Australian Government's Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group (TEMAG) review and report entitled *Action Now: Classroom Ready teachers* (2014), and; the first wave of semi-structured interviews conducted in early 2016 with three teacher educators (university-based) who were centrally involved as both teacher educators and researchers in the project.

Thematic analysis was used for both sets of data. Atkinson and Coffey (1996) refer to documents as 'social facts', which are produced, shared and used in socially organised ways (p. 47). Using document analysis (Bowen 2009), the two most recent policy documents (the TEMAG recommendations and the report) were examined to find, select and make sense of and synthesise the data in particular

reference to the key question of how partnerships are understood and portrayed within the documents. And, what is the (implied or explicit) work of teacher educators in the partnership agenda revealed within the documents? These questions were then considered across the three interview transcripts looking at the data to uncover the ways in which the teacher educator's themselves discussed their own identity, role, work and any professional learning in relationship to the partnership work they were engaged with.

3.4.1 The Australian Teacher Education 'Partnership' Policy Context: Document Analysis

While university-based teacher educators are the main focus of this chapter, it is important to understand the broader partnership policy context and reforms that impact and shape their work in the Australian context. It is also important to note for international readers that Australia tends to 'shadow' the teacher education policy trajectory of England, in particular, and is increasingly heavily influenced by reforms occurring in the United States (see Mayer 2014; White 2016). Australia's close economic, social and historical ties with England and the United States not surprisingly mean that reform agenda tend to be sourced from our close allies with a rapid rate of 'reform borrowing, not always learning' (Lingard 2010) since the turn of the millennium. For Australia, being in such a policy periphery position can be both a blessing and curse, with the ability to know what might be ahead by looking to our 'cousins or relatives' (Gilroy 2014) past. What is outlined below therefore might sound like *deja vu* for some international colleagues.

In following our 'cousins', the Australian government has embarked on a 'nationalisation' agenda in relation to teacher education and schooling, for example, the past decade has witnessed the creation of national curriculum, assessment and reporting and national standards in the form of the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers and a national movement for accreditation of all initial teacher education providers as well as a nationalised approach to school-university partnerships. With this national strengthening has also come an emerging deregulation agenda of the current university-led teacher education programs with calls for greater market-driven accountability and alternative routes such as Teach for Australia (TEMAG 2014). At the heart of many of the calls for improved teacher education is belief that such partnerships will 'solve' the perceived divide between 'theory' and 'practice'. 'Partnerships' have long been viewed in this way, as the vehicle to bring closer together the perceived divide and address many of the critiques of teacher preparation programs, particularly those coming from principals and pre-service teachers.

In Australia, the 'partnership' policy imperative at the federal level began in earnest via the National Partnership Agreement on Improving Teacher Quality (Australian Council of Deans of Education 2008). This document was the first partnership policy wave, placing a greater focus on strengthening linkages between

initial teacher education (ITE) programs, beginning teaching and teacher professional learning by endorsing:

1. The systemic response to strengthening linkages between initial teacher education programs and transition to beginning teaching and teacher induction
2. The professional learning implications of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers working together as co-producers of knowledge (Australian Council of Deans of Education 2008, p. 4)

While the second partnership wave through the TEMAG report (2015) did not specifically state recommended mandated partnerships, it is through the changes to the national ITE accreditation processes that will ensure initial teacher education providers place 'partnerships' as a key feature. For example, Program Standard 5 states:

> Formal partnerships agreed in writing are developed and used by providers and schools/sites/systems to facilitate the delivery of programs, particularly professional experience for pre-service teachers. (p. 34)

Complimentary to the accreditation reforms, the TEMAG report named five main reform themes, two of which are directly linked to the partnership agenda. The first is a 'stronger quality assurance of teacher education courses', with increased focus on 'producing graduates with the skills and knowledge to drive student outcomes' (p. 4) and the other an 'improved and structured practical experience for teacher education students' (p. 4) noting that 'the focus on high quality practical experience should be embedded in every teacher education course' (p. 7).

There is a heavy emphasis within the TEMAG recommendations, and report on the need for university program changes to reflect a greater focus on the importance of 'practicum' rather than the coursework or curriculum component and on 'partnerships' in recognition of the key role and work of those who mentor pre-service teachers at the school level. The TEMAG report includes the following:

> To ensure new teachers are entering classrooms with sufficient practical skills, the Advisory Group recommends ensuring experiences of appropriate timing, length and frequency are available to all teacher education students. Placements must be supported by highly-skilled supervising teachers who are able to demonstrate and assess what is needed to be an effective teacher. The advisory Group strongly states that better partnerships between universities and schools are needed to deliver high quality practical experience. (p. 7)

Classroom teachers as evidenced within this quote are increasingly viewed or positioned as highly influential in the preparation of teachers, yet there is no reference in any of the recommendations or documents to their own work as teachers of pre-service teachers or of the work implied for teacher educators in either building partnerships or in supporting classroom teachers. As highlighted, the stress on 'partnerships' within this document is not necessarily new to the international teacher education audience. This shift in emphasis away from university-led coursework towards 'partnerships' and more school-based (not yet school-led) professional experience (practicum) is consistent with changes that have occurred in other countries and has been described by some as a practice turn (Reid 2011) or 'practicum turn in teacher education' (Zeichner and Bier 2013).

Like England in the early 1990s, where it was made mandatory for HEIs to offer pre-service courses with schools, thus making partnership a 'core principle of provision' (Furlong et al. 2006, p. 33), Australia is now following suit. Conroy et al. (2013) describe the rise of 'professional learning schools' across a number of countries as part of a recent partnership reform agenda in Scotland but suggest there is little emphasis on the place, work or role of university-based teacher educators to bring about such change. Australia is currently in this same position, and the funding of the Teaching Academies of Professional Practice is itself an example of governments (state and federal) creating 'professional learning schools' or school-university partnerships through major funding initiatives.

What the 'practicum turn' policy rhetoric seems to be missing, with its focus on 'partnerships', practicum and mentors, is the equal attention to teacher education curriculum redesign and teacher educator's professional learning at the university, to enable them to enact the important policy-practice work. In following England's 'partnership' agenda, it can be expected this second partnership policy wave for Australia will in turn spawn a new emphasis on the importance of mentors in schools, their expertise and professional development and career opportunities and involve large numbers of teacher educators and mentors who will become involved in school-university boundary crossing activities and the professional learning opportunities offered by them (White and Murray 2016). It is to the very nature of this 'new' boundary crossing work for Australian teacher educators as they build such 'partnerships' in Australia that the attention now goes.

3.4.2 Teacher Educators: Partnerships and Professional Learning

To complement the policy analysis and to begin to better understand some of the implications of the partnership policy agenda on the professional learning needs of university-based teacher educators in creating and developing partnerships, a group of three teacher educators (themselves researchers in the project) agreed to participate in the study and were asked a series of questions. These included:

- What experiences have you had with school-university partnerships?
- Do you identify with being a 'teacher educator'?
- What do you understand are the challenges and benefits of working in a partnership model?
- What motivates you to do this partnership work?
- What previous professional learning have you had in working in partnerships?

In analysing the transcripts of the interviews, a central theme emerged, which was consistent with the literature discussed earlier. This central theme, discussed below, explores the connection between the emerging role identification of a teacher educator with the work and professional learning involved in partnerships. The three teacher educators are introduced in the following section, and excerpts as data

from the transcripts are used to illustrate points. The three teacher educators have been given pseudonyms.

3.4.3 Teacher Educator's Identity and Professional Learning in Partnership Work

The three teacher educators interviewed had varying degrees of experience in working in a higher education setting. All came to teacher education from a teaching background. One teacher educator (Julie) had more than 25 years in primary classrooms before beginning her work as a teacher educator. At the time of the interview, Julie had only recently stepped down from her official role of Director of Professional Experience, a key role that had been created within the faculty 4 years ago as a direct response to the first wave of the federal government's focus on incentivising partnerships. Roberta came to teacher education from a secondary teaching background where she was a drama teacher. Roberta had also just completed a term as a professional experience advisor, a role formed within the faculty that placed her centrally to the administrative workload required in supporting pre-service teachers' experiences in the practicum. Heidi also came from a primary teaching background and is the newest of the group to teacher education, with 3 years' experience. She has recently taken up a professional experience liaison role, yet another newly created role within the faculty, in line with the second wave of partnership policy development. This particular role involves partnership brokering and developing partnership agreement arrangements.

For all three, it appeared their professional experience roles given to them through the changes made in the structural portfolio roles within the faculty became instrumental in thinking explicitly about the role and work as teacher educators in professional experience and was the catalyst for them to become more focused on their own identity, role and boundary crossing as teacher educators engaged in the work of partnerships. All three described that they were very motivated to engage with school partners, as part of and beyond their actual role and workload at the university, and keen to create effective and systematic partnerships. All described, however, that they had little to no formal professional learning prior to being given their roles at the university, and so they drew from their own experiences as teachers, mentor teachers and teacher educators and on their own research expertise.

Julie explained that in taking on her role as Director of Professional Experience (a significant leadership role in partnership development) the advice given to her in relation to building partnerships with provider schools was to 'go out and see what works'. Likewise Heidi, when allocated her role as a professional experience liaison (PEL) officer, mused that perhaps it was because she was good with people, 'a relational person' that she was asked to take on the role. She described in doing so she had little understanding or knowledge of the work she should be doing beyond a recognition of the importance of what she was being asked to do. In being asked

about her work and any professional learning about partnership building, she responded:

> Especially given my role as a PEL, [professional learning about partnerships] is probably fairly important. But I don't know what that might look like really, what sort of professional learning you might actually do; I don't know. Who might run it or what might it involve or what you might learn there, I don't know. I think I've just sort of seen it as a go in and do the best I can type thing.

When Julie first began her leadership role, she described her work as 'driving out to schools' and 'trying to find a partnership framework' to understand partnership work itself. Initially she noted schools were keen to be partners, but their understanding of this work was also different to her own. She explained some frustration at schools' perception of 'partnerships' as seeing people from the university coming out to schools as experts of a particular 'discipline' or knowledge base and not as she hoped with the view of a mutually reciprocal relationship. She notes this earlier work as:

> Our real challenge, and we did, we drove many miles, went to a whole lot of different schools who are very keen to talk to us, very keen to build some sort of partnership but the overwhelming partnership they wanted was professional development from academic staff to their staff, [for example] tell us about the latest things about teaching maths or how do you use ICT and a good way to use Smartboards in classrooms, we want PD from the university because you're the experts.

Julie goes on to describe the desire for a 'real' partnership as an understanding and respecting of different knowledges and expertise and seeing each other as colleagues. She expresses this as an issue because as she describes, school-based colleagues have little understanding of the work of a teacher educator at a university. She describes the feeling of strangeness of going back into schools and 'knowing the school' but that her colleagues did not understand her work or her context in the same way.

> When I go to schools I know what they do because I've done it whereas teachers in schools, unless they've worked in universities don't know what we do. I think the perceived divide is that lack of knowledge of others' work practices and what we actually do. [T]hey don't know what we do whereas we can walk into a school and feel fairly comfortable and know probably what's going on even if we may not know the detail. I think in building the partnerships and trying to get that divide bridged in some way is to enable them to see us as colleagues, as teachers. If you're a teacher educator you're still a teacher, you're teaching but see us as colleagues rather than somehow separate.

Roberta also describes in her interview her shift in understanding of her identity in relation to her school-based colleagues and to her shifting view of her role in partnership work. She described that in coming in to teacher education work, she originally thought of herself as more of an expert drama teacher. This shifted over time to now describing herself as a teacher educator, teaching through drama. She notes this shift in thinking about herself as a 'teacher educator' changed the way she thought about partnership work. She considers partnership work similar to Julie in that partnerships are about different expertise coming together in mutually beneficial ways. She notes:

> So there was something [originally] uncomfortable about inviting school based colleagues to share my space [at university], because that was my expertise. Now that I don't identify as an expert drama teacher anymore, and so I'm looking for school based colleagues to connect with. Because they're the examples of powerful practitioner approaches, and my role is to mediate what are they doing and how does that connect to what we're exploring theoretically.

She further describes the partnership work she is now doing as a 'third space' of interaction.

> I really do identify as a teacher educator and a researcher of teacher education. It is just evident to me that there is not – it's almost like there is no point, there's no point doing amazing work in the university space or the school space – unless there's that third space of interaction in that work. Yeah I just feel like I get it, I get the accusation of academics in their ivory towers in teacher education. If you're not simultaneously looking at what does this actually look like and how does it translate and what does it mean and how does it mean anything, in the context of school. And that pull for pre-service teachers, the pull to school and what is really happening, there's no point, it's like there's no point doing my job if I don't engage in schools.

For all three in reflecting on their partnership work, they explained that it made them realise their own expertise as a teacher educator and helped them to distinguish and value the role of teachers and especially of teachers who were taking on the work of becoming school-based teacher educators. This realisation and sharpening of their teacher educator identity helped them to distinguish the work they were doing and in turn helped them seek out more mutually agreeable partnerships.

> We're not doing this just so that we can show… that we've got X number of partnerships, here's the piece of paper to prove it. We're doing it because it's valuable in its own self. There needs to be the structure and the support in the faculty to make sure that the partnerships or the relationships or the models keep going and evolving, they don't have to be the same for the next ten years but [partnerships] need to be central …. When I asked what is the framework around this partnership work that we're meant to go out to the schools and do, instead of getting [teacher educators] to go out and see what works, we now have a structure in place or getting it in place that will be that framework that hasn't been there before. So I think that's a challenge for all of us from the Dean down. It doesn't need to involve money all the time, it's not about that, it's about how people think about what they do.

For teacher educators, such as Julie, Roberta and Heidi, who move across sites such as schools and universities and other community settings, their multi-memberships can become fraught as they work hard to negotiate their identities across different boundaries and educational spaces. For university-based teacher educators, adding 'more faces' can sometimes make their role and work incredibly challenging. As Wenger (1998) notes:

> The job of brokering is complex. It involves processes of translation, coordination, and alignment between perspectives. It requires enough legitimacy to influence the development of a practice. (p. 109)

For teacher educators doing this type of brokering and relational work, it requires a new understanding of workload and of reward and recognition within the already

difficult space of competing research-teaching pressures. As Williams (2014) describe:

> One of the more difficult tasks faced by members of a community of practice is negotiating meaning between various communities of practice, or brokering. However, by coordinating connections across communities, participants are able to open up possibilities for learning, and to gain new perspectives that are not apparent within one community alone. (p. 246)

3.5 Conclusion

The call for mandated partnerships in the Australian context clearly heralds the need for a change or shift beyond the current status quo for stakeholders. The silence around the role of the university-based teacher educator in much of the policy focus, however, means that there is a missing piece to the collective puzzle of improving teacher education. Effective school-university partnerships require broader system support for all stakeholders and a recognition of the brokering skills to do so. To move beyond the status quo, we need a systems approach. As Le Cornu (2015) states: there appears to be an increasing commitment to the view that sustaining high quality partnerships requires a 'whole of systems' response (p. 16).

'Janus-facing professions' like teacher education in particular need an alternative approach – one that stops the constant 'switching' to either/or – but to 'both'. Goodwin et al., (2014) explain that what is needed is a 'research-practice hybridity'. Including a 'both and also' approach has increasingly been recommended to address the types of binaries described above that appear to divide the teacher preparation profession. Zeichner (2009) recommended these 'both' approaches utilising 'hybrid spaces' consistent with the way Roberta frames her work. Spaces in which 'the traditional dichotomy of academic and practitioner knowledge' (p. 89) can be overcome and resolved. Bhabha (1994) described *third space* as founded on the notion of 'in between spaces' that exist in the 'overlap and displacement of domains of difference' (p. 2). In regard to partnerships, the 'domains of difference' as Bhabha (1994) notes apply in the perceived traditional education divides between university and school, university teacher education coursework and professional experience placements, teaching and mentoring, and learning to teach and assessing teaching. A particularly enlightened review (Donaldson 2011) into teacher education noted that school-based experience such as partnerships and the practicum should do much more than provide practice in classroom skills, vital though these are. The review notes that:

> Experience in a school, provides the opportunity to use practice, to explore theory and examine relevant research evidence. We need alternative models that help reduce unhelpful philosophical and structural divides [that] have led to sharp separations of function amongst teachers, teacher educators and researchers. (p. 5)

Partnerships can be a loose connection with little real reciprocity or learning across stakeholders, or they can be a functioning and evolving community of

practice whereby schools and universities exhibit the three elements of notions of mutuality, joint enterprise and shared repertoire (Wenger 2008). To create these highly effective 'hybrid' partnership models, it is important to re-examine the work, roles and professional identities of teacher educators as they endeavour to create and work in these new spaces.

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Chapter 4
An Exploration of Teacher Educator Identities Within an Irish Context of Reform

Catherine Furlong and Maeve O'Brien

There is for many in Higher Education a growing sense of ontological insecurity; both a loss of a sense of meaning in what we do and of what is important in what we do. Are we doing things for the 'right' reasons – and how can we know!
(Ball 2012)

Abstract As teacher education undergoes reform in many jurisdictions, who teacher educators are, their lives and their work, continue to be in the spotlight internationally while remaining relatively underexplored in the Irish context. The research from which this chapter draws is an attempt to address this lacuna. Performativity and accountability agendas globally and the European economic austerity landscape have set the scene for a radical reform agenda in initial teacher education (ITE) in Ireland. From a largely autonomous college-based system of provision at primary level, now ITE is subject to stronger regulation and oversight by the Irish Teaching Council and through a rationalisation of ITE within higher education. Drawing on a phenomenological approach and in depth interviews with ITE educators across five education departments in Ireland, we decode their experiences, values and concerns relative to changing contexts. We explore the diverse pathways, values and experiences that construct them as teacher educators in the present, and gain insight in to the strength of former professional identities. Bourdieu's metaphor of habitus and field enables us to make sense of distinctions in values and practices across the subfields of initial teacher education and to explain why practitioner teacher identity continues to be privileged in the context of this policy agenda.

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4.1 Introduction

Teacher education has undergone radical reforms in many jurisdictions in recent times, and teacher educators' work has been increasingly in the spotlight. However, the scrutiny and examination of teacher education under the twin pillars of neoliberalism and accountability and performativity (Ball 2003; Goodson 2003) have not necessarily extended to exploring this work from the perspective of Irish teacher educators themselves, what they value or to how they understand themselves as teacher educators in changing times. This chapter explores how teacher educators themselves, as insiders in the changing teacher education landscape, understand their roles and professional identities.

Within the shifting globalised teacher education context, teacher education in Ireland has experienced its own particular form of scrutiny at national level (Kellaghan 2002; Teaching Council 2011a, b; HEA Report 2012). From various quarters there have been challenges to its traditions, organisation and location within particular religious institutions at primary school level and also in relation to its economic sustainability across a range of diverse institutions nationally. Government has acted upon commissioned reports advocating radical reforms, specifically the amalgamation of initial teacher education (ITE) departments and institutions across primary and post-primary teacher education providers. This is an unprecedented moment in Irish education. Moreover, in addition to these institutional upheavals, the structure and content of teacher education programmes themselves have become subject to the approval of the recently formed Teaching Council (TC), where previously teacher educators in education departments within universities, and in colleges of education, had a large degree of autonomy over the nature of the programmes.

We draw upon a series of qualitative data sets gathered from ethnographic interviews with full-time teacher educators across five institutional settings, all providing initial teacher education in the past 10 years, two schools of education within the universities and three colleges of education affiliated to universities, in order to understand what it means to be a teacher educator in their terms.[1] We revisited the participants to elicit their perspectives on their changing identities relative to institutional and policy contexts over time. As there are a limited number of ITE providers within Ireland, it was imperative that due regard be given to protecting the identities of those involved and their institutional affiliations. While pseudonyms are used in the thematic analysis, we have tried, as far as humanly possible, to use the data judiciously or to edit details without altering meaning materially, as a further protection to participants. This chapter contributes new perspectives on Irish teacher educators, how they see themselves in the changing policy landscape.

[1] The situation is complicated by the fact that there are increasing numbers of teacher educators on full-time short contracts and on part-time hours. The employment framework in Ireland in the last 5 years has made the work experience very uncertain for many beginning teacher educators.

4.2 Discourses of Identity and Teacher Educators' Identities

To begin to understand identity is a complex task and, as Beijaard et al. (2004) suggest, identity is a concept with different meanings and definitions in both the general literature and in the realm of teacher education. Yet, despite the proliferation of perspectives on the question of identity, the problem of identifying identity is one that has a real significance in contemporary theoretical debates. The tensions between traditional understandings of identity as substantive and core and more post-modern perspectives of identity as fluid and performed are worthy of consideration in relation to our research.

Increasingly dominant perspectives on identity in the twenty-first century suggests that there is no fixed point of reference for identity, but rather that it '… is a socialised and socialising process in which identities can be received as well as shaped' (Gunter 2001, p. 5). It is possible to see how a view of a socialised and plastic identity in respect of teacher educators fits more smoothly with a professional identity that can flow with the kinds of upheaval and sea changes that are being wrought within the Irish educational system. We opened with a quotation taken from Stephen Ball's work (2003) from a paper in which he critiques, with ferocity, the 'taken-for-grantedness' around the elasticity and plasticity of educators' professional identities. Ball argues that neo-liberal forces that are anti-education and pro-productivity have colonised the souls of teachers, rendering them as reformed subjects and education workers in the education marketplace (Ball 2003, p. 219).

According to Swennen et al.'s definitions (2010, p. 132), teacher educators are 'a specialised professional group within education with their own specific identity and their own professional development needs'. This suggests a common sense of professional identity and consensus on values, priorities and purpose. While agreeing with Swennen et al. (2010) that teacher educators are indeed a 'specialised professional group', we question the notion that they have a collective identity and assert that this is perhaps even less probable within the fast-changing reform context of Ireland. Moreover, if identity is personally, socially and culturally constructed, and dynamic and responsive to social and cultural contexts, then the notion of a collective global teacher educator identity is highly questionable (Kelchtermans 1993, 2005). Wenger (1998) and Holland et al. (1998) stress the individual and personal aspects of identities and the relationship between identity and personal history.

One of the main issues in trying to conceptualise identity for our research across teacher educators in diverse institutional settings and positioned variously in terms of expertise and academic allegiances is to try and understand how professional identities interplay with each other and are shaped by the social in terms of involvement in the 'communities of practice' (Lave and Wenger 1991) that are subject to clarion calls for reform. Identity, we suggest, is relational, as we participate in a variety of communities of practice, some of which may or may not overlie others. Our identity is shaped by our involvement within these communities of practice, but equally our identity acts upon or influences these communities. Furthermore, we suggest that the level of reciprocity between our professional 'self' and the particu-

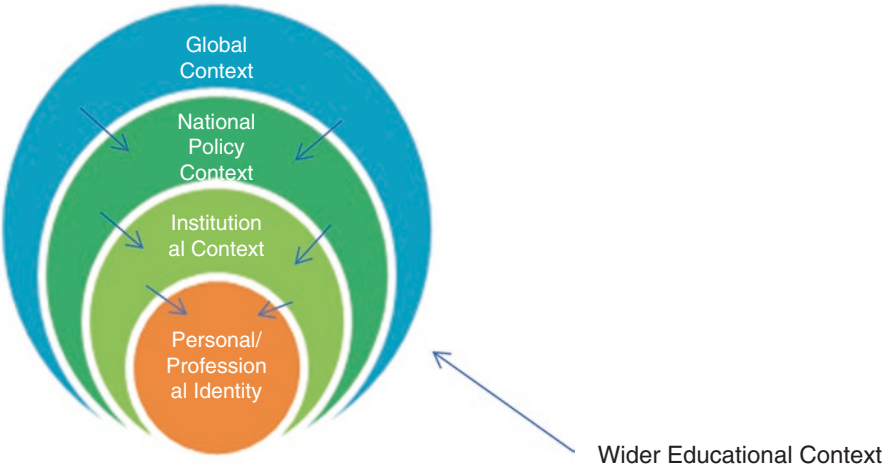

Fig. 4.1 Spheres of influence on teacher educator identity

lar group may depend on our place and status within the community. Figure 4.1 explores the aforementioned spheres of influences on identity.

Given the nature of the reforms at institutional level in the Irish ITE context, we suggest that particular teacher educators may be disadvantaged by virtue of their positioning and how their location is associated with the kind of teacher educator work they do – and indeed their identity. We explore this conceptualisation informed by the findings of Alsup (2005) and Miller Marsh (2002) who suggest that learning communities possess the potential to facilitate the creation of new identities but that they also have the potential to solidify and reify identities, and therefore practice.

4.3 Irish Social and Policy Landscape: Seismic Shifts

Since the early 1990s, Irish education has seen substantial change regarding policy formulation, legislation and reform (Coolahan 2004), and there appears to be agreement among educationalists and politicians that a high-quality education system is vital if Ireland is to grow and thrive within a globalised knowledge society. The latter aspiration has brought to the fore a central policy debate about issues of both performativity and accountability, raising key questions about the state and schooling. Most recently this has been discernible with the publication of a National Plan for Literacy and Numeracy to address the perceived low rate of both literacy and numeracy standards when compared with international level (Department of Education and Skills (DES) 2011).

The overwhelming thrust of policy, at both national and local levels, has been to increase pressure on accountability for measured student performance, paralleling societal trends towards an increased focus on productivity. However, it is only in

recent years that the issue of teacher education has moved under the spotlight with the inception of an Irish TC and Higher Education Authority (HEA) reviewing initial teacher education within the state, against a milieu of recession and austerity.

In 2006 when the Teaching Council was established, it commissioned a review of teacher education (Coolahan 2007) which subsequently led to a range of policies and new regulations in relation to teacher education (TC 2011a, b, 2012). Key changes were the introduction of a 4-year BEd programme and a 2-year professional masters (PME) with a substantial increase in the time spent in schools. Moreover, colleges of education and university education departments who had previously enjoyed significant freedom in relation to the design both curricula and syllabi (Dupont and Sugure 2007) were now witnessing an erosion of their autonomy as their new programmes required accreditation by the university *and* professional accreditation by the TC. Not only had the length of courses been increased but the content of such programmes specified in much greater detail (TC 2011b). The latter was a new departure for all concerned.

However, initial teacher education at primary level, while within the ambit of the university system, has traditionally been provided on separate campuses and in denominational institutions. (This is despite the fact that there have been a burgeoning number of multi-denominational primary schools within the state.) There are five such colleges of education, four of which are privately owned by Catholic bodies, and the fifth is owned by the Church of Ireland (the Anglican Church in Ireland). Since the early 1990s, the two largest of the colleges diversified to provide a variety of humanities programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Primary student teachers receive their professional formation in isolation from mainstream university programmes and their students, while second level (secondary) student teacher education has been traditionally located within university departments (Sugrue 2003). In 2002, in addition to the five initial primary teacher providers, a private 'virtual' provider of initial teacher education was recognised by the Irish government. The programme offered by this provider is a part-time consecutive postgraduate course which adds approximately 500 primary teachers to the market annually.

A significant moment in initial teacher education occurred in 2012 when the HEA, the governing authority for higher education in the country, endorsed the streamlining of provision of initial teacher programmes across the higher education sector (HEA 2012). This report singled out teacher education from all other sectors of professional education requiring the rationalisation of provision nationally, setting the terms for the particular institutional clusters of amalgamation. All providers were required to engage in merger and rationalisation negotiations within their allocated groupings without consultation as to the appropriateness of these clusters and the resultant grouping. The mergers within the configured groups are at various stages at the time of writing.

Against this backdrop of changes in the demands of education in Ireland, teacher education – and, more particularly, the professional identities of teacher educators – is best considered as teacher education reflects the influence of the surrounding societal and more particularly education landscape in Ireland. Whether this is true

within the fields of initial teacher education in Ireland as policy discourses challenge traditional modes of teacher formation in terms of substance and process (TC 2011a, b), and ethos and institutional traditions and their viability (HEA 2012), is a question we hope to address. Amalgamations of diverse teacher education institutions assume that teacher educators and their work are amenable to universalising and homogenising of differences in traditions, purposes and values. In the following sections, we take three of the most significant findings from our explorations with ITE educators over the course of several years.

4.4 The Relationship Between Teacher Educator as Practitioner and Teacher Educator as Academic

The majority of ITE educators in Ireland have been teachers at some point in their careers, and this experience of being a practising teacher and having a felt sense of a teacher identity was observed in their understandings of themselves as teacher educators. Moreover, the traditional nature of teacher education in Ireland, particularly at primary level, has meant that many teacher educators have come from within the small number of colleges within the ITE system itself and have experienced similar teacher formation. In our research, this kind of teacher identity was most strongly articulated by teacher educators in the colleges of education over those in the universities, where the institutional culture of the academy appears to have a moderating effect on teacher identity vis-a-vis academic/researcher identity. One might say there is no real sense of a discontinuity between teacher identity and teacher educator identity for many of those we interviewed, though not all interviewees subscribed to a teacher identity. This sense of continuity with a teacher identity and focus on teaching is clearly articulated by one of the interviewees, Moss, who works in a large teacher education college. When commenting on the transition, he made from his previous post to the college: 'I really, really love teaching….I like the interaction with the students'. Interestingly, he adds that he would like to be 'doing less of it!'. An early childhood educator in a teacher education college states her prioritisation of a teacher identity:

> I take most pride in the students being a good teacher, as a result of my work, I would like to see them doing well, I see myself primarily as a teacher. I think with the students definitely, I think once they get the vibe that you are removed from schooling they're not interested. (Teresa)

There is a strong sense of the vocational here, that this is an endeavour focused on the transmission of practical knowledge and the craft of teaching. Another colleague from that college suggests that he is primarily a teacher and tells how 'a man was doing work in my home asked me what I did, saying to me that I looked like a teacher'.

Gleeson (2004), however, contends that over time in Ireland, as some forms of teacher education moved from dedicated colleges of education more fully into the

academy, there was a resultant concern with academic respectability; the foundation disciplines of education gained dominance over what Gleeson (2004) refers to as the 'craft' of teaching. This is not something that we observed in the traditional colleges of education, where interviewees mainly agreed that teaching and being a good teacher is a priority. Seamus, who had not been a primary school teacher and was more a subject specialist, comments on his 'feeling of lack' in relation to practical teaching experiences:

> When I came there was more emphasis on academic strength. The X[2] education was seen as an inter-disciplinary subject where it involved X, psychology and education …. So that meant that you had to be strong in X, you had to know something about psychology and then education came in. Also you needed to be engaged in research. In more recent years there's more emphasis having very specific practical experience first, in other words, substantial primary teaching experience. That the people coming in now are very strong practitioners first and the research expertise comes next. (Seamus)

A similar consciousness is evident in Moss's narrative. While remarking on the rapid and intense expansion in curricular areas of the BEd (undergraduate) programme, he notes that the course has become more 'hands on or practical as a result', a move which he favours. In contrast, a disciplinary/academic identity dominated within the universities and is best illuminated through the words of both Adam and Colm. Adam a philosopher remarked: 'I am not a specialist on school…my interest is in the field of the study of education that (sic) very broad human process…I never aimed to be a teacher educator I fell into that', while Colm similarly remarked 'I am a psychologist and I happen to be in education'.

These teacher educators appear to have moved into initial teacher education by default and not by design. They define their professional identities in terms of their areas of specialisation and the research in which they are engaged. Unlike in the colleges of education, those working within schools of education within universities perceived clear messages within the university that teaching or what Dinkelman et al. (2006: 32) refer to as 'ground-level practice in teacher education' is little valued – and what appears to be valued is the reputation that one gains from research and publications. Their research provides the cultural capital they require to survive within their universities. The reality for Colm is that his fellow university colleagues '…look at us as second rate as sort of playing at being university lecturer, so we have that battle to fight'. The result for these teacher educators is that their identities are more academically focused than professional, as their work is more oriented towards the academic within a graduate school of education studies rather a school of teacher education. This finding is not unique as Labaree (2004, p. 302) drawing from the American experience noted that 'Overall, education schools tend toward the professional or academic pole with relatively few occupying the middle ground'.

As a teacher identity dominated for those interviewed from the colleges of education but not from those in the university, we ask why this was so. We suggest that

[2] The X refers to the subject that Seamus teaches, but this has been taken out as it would lead to identifying the participant, given the small number of teacher educators in Ireland (approximately 500 ITE in total).

the explanation may be threefold. First, while the pressure to engage in research in the colleges of education is gaining traction, teaching is still more highly valued within these institutions where the main focus is still on the provision of initial teacher education. We suspect that the current organisational cultures of the institutions in question privilege those educators whose professional core identities most closely match those of the culturally defined primary school teacher. The majority of teacher educators within the colleges of education are working alongside like-minded individuals who share similar professional life experiences as teachers operating out of 'shared' value and belief systems. This is evident in the earlier comments of both Peter and Moss. A lack of cognitive dissonance and resultant critical engagement with their developing professional selves results in the strengthening of their existing beliefs and values (Alsup 2005). Second, as articulated earlier, the policy direction of TC has resulted in a greater push towards practice, with students spending more time in schools engaged in longer blocks of school placement. For teacher educators this inevitably means more time engaged with schools on placement (practicum) supervision. Practice is being privileged and therefore holds considerable status. The tendency for teacher educators to revert to previously held classroom teacher identities and practice when working with students and cooperating teachers on placement – or the 'third space' as defined by Williams (2014, p. 315) – is well documented (Korthagen et al. 2006). A further explanation as to the retention of past identities may be explained by the teacher educators themselves. These teacher educators' narratives are lodged within the belief that they are *real* teachers, even though the context of their teaching has moved and changed radically over time.

The strong unifying insight among all of the participants was that teacher education is struggling for status in the new landscape. As a seasoned teacher educator with a disciplinary background commented:

> The other thing that I would have … driven me a lot … and it still is a major issue with me … has to do with the prestige of, as a teacher educator…the prestige of teacher education and primary teaching specifically. I'm still a bit concerned that primary teaching is … in colleges of education which are marginal to the Universities to some extent with a small sector, not very powerful and if you contrast that with say, with the way nursing has gone. (Mori)

4.5 Teacher Educator Identifications and Institutional Positionings

Identification work is not neat and tidy, rather it is prone to the 'idiosyncratic nature of people and the myriad and flowing situations in which they exist' (Gaudelli and Ousley 2009, p. 932). How teacher educators manage their identities in a radically shifting environment (policy and institutional reforms) is predicated not only on the ways in which they endeavour to position themselves, but also, how they are positioned by those they consider important in their professional lives, and by the

predominant culture and values of the organisations in which they work. It has been our experience gathering data from teacher educators across five initial Irish teacher education providers that teacher educator identity suffers from conceptual pluralism. Irish teacher educators themselves are challenged in terms of their understandings of their own professional identities as they inhabit a strange space in the borderlands of education (a third space).

Table 4.1 below provides a summary of the dominant tendencies which exist in how these teacher educators regard their professional identities: those who hold to a teacher identity and those who define their teacher educator identity around their discipline/subject. We are aware that a typography built from the data may not allow for the subtle nuances that exists within the life histories of these teacher educators, but it does allow us to explain more clearly our findings.

The findings displayed in Table 4.1 indicate the historically dichotomised structure of teacher education in Ireland and how this has allowed for a binarisation of teacher educator identities across the teacher/academic identity axis. Teacher educators now find themselves in a precarious position as tightrope walker in a pull towards teacher identity in the colleges of education and a push away towards academic identity with the academy. The new policy directives are shaking that tightrope. On one side, the HEA directive for the merger of colleges of education to be incorporated into the universities and for the schools of education across the universities to also amalgamate disturbs and fractures these traditional identity tensions. The imperatives of the TC for practice, the holding of certain teacher qualifications and an emphasis and surveillance of content and pedagogy of teacher education programmes all contribute to shaping teacher educator identity as a *teacher identity*.

In relation to our data, we have already discussed the traditional tensions between versions of teacher educator identity, but the most recent wave of the data suggests the unravelling and unpicking of traditional binarised identities as the ground shifts, and those involved in teacher education question how they will position themselves into the future. In the final wave of data, Kathleen, working in a college, comments

Table 4.1 Teacher educator/academic identity axis

Axis 1. Teacher/practice	Disciplinary/educator/theory
Curricular/professional/pedagogical	Foundation disciplines
Practice-orientated research	Disciplinary research
Teacher identity	Disciplinary identity
Social and cultural capital within school and with students	Social/cultural capital within academia
Local status but lacks global status	Wider status
Want to teach – subject is the vehicle	Disciplinary engagement
Caring for students and caring about their subject	Caring about ideas and student learning
Intervening	Reflecting

on the ebbs and flows historically in relation to the privileging of teacher and practitioner identity over disciplinary identity in a college of education:

> but I do see within the institution and within the wider realm of teacher education that the kind of ebb and flow vis-a-vis theory and practice, and I think we are going through a very heightened period of focus on the practice and I think that's the influence of the political and the regulatory bodies, because that's where they come from, I think they want to know what's going on in the classroom (*in higher education*).

The messages from the policy agendas are received loud and clear by those engaged in teacher education regardless of their institutional settings. Reform is happening and will continue to intensify. All involved feel the uncertainties and pressure associated with the rapidly changing institutional and policy context. The colleges that have focused on teaching and teacher identity are now aware of the dangers associated with holding onto what was once a prized practitioner identity. Cognisant of the power of the TC, they realise that a teacher identity is *still* valued by this statutory organisation but also that for their other master, the academy, academic research and competition are now part of the new world of teacher education when placed within the academy. Moreover, those who appeared to be privileged as educators within the hallowed halls of the academy are now subject to the regime of the TC and the drive for relevance and practice. They too will have to reform their identities within the wider and more professionally focused context of teacher education.

The landscape poses a significant challenge to ITE educators as the appropriate activation of various types of capital is almost impossible given the pull and pushes from different and opposing directions. Teacher educators, irrespective of their institutional settings, are aware of the demands upon them from both quarters, but because nothing is solid and everything for now is fluid, they are uncertain how to activate resources in a field which has no real borders.

4.6 Performance and Performativity Tensions Across Teaching and Research

Murray (2012) has explored the effects of performativity culture on teacher educators in England and builds on the work of Ducharme (1996) and others who suggest that teacher educators experience longer working hours and particular tensions associated with the nature of teacher education pedagogies. Murray's analysis echoes strongly in the reformed teacher education context in Ireland. The autonomy of the teacher educator in Ireland has been eroded as the globalised culture of performativity is now felt by teacher educators here on the western tip of Europe. Teacher education at primary level, as we have described here, is now more fully incorporated in the university system, although the pull in the longer 4-year BEd degree is towards practice, and this means greater time on school placement and participating in continuous school placement supervision. Within the university

system, the culture has traditionally been more oriented towards research and publication; more recently league table ratings which compare institutional research outputs have intensified this pressure on teacher educators. We pose the question how teacher educators can maintain the teacher identity that they value within the new culture of performativity, and furthermore, we explore how their practice and status are affected by this.

In our sample groups, concern and anxieties are widespread as what was once was of real value for teacher educators is now devalued, and that previous identities have to be reformed. Right across the sample, with the exception of those from a small and independently managed college, teacher educators are trying to reform themselves with varying degrees of success and appetite for the new world they find themselves inhabiting. One university-based educator commented on this tension between teacher educators and other academics within the university:

> I think there is a difference here than other colleges, the brief here is strongly on research, research will aid teaching. Your own reading and studies will inform your teaching and there are serious difficulties because my colleagues elsewhere (*in the university*) don't have the same degree of contact hours and professional development as us, so they have considerably more space to do research, we have our teaching practice, we have our briefing of students, we have our picking up of problems and then you add on supervision. (Kathlyn)

A teacher educator within one of the recently merged colleges reflects on the reality of competiveness and how the drive for research comes from within as well as without. Tara states:

> … at the end of the day we have to fill in a form documenting the research that we do so that is part of the pressure. But it also I suppose comes from within ourselves and watching what others are doing. It is also very difficult to work in this field without conducting some sort of research and the more you do that the more you possibly want to do it.

But the reality of performativity culture does not end here; participation is not left up to the individual capacity and inclination of teacher educators within a truly free academic market, rather, it comes under the regulation of government and public perceptions of the institutional ratings. The DES is concerned with the international league tables in student literacy and numeracy (PISA) and is mindful of the status of the teaching profession within this frame. They have named numeracy and literacy as national priorities. Moss, who has prized his teacher identity as a teacher educator, interviewed a second time several years later, commented on the back-to-basic trend and the performativity problem that dictates curricular emphases:

> There is a whole plethora of perceived negative findings and there is a worry that we are going to lose our place as having a great education system or indeed being competitive but I believe that when people go back to basics there is something very market driven about that. The danger in colleges is we are being forced to do more of what are considered the basics.

The culture of performativity and policy from both DES and TC in relation to teacher education has also been shaped by a drive for relevance. It would take an entire chapter to unpack what is meant by 'relevance' here, but the teacher educators in our research have commented on this underlying feature of educational policy

with respect to their work. It is evidenced in their comments on the issue of length of school placement and the mixed views on how this is both a benefit to students in terms of practice and a challenge in that it has squeezed time for teaching in the colleges. Tara suggested that some voices have managed to find the appropriate ear, in the competition for space, to teach into their areas of expertise, especially in a context where some fields are now deemed *not* a priority, and thus relegated and made more marginal in the competition for subject space.

> I would say that the Teaching Council have the strongest voice in terms of dictating changes in teacher education at the moment. I think also that the colleges are responding to these changes. They are not passive recipients but they too are making their voice heard… However, to take the bigger picture, that is not the case for everybody. (Tara)

Research too is not exempt from surveillance and performativity. The kinds of research undertaken that may have traditionally been written in non-peer-reviewed journals are no longer acceptable or counted, and the research itself is open to scrutiny in terms in how others deem it relevant or not. As Tara states, 'I think that there is a demand on the universities to be accountable to the HEA or the funders, there is accountability now, we must show how our research is impacting, and you have to show the relevance'.

4.6.1 Conclusions

As we bring this chapter to its conclusion, it is interesting to note that none of the teacher educators interviewed defined themselves as *teacher educators*. They described themselves as teachers, educators, researchers and even facilitators. We contend that Irish teacher educator identity is in effect a 'non-identity'. Until relatively recently, the organisational culture of the initial teacher education provider casts a long shadow over the identities of teacher educators in Ireland. Teacher educators have, it may be argued, been playing a safe game of performing surface reformations (Hochschild 1983) by aligning themselves with the dominant habitus of their institution. This has allowed them to maintain insider status within their respective institution and with their colleagues. As the recent policy changes, articulated, for example, through the Teaching Council and the HEA, have impacted at all levels of initial teacher education, we see that teacher educators' capacities to resist and critique dominant discourses and directives are considerably weakened. This, we argue, is problematic for both the educators and for their students. For the teacher educators, the problem of maintaining and developing a critical professional identity resides in the intensity, relentlessness and multi-faceted nature of changes currently on-going within initial teacher education. The teacher educator needs to have a strong sense of his/her own role *and* professional self in order to enable student teachers to have a strong understanding of self as professional. If teacher educators are restricted in the development and expression of their own identities (O'Brien

and Furlong 2010), then this is a recipe for the reproduction of dominant norms and values in the education system.

Too much externally forced change may create either resistance or compliance. Certainly, the teacher educators in this study feel that this is the case. It would appear from the most recent wave of data collection that these recent policy shifts in initial teacher education in Ireland have left the teacher educators, by their own admission, in a more precarious position of having no anchor within these shifting educational seas – engaged in the 'forced' reformation of identity in line with policy directives – but having no guiding light or port in sight. The real insiders, who appear to have the greater influence in shaping ITE, are now the policymakers, while the traditional insiders in the field and in practice – the teacher educators – are left to reidentify with a system which privileges compliance rather than criticality.

Although our research found that none of our participants referred to themselves as teacher educators, there is yet a common sense of purpose amongst them; despite differences in emphasis, institutional cultures and level of focus in education, as 'teachers of teachers, they are bound together in an endeavour that is concerned with teachers' formation and education. In some senses this unity reflects their sense of belonging to communities of practice in teacher education. We deliberately use the plural here because there are communities, that emphasise theory more than practice or research over teaching, but regardless they confer a sense of identity as a *certain kind of teacher educator*. One of the principal anxieties expressed is around pressures on the community from without and a consequent diminution of freedom as a professional educator, with all the disillusionment that this creates within the community. The other common concerns which unite these teacher educators are around their marginal positionings, their powerlessness to meet the conflicting demands of the university and the TC and the intensification of both research and practice. The pressure to keep one's eye on 'demands from without' has the capacity to wither away what is most valuable in terms of a sense of professional purpose and freedom and the means to develop what one values most as a teacher and teacher educator.

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Chapter 5
From Tinkering Around the Edges to Reconceptualizing Courses: Literacy/English Teacher Educators' Views and Use of Digital Technology

Clare Kosnik, Pooja Dharamshi, and Lydia Menna

Abstract This chapter reports on a study of 28 literacy/English teacher educators in 4 countries (Canada, the USA, Australia, and England) with a focus on their use of digital technology. For analyzing the data, we used Ottenbreit-Leftwich et al.'s (2010) six different ways to incorporate technology into teacher education: information delivery, hands-on skill-building activities, practice in the field, observations and modeling, authentic experiences, and reflections (p. 20). Although most felt using digital technology in teacher education is very important, there were huge differences in how they used it. A few reconceptualized their courses to teach about, with, and through it, while others only used it mainly for information delivery. Two major challenges identified by most were that their university only provided limited support and mostly for technical problems (not pedagogical support) and that student teachers were not necessarily discerning users of resources on the web.

5.1 Introduction

One can rarely pick up a magazine, newspaper, or scholarly journal without an article exhorting the value of technology.

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> The popular press frequently tells us about the latest "must-have" gadgets and software to enable new approaches to teaching and learning, which are ostensibly more efficient, more productive, and more engaging. (Bullock 2016, p. n/a)

Understanding and effectively using digital technology pose a serious issue for teacher educators because most likely they did not use digital technology in their work as classroom teachers and technology is changing rapidly. The proliferation of technology in our lives has untold benefits (and hidden consequences); the place of digital technology in teacher education needs much more exploration. This chapter considers the insider perspectives of teacher educators. Experience with digital technology from the teacher educator's perspective is a somewhat untold (and hidden) story. Here we report on a study of literacy/English teacher educators, those who teach literacy methods courses in teacher certification programs. The study, *Literacy Teacher Educators: Their Backgrounds, Visions, and Practices*, includes 28 literacy teacher educators (LTEs) from the USA, Canada, England, and Australia.

The overall goal of the study is to study in-depth a group of literacy/English teacher educators, with special attention to their backgrounds, views, research activities, identity, and support within the university. This chapter reports on the third phase of the research to understand LTEs' views of the place digital technology in teacher education, use of it, and supports/barriers they experienced.

The group we are studying are well-suited to provide an insider perspective on the use of digital technology in literacy teacher education courses. Selwyn (2011) maintains that "questions which explore digital technologies in schools from the lived experiences of those using (and those *not* using) them should be at the forefront of any educational technologist's mind" (p. 40). Others wonder how teachers can acquire the requisite knowledge, skills, and dispositions (Barrett and Mascia 2012; Warschauer 2011). We consider LTEs' views of digital technology, their practices, and support.

5.2 Context

There are many issues surrounding use of digital technology in schools. We have chosen to briefly discuss a few which bear on the work of LTEs across the four countries. For purposes of this chapter, we define *digital technology* (as used in education) as a tool that extends or creates a space for teaching and learning (e.g., a Wiki that operates as a shared space for constructing knowledge).

5.3 Digital Technology and Literacy

The intertwining of literacy and digital technology is a legitimate area of study because the many new forms of communication (e.g., text messages, blogs, screencasts, Instagram) are changing our literacy patterns. Connecting literacy theory and

teaching to digital technology acknowledges that newer forms of communication made available through digital technology are changing our literacy practices and our understanding of what it means to be literate (Selber 2004). The changes in how we communicate (e.g., through email), what we communicate (e.g., personal blogs), and with whom (e.g., others who share a common interest) provide unprecedented opportunities but also carry untold risks. Further, interest in increasing literacy achievement seems to be a global concern:

> Literacy takes a central place in education and 'its accepted importance for all developed countries is indicated by the centrality it has acquired in the international comparisons adopted by the OECD member countries, together with mathematics and science' (Freebody 2007, p. iii) … Increased literacy capabilities for individuals are often tied to increased 'life' choices, opportunities and mobility and collectively by society are viewed as offering more equitable distribution of social and economic goods. (White and Murray 2016, p. 136)

By considering digital technology as a literacy tool, we conceptualize it as a key learning process rather than an end in itself. Bullock states: "Teaching 2.0 is not just traditional teaching 'done better' [but] a radically different approach to teaching and learning that requires educators to understand, and make use of, the affordances of Web 2.0 tools" (2011, p. 103). However, research has shown that digital technology is often used for "passive delivery of information" and students often simply do "cut and pasting of online material retrieved from search engines" (Selwyn 2011, p. 25). According to Prensky (2011), the challenge of moving to digitally rich literacy programs is much more complex and nuanced than seeing it as a clash between digital natives and digital immigrants. Digital natives – "those who were born into the age when these technologies were around from their birth" – may be "more at ease with digital technology" (p. 16) than their parents and teachers (digital immigrants), but they still need to be taught how to use digital technology comprehensively in their learning, and teacher educators must learn how to lead student teachers in this direction.

Digital Technology as the Magic Solution

The discourse around digital technology is often framed by a "moral panic" that schools are failing (Bennett et al. 2008, p. 783); a "focus on the allure of 'the new'"(Selwyn 2011 p. 7); or an assumption that digital technology can substantially improve pupil learning (Bullock 2011). However, Selwyn (2012) cautions:

> it is important to resist the temptation to unthinkingly associate digital technologies with inevitable change and progress. Instead researchers should remain mindful of the continuities, recurrences and repetitions associated with 'new' technologies. In many cases, the cliche' of 'old wine in new bottles' remains an appropriate description of the nature and forms of digital technology use in education. (p. 216)

Despite a growing emphasis on the importance of incorporating digital technology into literacy teacher education programs, it is still proving to be a challenge (Otero et al. 2005). Walsh and Durant (2013) writing about their Australian context note:

> educational policies, curricula, and pedagogy have not adjusted to the explosion of digital communication that has occurred in society (despite the millions of dollars that state and federal governments have injected into the sector over the past two decades). Another rea-

> son is that teacher registration requires that students fulfill specific hours of content in each curriculum area. In a crowded tertiary curriculum it is difficult to incorporate areas that are not mandated or pedagogically developed. It has been commonly accepted for some time that digital technology is a tool that can be incorporated into the curriculum and the new National Curriculum: English includes the use of multimodal and digital texts. However there is no developed pedagogical framework presented or recommended for teachers within the National Curriculum. (p. 184)

A few brave researchers are questioning the unbridled support of digital technology (Bullock 2016; Selwyn 2011). They suggest the use of education technologies in teacher education has often been framed in an inherently positive way (Selwyn 2011), with little attention paid to how future teachers might develop complex uses of technology beyond just a specific device or application (Bullock 2016, p. n/a); that is, how can they reframe some of their teaching to teach with, through, and about digital technology to ensure it is not just a gimmick but that digital technology leads to deeper learning?

5.4 Competencies

Expertise with digital technology is an ubiquitous concept; simply defining expertise is not straightforward. Otero et al. (2005) suggest, "knowing how to use the technology involves the technical skills of operating the tools as well as understanding the pedagogical purpose of its use" (p. 10). Butler and Sellbom (2002) identified several barriers to the use of technology: reliability; time to learn the technology; knowing how to use the technology; concern that technology might not be critical for learning; and the perception of inadequate institutional support. How can teacher educators make the transition from teaching as they were taught to an orientation that integrates digital technology (Cervetti et al. 2008)?

Desjardins (2005) defined four competencies that teachers require to use digital technologies:

1. A *technical* competency that enables a new teacher to use the technology (e.g., loading apps)
2. An *informational* competency that enables a new teacher to use the technology to retrieve information (e.g., web searches)
3. A *social* competency that enables a new teacher to use the technology to interact with other people (e.g., discussion board posting)
4. An *epistemological* competency that enables a new teacher to assign tasks to digital technology to generate new knowledge or artifacts (e.g., putting together a digital video)

These competencies reveal the complexity of using digital technology – from simply using an app to working toward knowledge creation. Although developed for teachers, they are applicable for LTEs. They also provided a useful framework for analyzing the data.

5.5 Conflicting Messages

Like many educational initiatives, there is not a clear message about digital technology:

> Although the need for teachers and their students to engage with digital literacies at all stages of education has been articulated in numerous policy documents and directives, there has been little sustained impact in the classroom. Such policies frequently underline the economic desirability of 21st Century skills … but statutory curriculum requirements do not always reflect this (Burnett et al. 2014). It is not surprising then that preparing teachers to operate effectively with digital literacies in this changing environment is fraught with difficulty. (Garcia-Matin et al. 2016, p n/a)

An example of conflicting messages can be found in the new national curriculum for English (in England) which Marshall (2016) notes: "The new national curriculum will be introduced in English in 2015 and is devoid of all mention of anything digital. There is no talk of film, television, computers, iPads, phones. There is nothing that might link us to the twenty-first century technology at all (p. n/a)." Whereas many school districts (e.g., in Canada) emphasize use of digital technology (see http://www.opsba.org/files/OPSBA_AVisionForLearning.pdf), making sense of these mixed messages was one of the challenges faced by the teacher educators.

5.6 Methodology

To put together the sample of 28 LTEs, lists of teacher educators in Tier 1 (research-intensive) and Tier 2 (teaching-focused) institutions were compiled, and we systematically worked through them. A range of experience (e.g., elementary/primary and secondary teaching) and a gender representation comparable to that in the profession as a whole were considered.

All participants were interviewed three times over the period April 2012 to February 2015. Each semi-structured interview was approximately 60–90 min in length. The third interview focused on use of digital technology and future plans of the LTEs to use digital technology. Interviews were done either face-to-face or via Skype and were audio-recorded and transcribed. The lead researcher and one of the coauthors jointly interviewed all the participants.

Some of the interview questions were the following: What kind of digital technology do you use in your course? How important is the use of digital technology in literacy courses? What does digital technology provide for you as an LTE that is different from what you could do previously? What are some effective digital technology practices of LTEs that you have seen or heard about? To what extent do you use social media in your course? To what extent have you had support from your institution on integrating digital technology into your literacy teacher education courses?

Much of the methodology was qualitative as defined by Merriam (2009) and Punch (2014). Qualitative inquiry is justified as it provides depth of understanding and enables exploration of questions that do not on the whole lend themselves to quantitative inquiry (Merriam 2009). It opens the way to gaining entirely unexpected ideas and information from participants in addition to finding out their opinions on simple preset matters. A modified grounded theory approach was used, not beginning with a fixed theory but generating theory inductively from the data using a set of techniques and procedures for collection and analysis (Punch 2014). As the analysis progressed, key themes were identified and refined – adding some and deleting or merging others – through "constant comparison" of the interview transcripts and the main research question. When reading the transcripts, the three main concepts – views, use, and support – guided our analysis.

For data analysis, qualitative software NVivo was used in creating a number of nodes: advantages of digital technology, examples of teaching with digital technology, support from the institution, student teacher response, and so on. This allowed us to determine both LTEs' views and their practices. This led to identifying three categories: views of the place of digital technology, examples of the use of digital technology, and supports and barriers/challenges. We loosely used Dejardins' (2005) competencies as a framework for analyzing their practices.

5.7 Findings

As Fig. 5.1 shows, the sample included LTEs with a range of experience.

Since they are from four countries and many universities, we cannot provide specific detail about the context for each individual. There were 6 males and 22 females; 12 worked at teaching-intensive universities, while 14 were at research-intensive universities.

Experience as a teacher educator	1-5 years = 7 6 -10 years = 10 11-15 years = 2 16 -20 years= 5 21+ years = 4
Countries	Canada - 7 US - 11 England - 5 Australia - 5

Fig. 5.1 Background of participants (as of 2013)

5.7.1 *Literacy Teacher Educators' Views on the Place of Digital Technologies*

The LTEs recognized that digital technologies must be a prominent part of literacy teacher education. While they appreciated the wide range of technologies available, they also emphasized the need to meaningfully integrate technological tools into literacy teaching and learning. For instance, Hailey[1] noted:

> Well, I think the digital should not be there for the sake of digital technology. It has to enhance the goals and instructional strategies of the class. So, it has to be meaningful. So, it has to be fully integrated or there's no sense in it. That said, teachers in today's world do need a certain [*level of*] comfort.

Bob also candidly acknowledged the importance of purposefully integrating digital resources into his literacy courses, rather than treating technology as an end in itself or as a disconnected add-on. He explained:

> I don't ever believe in making a fetish of digital technologies as though of themselves they're the answer to all our problems. So, I step back from that kind of rhetoric completely. But, at the same time given the ubiquitous nature of digital technologies, out there in the world of teenagers, and any sphere of life, it would be absurd to suppose that teacher education shouldn't be availing itself of the potential of media of that kind. I mean there is a range of types of digital technologies that we could talk about.

While most LTEs felt that digital tools should have a prominent place in literacy teacher education, they also emphasized the importance of achieving a balance between the use of technology tools (e.g., Google docs, university-based platforms for online discussion) and the fostering of personal (face-to-face) connections with the student teachers in their courses. Many felt that online courses had a place but needed to be balanced with face-to-face experiences. They did not want student teachers to lose sight of the relational nature of teaching and learning. For instance, Carolina pointed out that the use of digital resources "should be prominent" in literacy teacher education; however she also stressed "there should be a balance of both the digital interface and the personal interface." She felt it was important "not to ignore the personal within the context of the digital, which can actually then be carried into what people want to develop in relation to their literacies and their own practices as educators." For, if student teachers were to "work only online or in that digital space, then they don't get a sense of what it actually means to be a teacher because it is so unrealistic."

Similarly, Rachel suggested she struggled at times to strike a balance between the need to incorporate relevant digital tools into her literacy courses and to also maintain the personal connection with student teachers that is central to her practice as an LTE. Rachel confided:

> I'm probably a dinosaur compared to some lecturers because while I try and keep in touch and I try and give them access to relevant resources, I still really like the privilege of working in a face-to-face situation. At the same time, though, I think we need to give them the

[1] Pseudonyms used for all participants

> skills to use the electronic white board effectively, not just as another blackboard. I think we need to help them feel confident about all of that and what they can do with kids in terms of developing websites themselves or whatever. But, I'm not the one to give them some of that really at the minute stuff. I'm much more a dinosaur.

The LTEs used a range of digital technologies in their literacy courses. The next section of this chapter will consider the ways in which the LTEs incorporated technological tools into their teaching.

5.7.2 Use of Digital Technology

When asked about the importance of using digital technology in teacher education, the vast majority of LTEs felt it was very important. However, when asked the extent to which they use digital technology in their literacy methods courses, there was a huge discrepancy. See Fig. 5.2.

To determine how the LTEs were using digital technology, we asked participants to simply list the technologies they were using. We then grouped these into Desjardins' (2005) four competencies. The four competencies range from simple use of a technology to convey information to creating knowledge collaboratively.

(a) A *technical* competency that enables a new teacher to use the technology

The LTEs felt there was a range of expertise among their student teachers regarding facility with use of digital technology. Some were highly able/comfortable, while others had limited skills. Most could use Facebook (FB) for communicating with friends, but the majority did not know how to use digital technology in their teaching. For the most part, the LTEs did not feel it was their responsibility to teach the student teachers how to use particular technologies (e.g., educational apps,

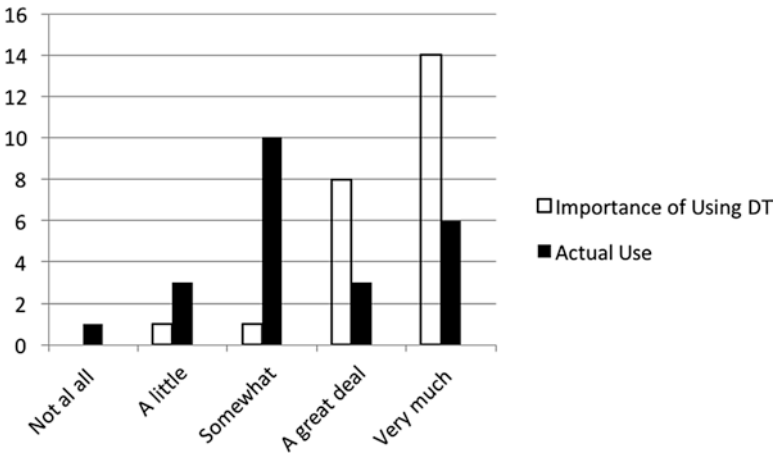

Fig. 5.2 Importance of using digital technology and actual use

smartboards, presentation tools); some felt it was the student teacher's responsibilities to learn how to use them; others felt it would take up too much class time; and some did not have sufficient knowledge of the programs to teach them. However, in certain cases they accessed support from their IT departments (e.g., to do an in-service course on making iMovie). In a few teacher education programs, there was a specific course on digital technology, but this was not the norm.

LTEs used many types of technologies including VoiceThread, Storify, clickers, document camera, and digital pens. Most did not feel it was feasible to be fully versed in a huge range of digital resources, especially those used in practice teaching schools. Given that technology is changing so rapidly, we asked to what extent they found it a challenge to remain current with digital technology. Figure 5.3 clearly shows that most find it very challenging and may partly explain the discrepancy noted in Fig. 5.2.

(b) An *informational* competency that enables a new teacher to use the technology to retrieve information

Easier access to resources (e.g., library) was mentioned by most as an advantage of teaching in a digital age. Resources were not restricted to text-based materials: videos of effective literacy teaching, websites (for curriculum resources), podcasts on specific topics, and videos of authors they are reading. Many commented that they could quickly access information (e.g., Wikipedia) during class or retrieve notes from a previous lecture when student teachers were struggling with a concept/topic. Many created a repository for resources (e.g., course blog or a program website) to which they and the student teachers could contribute. However, many noted that student teachers were not savvy consumers of digital-based materials and had to be taught how to ascertain the quality/authorship of the materials. Many gave student teachers lists of websites with high-quality material (e.g., International Reading Association site http://www.readwritethink.org/).

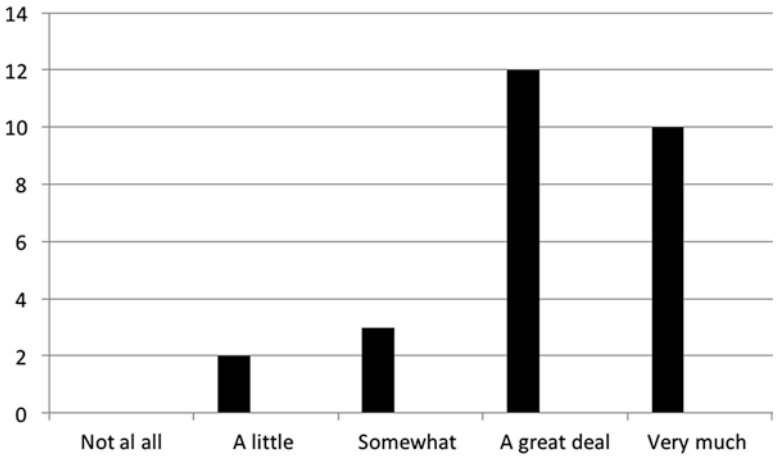

Fig. 5.3 Challenge to remain current

(c) A *social* competency that enables a new teacher to use the technology to interact with other people. All used email and/or the university platform to communicate with student teachers – especially during practice teaching; however, use of social media on a larger scale varied significantly. See Fig. 5.4.

Some valued the face-to-face contact with student teachers which they felt was missing on line, while others felt it was too time-consuming to manage social media accounts (e.g., blogs), and some simply stated they did not have the technical skills to use social media.

Some used digital technology to create highly interactive courses where student teachers could post questions or comments to a smartboard during the class session. Dominique encouraged discussion "before, during, and after class" using tools such as Tumblr and Twitter. And for Melissa by starting "discussion" before the class meant "I don't need to present the material to them … So in the class, what we do is I engage them in pedagogical practices that are aligned with what they are reading and make those visible." Stella noted online learning communities gave student teachers "opportunities to network with each other" and to share multimedia content (e.g., articles, videos, blogs) with one another on these platforms.

Almost all believed that social media could assist with community building especially because student teachers created Facebook pages for their cohort. However given the "freewheeling" nature of social media, most were *not* part of the student teachers' FB pages. This choice allowed them to maintain their privacy and their professional relationships with their student teachers. As a result, communities developed on social media platforms were often for student-only use.

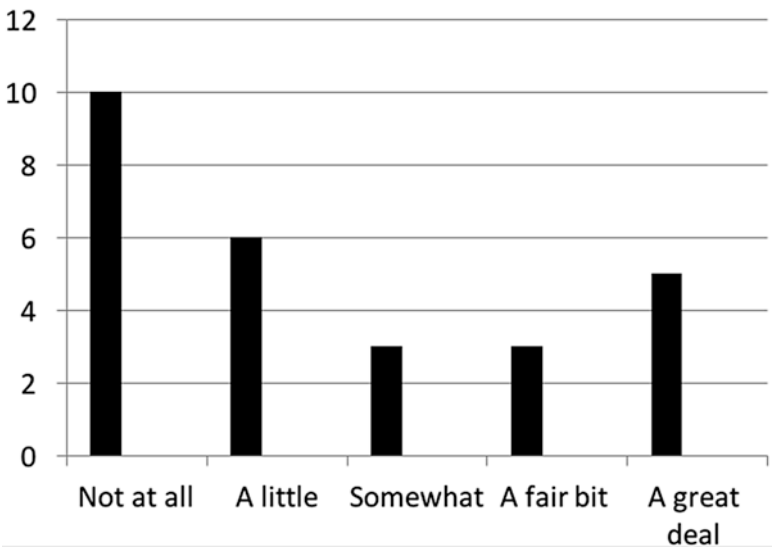

Fig. 5.4 Use of social media

(d) An *epistemological* competency that enables a new teacher to assign tasks to digital technology to generate new knowledge or artifacts

A small group of LTEs truly used digital technology for knowledge creation. They were extremely comfortable with digital technology, had strong technical skills, and understood that digital technology had changed literacy/communication which in turn required fundamental changes to their literacy courses (for a detailed description, see Kosnik and Dharamshi 2016). They could envision the power of digital technology to co-construct knowledge. For example, Hailey's student teachers did a case study of a child (including videos) which they shared with a small group of student teachers who had to comment on it. Letting the student teachers actually view literacy teaching and engage in an online discussion allowed them to jointly develop their knowledge and skills to be a literacy teacher.

Student teachers used digital technology to both showcase their newfound knowledge and use it as a basis for discussion with others. Dominique's class "watched a video about being a basketball star and talked about how race and gender were represented" then asked the student teachers to think about creating "a counter message." Other examples of knowledge creation include:

- Make an iMovie on a specific topic (e.g., on bullying).
- Participate in teacher communities by contributing to blogs and Twitter feeds.
- Participate in teacher-focused events (e.g., contribute a piece to a BBC competition on current affairs/news).
- Create podcasts on an aspect of literacy to share with broader community.
- Create a video case study of pupils which relates to a theory of literacy.
- Write a review of a book that had been banned in schools and post the review on a public site.

5.7.3 Support with Digital Technology

Regarding their digital literacy practices, we asked the LTEs "How did you know what to do?" Participants provided a wide range of responses. While some received formal support from their institutions for the most part, others received none. Interestingly, several described acquiring digital literacy knowledge and skills for their teacher education courses through informal routes, such as trial and error as well as guidance from colleagues, family, and friends.

(a) Formal support: institutional support

When asked about the support from their institution in using digital technology, the reports were dismal. See Fig. 5.5.

Some described receiving technical help (e.g., maintaining learning management system such as blackboard, Moodle), while few received both technical *and* pedagogical assistance. A few LTEs such as Carolina noted her institution had an educational design team staffed with "brilliant people who are so proactive in their

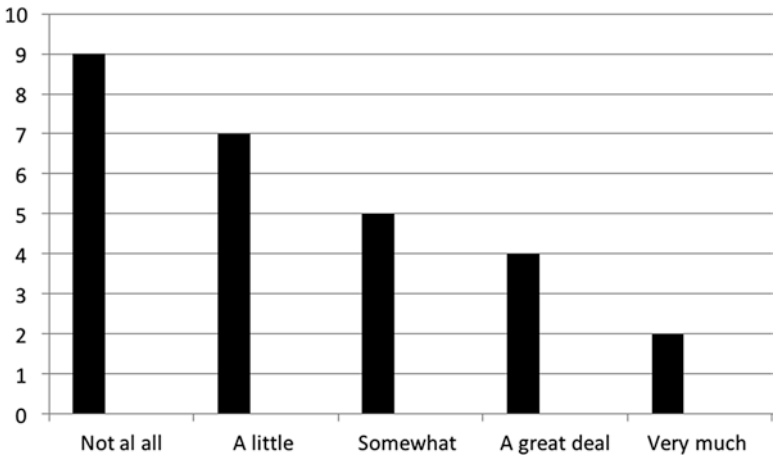

Fig. 5.5 Support from institution

support" by helping faculty "think differently about how we design our courses." Caterina's online teaching director considered the following: What are the research disciplines that are doing well with online programs? How do we set up hybrid programs? Similarly, Chester's instructional strategists helped with "preparation, technical, arranging clusters, choosing materials, and downloading [materials]."

To help teacher education faculty gain a deep understanding on how to use learning management systems, Hope's institution offered fellowships on how to use their platform (Canvas), "to learn how to use it and tweak it, and make it work in your classroom," while Caterina's institution created a formal community of teachers to "[discuss] what software they found successful, what teaching strategies, how do they design their programme so that it's a back and forth conversation versus just a Friday post." For the most part, few received the kind of pedagogical support described above.

(b) Informal support: self-directed efforts

Since few LTEs received little to no help (technical or pedagogical), they had to be resourceful. Some relied on their own initiative and curiosity; Dominique, a savvy user of digital technologies, when asked how she knew what to do, responded:

> Part of it is being on Twitter and following people who talk about this kind of stuff, and then just getting their tweets. But as soon as I get a tweet about new apps, I just download them or purchase them.

Similarly, Misa relied on the assistance of her extended network to remain current with digital literacy practices. She described how she used her network of FB friends:

> …if I have a question or idea or need resources, I can go right into my Facebook network. I could post something or I could in-box a few people. It just makes it easier to get information, to get new ideas… I feel like when I first started teaching in the early nineties and mid

> nineties, you had to do all that research kind of on your own, and now … it's a vast array of things you have access to.

Several LTEs relied heavily on their own network of family and friends for support related to digital technologies. Many counted on the skills and knowledge of their course assistants (graduate assistants or teaching assistants) to effectively help them integrate digital technologies into their courses. Maya's course assistant, who had worked with youth and storytelling in the past, introduced her to digital storytelling.

Justin and Lance both depended on the assistance of colleagues. Justin preferred the informal assistance to a "top-down model" because "it's easier to try things out when there are [colleagues] who are prepared to be enthusiastic about it."

5.7.4 Challenges to Using Digital Technology

(a) Time-consuming

Several LTEs felt that effectively integrating digital technology practices into their courses could be very time-consuming and thus a limitation. Jane pointed out this integration was not a simple process because she had to "learn the technology as well as the application." Similarly, Sara said: "Okay now I've learned it. Now, how can I incorporate it?" Hope commented: "It's a lot of work, it's a lot of hours, it means really re-thinking your pedagogy." Heather also noted the steep learning curve involved in learning new digital technologies, as she metaphorically described it: "We're going to have to probably build the plane while we're flying it." As a result, some LTEs were reluctant to completely dive into the often uncharted territories of digital technology practices. Hailey commented: "Well, I can see how they could be useful, but I think it takes more teacher direction than I had the time to do right now, and more student direction for that matter."

(b) Disconnect between digital technology resources in teacher education courses and classrooms

Although the LTEs acknowledged the various advantages digital technology provided them and their student teachers, they were aware of the frequent disconnect between digital technology practices in teacher education and those in the classroom. Their student teachers often experienced this gap during their practice teaching placements. Dominique explained, "so many of my student teachers would say 'All the stuff you're talking about in class we don't see at all in the field.'" Consequently, the LTEs had to prepare their student teachers for that reality. Stella explained:

> I think you also always want to be cognizant of the fact that not every school is equipped in the same way. So it's no good going in there with something really flash and fancy that you just know they won't ever use because the signal's not very good or, you know, there won't be space in the room or it would take too long to set up. So I think you've always got to be showing them alternatives.

Maya wanted her student teachers to be aware of access issues pupils may face and be prepared to teach in schools and communities not well-resourced with digital technology. She noted, “In many schools, technology is more policed,” and so websites or applications would have to be accessed outside of the classroom; however, pupils may not be able to easily access technology at home.

The LTEs reported receiving a range of formal supports from their institutions as well and informal supports from their personal and professional networks. Further discussion is needed on the ways in which increased formal and informal support could address the limitations of digital technology described by the LTEs.

5.8 Discussion

Over the three interviews, it seemed that the LTEs in the study were hardworking, committed, thoughtful, and continuously updating their courses. However, as the findings above reveal, integrating digital technology into literacy methods courses is a complex endeavor. Although the vast majority felt it should be a key component of teacher education, the steps to reaching this goal were unclear and time-consuming. None of the LTEs “bought into” the discourse that use of digital technology will speed up learning. Nor did any want to use it for the WOW/edutainment factor. They were aware that simply layering digital technology onto an existing course is inadequate, but many were truly perplexed as to how to fully integrate digital technology into their teaching.

All recognized that digital technology is going to continue to evolve at a rapid rate. Having to rely on informal networks (friends and family) does not seem to be an adequate form of professional development for teacher educators. Universities need to consider both technical and pedagogical support for LTEs. Further, LTEs need to work together and consult with digital technology experts to work out a pedagogy of literacy teacher education where digital technology is used to support student learning and prepare them (both student teachers and LTEs) to continue to learn. A multidisciplinary approach with many opportunities for dialogue is necessary.

One common sentiment that emerged among the LTEs was a feeling of tremendous guilt when they were not doing more with technology. Although none of the participants stated there was a university policy that required them to integrate digital technology into their courses, there was an unspoken assumption they would do so. There was subtle (and not so subtle) pressure from student teachers and university leaders that each literacy course would be technology-rich. We feel this guilt is misplaced because they were resourceful in trying to fill in the gaps in their knowledge.

It was apparent that there are not sufficient examples of what it looks like to reconceptualize literacy methods courses using digital technology. Although the competencies described by Desjardins (2005) are helpful, they are still too vague. Many more examples need to be available to LTEs, not just a single “WOW” lesson

on YouTube but many examples of course syllabi that show how digital technology is integrated into a literacy methods course to support student teacher learning and prepares them for working in classrooms in the twenty-first century.

Larger unanswered questions about education compound the situation: in general, what are we trying to accomplish in education? Which leads to the question: what should be our goals for literacy teacher education? The place of digital technology in education may seem obvious, but as the literature review and findings section reveal, there is no widely agreed-upon consensus to the what, why, how, and where. These larger and specific questions need to be addressed systematically because without a clearer direction, each individual LTE is left to grapple with the technical and conceptual place of digital technology in teacher education.

The data revealed that LTEs' courses differed dramatically which suggests that student teachers will complete their programs with quite different understanding about literacy, varied pedagogical skills, and, perhaps, unexamined views of digital technology. Some new teachers will be woefully unprepared to teach literacy with and through digital technology nor will they have had the experience of learning in a digitally rich environment. The variability and inconsistency in the LTEs' courses can have significant consequences.

Solutions to this multifaceted and complex situation are not going to simply "arrive." Selwyn (2013) offers this advice:

> So, rather than continuing to wait in vain for the great technological leap forwards, it is perhaps more sensible for academics to begin to pay serious attention to what kinds of digital technology might be of genuine benefit to them. Instead of struggling with the over-hyped, pre-configured digital products and practices that are being imported continually into university settings, a genuine grassroots interest needs to be developed in the co-creation of alternative educational technologies. In short, mass participation is needed in the development of 'digital technology for university educators by university educators.' (p. 3)

Our research has provided an insider perspective on the challenges LTEs face regarding digital technology. Our advice is to think about literacy courses as a "work in progress" which will continue to develop over many years in the profession. Consider the technologies that will be of use to teacher educators and to student teachers. These technologies will look different in each context, but this approach makes the larger task more manageable and will allow LTEs to modify as needed thus learning and growing with their student teachers. Of course, LTEs will need support and examples as they move into teaching in ways they may not have experienced as students.

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Chapter 6
Sustaining Self and Others in the Teaching Profession: A Personal Perspective

Cheryl J. Craig

The years teach much which the days never knew…
(Emerson 1844)

Abstract This self-study uses narrative inquiry and the "best-loved self" heuristic to examine how educators sustain themselves along their career continuums. The work highlights the importance of knowledge development through human interactions in communities of knowing and asserts the value of thinking again. Hope for a better future—in whatever form it appears—is the overarching theme.

6.1 Introduction

The research I have conducted with preservice, beginning, and experienced teachers, along with my collaborations with the portfolio group of teachers and my self-studies into my own practices as a teacher educator, have inevitably raised the question of what preservice, practicing teachers and teacher educators need in order to feel sustained in their careers. In this chapter I explore how the quest to live one's best-loved self (Schwab 1954/1978; Craig 2013) has played out in educative and non-educative (Dewey 1938) ways in my career. I examine leaving teaching, joining a research team, becoming a tenure-track teacher educator, and encountering situations I could not have fathomed happening in my career. Themes such as dilemmas in crossing boundaries, cover stories, and counter stories appear and reappear in my lived and told stories.

My self-study begins with ideas I encountered when I resigned from my teaching position and entered academia after 15 years in the classroom and 14 years as a part-time teacher educator. It ends with a deeper understanding of ideas after a former

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Department Chair suddenly resigned, after a long-term research participant passed away, and after I, too, had aged and lived some of the career issues they faced. Before I present my story, I outline the importance of teaching, teachers, teacher educators, and teacher quality. I then introduce Schwab's notion of teachers' best-loved selves, which I use as a heuristic in my self-study focusing on sustenance along the career continuum. After that, I discuss the self-study research genre and show how I use narrative inquiry to investigate my personal landscape nested within an ever-shifting professional knowledge landscape (Clandinin and Connelly 1995) in Houston, the fourth largest urban center in the USA. Finally, I launch into my telling and retelling of stories that have shaped who I am, what I do, and what I disclose. Through this approach, I unearth what anchors educators in their careers even when the contexts of teaching/teacher education change and narrowed curriculum, standardized achievement tests and "automaton" teaching become the norm.

6.2 Literature Review

Much research asserts the importance of teachers/teacher education/teacher educators/teacher quality. The OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), for example, declared a decade ago that "teaching matters," basing that statement on a 25-country study reported in the official policy statement, *Teaching matters: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers* (OECD 2005). "Teachers matter"; that is what Day and his colleagues concluded in *Teachers Matter: Connecting Work, Lives, and Effectiveness* (Day et al. 2007). "Teacher education matters," proclaimed Linda Darling-Hammond in her article, "How teacher education matters" (Darling-Hammond 2000). "Teacher education matters," also wrote William Schmidt and his colleagues in *Teacher Education Matters: A Study of Middle School Mathematics Teacher Preparation in Six Countries* (Schmidt et al. 2011). "Teacher quality matters," determined Gregory Ramsey (2000) in an Australian policy document. "Teacher quality matters," echoed Marilyn Cochran-Smith in a *Journal of Teacher Education* editorial (Cochran-Smith 2003). "Teacher education matters," asserted InFo-TED (2015), a consortium of international teacher educators. "Teacher educators matter," affirmed Clandinin and her colleagues (Clandinin et al. 2009 in addition to Berry (2007) and many others. Indeed, popular opinion acknowledges that the influence of a good teacher "can never be erased." Yet, despite compelling overtures to teachers/teacher educators and repeated declarations of their importance, the bulk of the research field has taken a deficit view of teachers/teacher educators and largely focused on what they should know and do to help students learn, rather than assuming an "assets orientation" and exploring what teachers/teacher educators need to feel sustained in their workplaces/careers so they are able to help students learn. A negative "rhetoric of conclusions" (Schwab 1962, p. 24) has taken shape due to unexamined educational hierarchies, engrained social hegemonies, and institutionalized power differentials.

Dewey was the first to view teachers/teacher educators as minded human beings "moved by their own intelligences and ideas" (Dewey 1908/1981, p. 16). He argued that teachers reflect on their contextualized practices on a past-present-future continuum and refine their praxis through scientific inquiry and ongoing consultation with others. Dewey helped lay the foundation for the teacher as researcher (Stenhouse 1980), teacher as reflective practitioner (Schön 1983), teacher as curriculum maker (Clandinin and Connelly 1992), and self-study of teaching and teacher education (Loughran and Hamilton 2016) movements. All of these approaches honor the centrality of teachers/teacher educators in the educational enterprise.

Like Dewey, Schwab (1959/1978) gave unwavering support to teachers "…looking at their own practices and the consequences of them…" (p. 168). He emphasized that teachers have "different bents" (Schwab 1983, p. 241) and, hence, their strengths and reflections on practice will differ. Such differences are an asset, not an aberration to be wiped off the research slate. In all situations, Schwab left teachers with discretionary power because he understood that no enactment of curriculum would be complete without the teacher's active engagement. Teachers are much more than conduits disseminating subject matter, Schwab maintained. They are "agent[s] of education" (Schwab 1954/1978) in its entirety. Therefore, the only path to sustained improvement of teaching happens through reflection. In Schwab's words, the reflective teacher/teacher educator "…is a possessor and imparter of disciplines in quite another sense: mentor, guide, and model; ally of the student against ignorance, participant with the student in high adventures into the worlds of intellect and sensibility" (Schwab 1969, p. 20). In this explanation, the importance of the teacher's "self" and how that "self" figures feeds directly into Schwab's understanding of how education works.

The ideas presented thus far shed light on what Schwab meant by teachers teaching their best-loved selves as part of their "stories to live by" (Connelly and Clandinin 1999)—their identities expressed in narrative terms—without their selves comprising the teacher education experience or becoming a proxy for the school curriculum. For Schwab, "satisfying lives," the ultimate aim of education, can only be achieved when:

> [The teacher] wants something more for students than the capacity to give back…a report of what…has [been] said. [The teacher] wants them to possess a knowledge or a skill in the same way that [the teacher] possesses it, as a part of his/her best-loved self…[The teacher] wants to communicate some of the fire s/he feels, some of the Eros [or passion] s/he possesses, for a valued object. The controlled and conscious purpose is to liberate, not captivate the student. (Schwab 1954/1978, p. 124–125)

Here we see how foundational the teachers' best-loved self is to teachers' knowing, doing, and being and how that knowing, doing, and being necessarily involves students. The teacher works passionately alongside students, freeing them to engage in self-initiated inquiries.

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Research Genre

My investigation belongs to the self-study research genre. Self-study focuses on articulating, refining, and understanding one's own professional expertise and practice and contains critical collaborative interactions. It uses a broad range of methods—narrative inquiry, case study research, action research, teacher research, and arts-based approaches, for example. As is evident, self-study's intellectual roots are intimately linked to the qualitative research paradigm. The idea of the trustworthiness of research findings—as opposed to their validity—is a generally accepted rule of thumb. Instead of capital "T," Truth being determined for all times and all places, studies trustworthy in nature have a "true for now" ring to them. They offer "a constructed account of experience, not a factual record of what…happened" (Josselson 2011, p. 225).

Schwab's research helped pave the way to self-study, which has been described as "the study of one's self, one's actions, one's ideas, as well as, the 'not self.'" It includes the "autobiographical, historical, cultural, and political and [takes] a thoughtful look at texts read, experiences had, people known, and ideas considered" (Hamilton and Pinnegar 1998, p. 236) and their connections to one's teaching and teacher education practices. In addition to improving university teaching, those involved in self-study research seek to confirm or challenge understandings, gain additional perspectives, and deliberate, test, and judge educational practice for the purpose of building a teaching and teacher education community (LaBoskey 2004).

6.3.2 Research Method

Narrative inquiry is the research method I have chosen from among the qualitative approaches used in the self-study genre. Narrative inquiry, according to Xu and Connelly (2010), is the experiential study of teachers' experiences. These experiences can involve teachers and/or teacher educators and can be situated in the university, in the schools, and/or in the community. Narrative inquiry places a premium on the primacy of experience wherever it unfurls. Hence, strategies, rules, and techniques (Clandinin and Connelly 2000) are avoided. This is because "life is not made up of separate pieces" (Bateson 1994, p. 108). Teaching and learning are personal and emotional as well as cognitive and rational processes (Hollingsworth et al. 1993). We cannot examine teaching and teacher education—or indeed life itself—while denying or subjugating the link between experience and education.

> Another unique attribute of narrative inquiry is the relationship between experience and story. Lakoff and Johnson (2003) assert that humans think in metaphor and talk in stories. Story is the closest we can come to raw experience. We not only author stories of our experiences, we also live in stories not of our making. This myriad of stories begins in our families and communities and includes all other social, historical, cultural, institutional, national and international narratives we live within. Combined, these stories envelop us. They are as 'invisible as air' and as 'weightless as dreams.' (Stone 1988, p. 244)

So how can readers apprehend what is needed to grow and sustain our "best-loved selves" in our careers as teachers and teacher educators if the stories we both create and exist in are not tangible in a concrete sense? The answer lies in the fact that, in self-studies using the narrative inquiry method, stories never conclusively end. This is because life is a continuum. We naturally reflect across time and place. We talk across (Stone 1988, p. 12) our storied experiences in order to elucidate finely nuanced topics like sustaining teachers and teacher educators' "best-loved selves" in the field of education.

6.3.3 Research Tools

Three interpretative tools—broadening, burrowing, and storying and re-storying (Connelly and Clandinin 1990)—help me to excavate meaning in this self-study. A fourth tool, fictionalization (Clandinin et al. 2006), is also occasionally used. The first research tool, broadening, situates my self-study in a larger landscape. Burrowing, the second analytical tool I employ, has to do with how I present my personal journey as a teacher, teacher educator, and researcher. I dig deeply into certain educative and miseducative career experiences in order to make sense of them. The third analytical device, storying and re-storying, captures changes in how I think about issues along my career trajectory. I intermingle findings from my early career research with my mid- and late-career research and lay them alongside my personal thinking about career sustenance as my own and others' careers have unfurled. Fictionalization is the fourth, sometimes used interpretative device. I employ it to make public previously unpublished information about research participants without disclosing their identities or pseudonyms.

6.3.4 Sources of Evidence

The field texts contributing to the following research text arise from (1) journals I have kept since the late 1980s; (2) interview/focus group transcripts that have accumulated since 1990; (3) articles I have authored/coauthored since the 1980s; and (4) chapters I contributed to others' books.

6.3.5 Learning About Sustenance and the Teaching/Teacher Education Profession

I begin this story of experience at an odd juncture: close to the midpoint of my career when I made the decision to leave teaching in the public schools to begin my Ph.D. program at the University of Alberta in order to become a full-time teacher

educator and researcher. If I were to be asked "off-the-cuff" why I left classroom teaching, I would probably reply that it was due to the profession's lack of a career ladder and the fact that males and minority females with less experience were repeatedly being selected for positions for which I applied. However, this is an incomplete telling. To shed light on other untold story parts, I need to explain the research project in which I became engaged and show how it put me on the pathway to considering what sustains teachers and teacher educators in the profession.

When I began my doctoral program, I was offered the opportunity of a lifetime: the chance to conduct research on teaching and teacher education alongside Jean Clandinin who, together with Michael Connelly, had just been awarded a large Canadian research grant. They had recently completed their personal practical knowledge study (Connelly and Clandinin 1985) and were in the throes of launching their professional knowledge context investigation, which would situate teachers' personal practical knowing in the milieus in which it is nested.

I was fresh from the schools and delighted to be part of their research team. My contribution would revolve around how two beginning teachers, Benita and Tim, came to know in their respective professional knowledge contexts. Near the start of the research endeavor, the research team conceptualized the contexts of teaching as a "professional knowledge landscape" (Clandinin and Connelly 1996) and considered the dilemmas that beginning/experienced teachers encounter as they move back and forth between their in-classroom and out-of-classroom places (Clandinin and Connelly 1995). As soon as in-classroom and out-of-classroom places were conceptualized, I immediately went home and wrote "Dilemmas in crossing the boundaries on the professional knowledge landscape" (Craig 1995a) as a reflective entry in my personal journal. That essay was never meant to be part of the study, but it crept into it because it was a story inside of me as a teacher/teacher educator/researcher that needed to come out. In my view, it helped me further comprehend why I left classroom teaching. I was experiencing tensions between the needs of individual students and mandated policy imperatives. My dissertation also chronicled how the theory-practice split had surfaced in my career. As a classroom teacher, I was often regarded as too theoretical. However, when I concurrently worked as a teacher educator at the university, I was seen as too practical. Hence, this became another chasm to reconcile. Thus, the reasons why I left teaching were multistranded and complex—and included a forward-moving plotline of improving the understanding of teachers and teaching from a teacher educator point of view.

Conducting research alongside Tim and Benita introduced me to the fact that teachers come to know alongside other teachers/principals/family members in what I termed knowledge communities (Craig 1995b). These knowledge communities nurture teachers in the profession because they are safe storytelling places where a sense of knowing is both created and revised. Along with the professional knowledge landscape metaphor and the notions of in-classroom and out-of-classroom spaces, the idea of knowledge communities was one of the major theoretical contributions of the contexts of teaching study. The professional knowledge landscape research program additionally found that both beginning and experienced teachers have an ongoing desire to share their stories of practice and long to be in relation-

ship with peers and students. Love of subject matter frequently formed another commonplace of experience (Lane 1988). Furthermore, teachers appreciate opportunities to think again—that teachers do not simply live stories and share them in icon-like fashion. Rather, teachers think *with* stories through responding to one another's telling and then relive and retell their experiences through ongoing interactions as I illustrate in this self-study.

The end of the *Teachers' Professional Knowledge Landscapes* book revolved around hope and despair. Given that educators have few choices, many choose to live cover stories (submit to authority, while knowing otherwise), a behavior akin to subversion. However, living subversively in the face of institutional "recalcitrance" (Heilbrun 1999) is not "educative" (Clandinin and Connelly 1995, p. 162). Conversely, having the institution's change efforts constantly "divert[ed]" (p. 162) by teachers/professors is not productive either. "Out of this dual sense of failure… hope emerges," concluded Clandinin and Connelly (1995, p. 163). They then cited May Sarton (1968): "If our hopes and beliefs are 'misplaced,' then we need 'to make myths of our lives' since 'it is the only way to live without despair'" (p. 39).

While I understood the professional knowledge landscapes study and the majority of the book arising from it, the meaning Clandinin and Connelly intended for the final line in the award-winning volume completely escaped my comprehension. And, when I would reread the text, I would skim over that last part. I simply could not relate to it with the experiences I had at that time. I was so filled with hope that I could not imagine it being mislaid or lost.

With hindsight, I can now say that I needed to live forward, to enter into more knowledge community relationships, and to experience the field of teaching/teacher education in Houston, which is perhaps in the most advanced state of disrepair of any developed region in the world, with its 28 teacher education providers mostly offering alternate certification through a handful of night classes. Only then would I come closer to grasping the meaning of that last statement in the book and be able to call forth "another 'I' and tell 'another kind of story'" (Clandinin and Connelly 1991, p. 141).

My arrival in the world of academia in the southern USA coincided with a major privately funded reform movement investing $20 million in reforming Houston's public schools, which was matched locally by $40 million. As a teacher educator, I soon found myself invited to serve in the prominent role as a planning and evaluation consultant alongside five of the ten lead campuses. Later, I was chosen by the national philanthropy to serve as the summative evaluator for a sixth campus. This introduced me to two new dilemmas relating to crossing the boundaries: the first one ironically having to do with the school-based educators not trusting *me* because I came from the high ground of theory to live alongside them in the swampy lowland of practice (Schön 1983) and the second one pertaining to hegemonies in the planning and evaluation consultant/summative evaluation roles and having to do with my experiences at the university itself.

Where the teachers were concerned, some would gather prior to our meetings to predetermine "what [they were] going to share with [me]." Others called me "the man" and discussed how they needed "to be perfect…" [because [I came] from the university]. In one brutally honest conversation, I explicitly was told that "[I] was

chosen to work with them"—as opposed to them being asked to work with me (Field texts in Craig 2007, p. 623).

After years of sustained interactions, nurturing words like *interwoven* and *intertwined* (italics in original) were invoked to describe my relationships with the teachers and their relationships with me (Curtis et al. 2013). In fact, the "braided rivers/braided lives" metaphor was used to instantiate how our collaborative inquiries and relationships came together across institutions and over time. Also, unhelpful cover stories initially lived and told fell to the wayside as the Portfolio Group of teachers began to articulate a "counter story." In one publication, the teachers borrowed Lindemann Nelson's (2001) words to describe their counter story as a narrative:

> …told in dialogue with others… And when [counter stories] are constructed by communities of choice [the Portfolio Group] their dialogic nature is magnified, for they are then told together with other tellers, fragment by fragment, each person contributing to plot and character and what Aristotle…call[ed] 'thought." (Lindemann Nelson 2001, p. 38, in Curtis et al. 2013)

Not only did the Portfolio Group's counter story bind our knowledge community together, it provided endless opportunities for us to think again in a safe space alongside valued colleagues holding youth's best interests at heart. Furthermore, it became increasingly evident that:

> …when [teachers/teacher educators] tell [their] stories and describe [their] feelings and integrate them into [their]… sel[ves], [they] no longer … actively work at inhibition. This alleviates the stress of holding back [their] stories and repressing or hiding [their] emotions, and so [despite challenges], [their] well-being improves (De Salvo 1999, p. 24).

A similar shift also happened with the principals. When they began to share their stories of experience, they talked about pressures they also faced. Eagle High School's principal candidly discussed how the accountability "dragon," fueled by the state's fascination with high-stakes measures, sparred with the authenticity "dragon" of what the school really wanted to do where teaching and learning were concerned (Craig 2004). The principal at T. P. Yaeger School confided how every change she attempted became a district imperative. Still other administrators divulged that the ghost story (Connelly and Clandinin 1999) of the historical desegregation of the public schools in Texas continued to sit in the background and has a longitudinal effect on their campuses. As can be seen, the principals also developed a counter story. Instead of waiting to see what the reform movement would give them, they forthrightly asked for what their campuses and their student learners needed (Field texts in Craig 2007, p. 622). They reasoned that if they did not make their requests explicit, those in power would never willingly give them anything. By taking this stance, they also championed a "new epistemology of educational practice" (Schön 1995).

Concurrently, I was dealing with issues concerning who I was as a teacher educator. I interestingly discovered—on the Internet no less—that my role as a planning and evaluation consultant had been assessed by two summative evaluators despite

the principal investigator's assurance that "professional courtesy" would prevail. I learned that:

> The work of the formal evaluators was positioned in such a way that it was not only able to trump[1] the school-based educators' work [i.e., the work of principals/teachers], but the planning and evaluation consultants' work [i.e., teacher educator's work] as well. Those professors involved in pure theorizing [of which I also was one] were accorded a greater measure of authority in the educational scheme of things (and, not surprisingly more highly compensated) than those working in "the swampy lowland of practice where situations are confusing 'messes.'" (Craig 2007, p. 1173)

I continued:

> It was only one small leap for…runaway evaluators to seize the opportunity readily available to them and to use it, not only to construe the summative evaluation of the reform project as a 'horse race' (Schön and McDonald 1998, p. 61) between the participating schools (in contrary to the school-based educators' wishes), but also a 'horse race' between different kinds of educators (contrary to the principal investigator's desire). (Craig 2007, p. 1173)

However, this time around I did not simply illustrate the crossing boundaries dilemma and discuss it as a recurrent issue "that eludes definitive answer…" (Schön and McDonald 1998, p. 49). Instead, I struck at the core of the matter:

> It does not matter if the participating evaluators are quantitative researchers or qualitative researchers or if those evaluated are teachers, teacher educators, principals or planning and evaluation consultants, the hegemonies built into the educational enterprise will continue to play out the very same way—until the conduct and processes of [those at universities] are themselves reformed alongside the role and work of those [in schools]. (Craig 2007, p. 1174)

Here, a critical element of the counter story that I lived and told years before entering higher education, a plotline that undid and retold the "dominant story," spilled out because I could no longer trap it inside. This retelling of the theory-practice divide increased my "moral self-determination" (Lindemann Nelson 1995, p. 23). My daring to reflect on what dilemmas teach (Schön and McDonald 1998) helped me to regain my personal sense of I-Thou (Buber 1970) (even while treated as an I-It) and to increase my narrative authority (Olson 1995). It strengthened my resolve to act in ways consistent with my "best-loved self" and enabled me to continue as a "faithful witness" (Saul 1992, p. 76) to human experience—my own and others.

Concomitantly, issues were brewing at the university, which warranted an independent self-study (Craig 2010). My college's teacher education program was facing three assessments—an internal university review, a conference of universities review, and a national accreditation review. Each teacher educator had to prepare three versions of the syllabi for each course he/she taught because each accrediting agency required different branding and terms. Our college was successful with all

[1] I borrowed the word, trump, from the title of Larry Cuban's book, *How Scholars Trumped Teachers* (Cuban 1993).

three reviews, mostly due to the sensibilities, tenacity, and role modeling of our female Department Chair. However, at the celebration luncheon following our successful jumping of the accountability hoops (which differs from having a high-quality teacher education program), the Dean attributed our college's pass to another person: a peripherally involved professor in another department—not my Chair who almost single-handedly masterminded the entire accreditation enterprise. In fact, her name was not even mentioned. The Dean said he was promoting the other individual to Associate Dean.

Undoubtedly, this was the most glaring injustice I had ever publicly witnessed. But it was what happened next that left the lasting impression on me. My highly principled Chair, who never spoke of challenges or the acrimony surrounding the reviews, picked up her notebook and walked out of the filled auditorium. She never returned to our college from that day forward. As I watched her leave, my mind traveled to the concluding line of the *Teachers' Professional Knowledge Landscapes* book. I wondered: "Did my Chair's living of a myth enable her to carry us through the review process and to silence the despair she surely must have sensed on the horizon?" Also, her "best-loved self" transported her out of that crowded assembly hall with such dignity and grace. It was crystal clear that she no longer wanted her identity—her story to live by—tethered to the shifting sands of our place of employment. Anything that had previously nurtured her was lost.

If my Chair's sudden departure threw me into some deep thinking about the conclusion of Clandinin and Connelly's 1995 book, the early retirement of one of the most well-respected principals with whom I worked heightened the intensity of my thoughts. I had conducted over 50 interviews with her and had no inkling that she contemplated ending her career. A few days after the official announcement, I received a personal note from her. She explained that she had spent "too many years on the short end of the stick." Her words stuck to me like glue as well. Anybody who knew this principal would not describe her in this way. She was one of the strongest advocates for children and teachers I had seen. Yet, beneath the mythical success story she lived, lay her—or I more correctly should say—the profession's narrative truth: the fact that neither education/educators/teacher educators/females are valued to the extent they should be; nor are they given support and resources to do their jobs well. A few years later, when she lay in a hospice dying, not a word of regret was exchanged between us. I—along with other members of her knowledge communities—understood our charge: we would take up the torch she was leaving behind. We would move forward "in the hope[2] of making the world a better place." After all, my friend concluded, "Hope is what education is all about."

[2] Hope has two beautiful daughters; their names are anger and courage. Anger at the way things are and courage to see that they do not remain as they are (St. Augustine).

6.4 Parting Words

In this self-study in the narrative inquiry vein, I have addressed the question of what sustains teachers and teacher educators in their careers. By sifting through educative and miseducative experiences over time, I have revealed individuals' personal interactions and feelings of angst amid the systemic failures they experienced. These challenges cropped up in almost every professional setting I experienced. In the midst, I came to understand the need for cover stories, the importance of counter stories, the significance of knowledge communities, and the urgent need to revamp the fields of teaching and teacher education, keeping all these narrative concepts in mind. Also, as I aged, I more clearly identified long-standing problems such as the hierarchy of importance, the estrangement of theory from practice, the absence of recognition, and the lack of resources. Furthermore, the last line in *Teachers' Professional Knowledge Landscapes*, with which I initially failed to connect, became comprehensible. Since being honored with the American Educational Research Association's Michael Huberman Award for Outstanding Contributions to Understanding the Lives of Teachers in April 2015, I also have seriously questioned whether I have been living reality or whether I have also been perpetuating a myth in my career as a female teacher/teacher educator. I have no pat answer to offer at this time. However, I now more intimately know the question, and this self-study will continue into the future until I, too, find a way to exit the profession with dignity and grace, confident in knowing that I have prepared hundreds of teachers, teacher educators, and teaching and teacher education researchers who will help thousands of students to lead more satisfying lives.

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Chapter 7
Learning to Walk Your Talk: The Pre-service Campus Programme as a Context for Researching and Modelling Reflective Pedagogy in an Era of Transmission and Testing

Clive Beck

Abstract In this chapter, I focus on my last 3 years (2012–2015) teaching a pre-service programme at OISE, University of Toronto, and how my ideas, practices, and identity as a pre-service instructor changed. The research methodology used was 'reflective practice', that is, inquiry involving reflection in and on one's practice with a view to improving that practice. Such research is cyclical and ongoing, as in self-study and action research traditions. An essential aspect is modelling the pedagogy one is arriving at and increasingly advocating it to one's students. My 'insider perspective' is that teacher education programming should include the following: integration of theory and practice; making subject teaching relevant; having fewer, shorter readings and less lecturing; giving *all* students substantial voice and choice; making group work more engaging and involving *all* students; individualizing assignments; and connecting the campus programme more closely to the practicum. This pedagogy of teaching and teacher education may be increasingly at odds with that proposed by policymakers and even practised by one's peers.

7.1 Introduction

As an 'insider' in teacher education, I have for the past two decades taught in a one-year post-graduate teacher preparation programme (called a Bachelor of Education or B.Ed.) at OISE/University of Toronto in Ontario, Canada. In this programme, as in most pre-service programmes in Canada, about two-thirds of the coursework is concerned specifically with subject teaching and about one-third with social foundations, special education, assessment, school law, and so on. I have participated in

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the programme in a number of ways including admissions, practicum supervision, and cohort community building; however, my main focus here is on my teaching of the foundations course called 'School and Society'. This is because my chief concern in the chapter is with campus instruction (university-based teaching) and in particular how the course I taught – and my identity as a pre-service instructor (teacher educator) – changed during the period 2012 to 2015.

Along with other Ontario universities, the University of Toronto has considerable control over its teacher education programming, and there are no external assessments of faculty or of student teacher candidates as they enter and exit the programme. Within each course, too, instructors have substantial leeway: my 'School and Society' course, for example, differs significantly in content and pedagogy from corresponding courses taught by other instructors, even within the University of Toronto. Despite these important freedoms, however, we all understand that candidates must be prepared to teach in Ontario schools, of which 95% are public (that is, publicly funded and governed). Accordingly, the government's kindergarten to grade 12 (i.e. ages 4–17) curriculum documents and general guidelines are a major reference point in pre-service preparation. The curriculum for each subject is extensive and detailed, and standardized tests are administered by the Education Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) in literacy and math in grades 3, 6, and 9, plus a grade 10 literacy test. There is no high school graduation/university entrance exam (which I believe is a very positive feature of our system), but again high school teachers are expected to cover the government curriculum quite systematically and assign final marks that largely reflect students' mastery of the curriculum.

In terms of my identity as a teacher education insider in this context, I wrestle with two main challenges. The first is how to negotiate the mixed messages coming from the system. On the one hand, the Ministry of Education publishes very progressive documents on the need for inquiry learning, individualized assessment, holistic development, and the like, but on the other, it puts enormous pressure on schools and teachers to cover a great deal of academic content in a way that can easily undermine the broader goals. The second challenge is how to model in my teacher education instruction the reflective, progressive, constructivist approach to teaching that I, my colleagues, and the Ministry advocate but that is frequently not modelled in teacher education or in the schools – largely because of the above-mentioned pressure to transmit subject content.

My practice-based research on my own teaching, reported in this chapter, is concerned primarily with how to respond to these two challenges. The conclusion I have come to, in general terms, is twofold: (a) it is possible to develop, teach, and model a pedagogy that involves doing *both*, to a degree, teaching for relevance *and* content knowledge and (b) we must to some extent 'resist' or push against the system, whether openly or not (e.g. depending on our personality and particular situation, as an untenured beginner). This pushing against the system brings stresses that impact our well-being, for example, fear of the authorities, conflicts with colleagues, or reduced professional advancement. But on balance it is a more fulfilling path than spending the rest of our career modelling and fostering a type of pedagogy that makes little sense to us or our students and is of less than optimal usefulness.

7.2 Theoretical Framework

In this chapter – as in my pre-service teaching – I advocate what I call 'reflective' pedagogy. This is akin to what is often called 'constructivist' pedagogy (Falk 2009; Fosnot 1989; Richardson 1997; Vygotsky 1978), a teaching approach that is dialogical, critical, inquiry-oriented, and inclusive. There is substantial (though not complete) agreement among teachers and teacher educators today on this type of pedagogy. Authors broadly representative of the approach (e.g. Dewey, Vygotsky, Piaget, Freire) are frequently cited in pre-service courses and in the literature on *teaching and teacher education*. As Kennedy (2006) says: 'Teacher educators are famous (or notorious) for the progressive vision of teaching that they espouse. They embrace terms such as *learning community, co-construction, inquiry,* and *social justice'* (p. 209). Similarly, according to a recent OECD report (OECD 2012) on teacher preparation, in a recent study, 'teachers in all but one of the 23 participating countries endorsed a constructivist view of teaching, which focuses on students as active participants in the process of acquiring knowledge' (p. 39). And in India, the new national curriculum framework for teacher education requires that teachers be prepared to be 'a facilitator of children's learning in a manner that helps children to construct knowledge and meaning' (NCTE 2009, p. 3).

A major problem in teacher education, however, is that while we speak a great deal about reflective, constructivist, and so on pedagogy, we often fail to model it in our own practice. We fall too easily into, for example, giving a 2-hour presentation on the value of dialogue or a stern talk on the importance of respect. According to Aubusson and Schuck (2013), in the eight countries whose teacher education programmes they studied, there was often 'a gap between the rhetoric and reality' (p. 325). Sykes et al. (Sykes et al. 2010) observe: 'Teacher education … fits into cultural scripts, with much of it occurring in classrooms where instructors dominate discussion, use Power Point, assign readings in texts, and give tests' (p. 467). In this chapter I wish to tackle this problem head-on, showing how attempting to 'walk our talk' or *model* reflective pedagogy can help us refine such pedagogy and enable student teachers to learn about it through first-hand experience.

7.3 Research Methodology

In keeping with my emphasis on reflective pedagogy, the primary research methodology employed in arriving at the conclusions reported in this chapter is 'reflective practice', that is, inquiry involving reflection in and on one's practice with a view to improving practice (Dewey 1910; Loughran 2010; Schon 1983). In the main 'findings' section – which comprises most of the chapter – I will describe how my experiences in teacher education (with 3 successive cohorts of approximately 65 student teachers) led to changes in my ideas and practices over the 3 years 2012–2015.

As a research methodology, reflective practice is similar in many ways to 'self-study' research, a widespread method of researching teacher education (Samaras and Freese 2009). Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices (S-STEP) is a large Special Interest Group within the American Educational Research Association and has a strongly international membership. Self-study research is typically characterized by the goal of improving practice, research conducted in the context of practice, an emphasis on collaboration and/or working with 'critical friends', and an emphasis on sharing ideas as part of the research process, as well as an outcome (Beck and Kosnik 2014; Samaras and Freese 2009).

Reflective practice inquiry as described by Schon (1983) and others is less explicitly systematic than self-study research and frequently does not involve collaboration or public sharing. Self-study and other more formal types of research (e.g. action research) should be used where possible. However, reflective practice is often more feasible for educators (as it was in my case). And given the large number of 'study participants' (i.e. students) educators have over the years and the extensive opportunities to learn through interaction with them, I believe reflective practice has many advantages and deserves to be taken seriously as a research approach.

7.4 Findings: Developments in My Pre-service Ideas and Practices 2012–2015

As mentioned earlier, this chapter focuses on the period 2012–2015 during which several developments occurred in my approach to teacher education. In this main section of the chapter, I will describe each change in turn, noting what led me to it and how my students responded. I call these developments 'findings' because they represent advances in my knowledge of how to teach in pre-service (and how to teach generally) that emerged largely because of what I observed during my pre-service teaching. As with any research, however, other sources of insight were involved, including reading in the field and other research projects in which I was engaged.

The approach to pre-service teaching I arrived at might be referred to as a 'pedagogy of teacher education' (Loughran 2006), since it is tailored to the post-secondary – and post-graduate – teaching situation and has features that would have to be adapted in certain ways for the school setting. For example, it is accepted on the university campus that theory will be a major focus of instruction. However, this point should not be exaggerated since to a large extent I see myself as increasingly modelling the very teaching approach I am recommending to the student teachers for the school setting. For example, in schools as in teacher education, our teaching should be theoretical – that is, concerned with placing 'facts' in a meaningful context – but in such a way that its practical implications are clear. In an important sense, the same pedagogy is needed in all teaching situations: teaching is teaching is teaching, I would argue.

7.4.1 Increased Integration of Theory and Practice

I agree with a number of authors (e.g. Carr 1995; Cochran-Smith and Lytle 2009; Schon 1983; Zeichner and Liston 2014) who reject a sharp separation between theory and practice and the prioritizing of theory. However, when I began teaching the social foundations course 'School and Society' in pre-service 20 years ago, I often focused on theory to the neglect of practice. This was partly because of my background in philosophy of education but also because foundations courses in general are widely seen (as their name suggests) as concerned with the concepts and principles *underlying* and *guiding* practice.

With time, however, and especially over the past 3 years, I have integrated theory and practice to a much greater extent. For example, I now have classes on practical as well as theoretical aspects of student assessment and classroom organization. Even when discussing the importance of 'vision' in teaching, I stress that our vision must run the gamut from abstract theory to concrete practice, and we explore matters such as how to set up routines in the classroom and how to individualize learning. Theory is still seen as essential, but in order to understand its meaning and significance, we discuss what it means in practice.

What led me to this change in approach? In part it was ongoing reading of authors such as Dewey and Schon, along with research on in-service teacher. However, a key factor was my student teachers' relative lack of interest in theory and their preoccupation with surviving and being effective in the classroom. I noticed in the past that, while I got on well with my students, they tended to see my classes as exotic and diverting rather than serious preparation for teaching. Over the years I found that if I wanted them to be really enthusiastic about the course, I had to help them understand its payoff in the classroom.

Essentially what I have done is convert 'School and Society' into a course on *teaching*, in which student teachers and I work to develop an integrated, theoretical-and-practical 'vision' of the goals and processes of teaching. This sometimes leads to puzzlement on the part of my colleagues, who think there may be duplication between our courses. However, if the students are to take my course seriously and learn from it, I see no alternative but to discuss theory in practical terms across the spectrum of a teacher's role. Furthermore, I would not object to my colleagues touching on 'my' topics while covering theirs, though with different examples and from varying points of view.

7.4.2 Greater Emphasis on Making Subjects Relevant

I believe subject teaching is extremely important; however, it must be made relevant to students' lives, now and in the future. In my pre-service teaching in recent years, discussing and illustrating how to make subjects relevant has become a larger part of my practice. And again I do this partly because my student teachers demand it. They

know that most of their time will be spent teaching subjects, so they tend to value subject courses more than foundations courses. I try to show through detailed examples from the literature how one can *do both*: teach subject content *and* big ideas.

Of course, relevance is a broad concept; it covers not only relating subject content to the 'real world' but also helping students develop their personal and public way of life. In my course, I expose my students to examples of both types of relevance. We have classes explicitly on 'way of life education' and discuss examples of how subject teaching can be adapted to this end. Obviously, pre-service instructors in the respective subject areas can give much more extensive examples; but I feel I must help the students see how to make the connections, and many of the students express their appreciation of this approach.

7.4.3 Fewer Prescribed Readings and Shorter Mini-lessons

Theory courses – and pre-service courses in general – often involve extensive reading and in-class exposition of texts by the instructor and/or designated students; and this tended to be my practice until a few years ago. However, I have found that, in a busy pre-service programme, few students read even a couple of long items for a particular course in a given week.

Accordingly, while I give them a list of about 90 works for *possible* reference, I make it clear I want them to largely follow their interests; and for each 3-hour class, I normally provide just three excerpts (often of only 5–10 pages each) from fairly readable books or articles, designating *one* of the three to be read for group discussion. Then during the class, I normally spend a total of 30 to 40 min (spread over the 3 h) referring to these excerpts – not assuming all or even most of the students have read them – and chairing whole-class discussion of issues arising from them. Sometimes, if a particularly interesting discussion takes off, we do not discuss the readings at all except in the small groups.

The use of excerpts may not seem particularly respectable academically, and one year a student said he would like to have whole articles. However, the great majority of students appreciate just focusing on shorter pieces: it is less intimidating; it gives greater focus to the discussion (since many people have read the same few pages); and they do not end up feeling guilty that they have not read the complete works. In fact, my observation is that by using this approach, we tend to go into *greater* depth on key issues, rather than racing to 'cover' all the material.

7.4.4 Increased Student Voice

The area in which my practice has probably developed most over the past 3 years is ensuring that more students have a voice and in fact that *every* student gives substantial input at least two or three times in each 3-hour class. About 4 years ago, I

reached a crisis point in my teaching (both pre-service and graduate), in that I had a series of classes in which one or two students undermined the course by speaking at length on almost every issue. Instead of raising their hand and respecting the speakers list, they just jumped in. In 1 graduate course with 23 students, a single student spoke about two-thirds of the time during discussion sessions, whether in the whole class or her small group (sometimes I was in her small group and could witness it). Seeing the impact this was having on everyone else's enjoyment (including my own) and on the quality of the courses, I began to dread being in such classes and obsess about what kind of students would enrol next time. Ironically, this problem arose largely because of my move towards more of a discussion approach to teaching, which gave an opening to these enthusiastic talkers.

Luckily, this story has a happy ending. Over the past 3 years, I steadily developed a set of strategies for spreading the discussion around that have worked so well I no longer have any concerns on this front. I will outline the strategies below. Before doing so, however, I should mention that, for purposes of 'School and Society', I divide my pre-service cohort of roughly 65 into two groups of 32 or 33 and meet with one group in the morning and the other in the afternoon. I have always done this in order to help with community building; but it also greatly facilitates giving voice to all students (although in a modified form, the same strategies work with larger groups as well). The specific strategies are as follows:

(a) *Going around the group.* I arrange the room beforehand, so we sit in a large circle where everyone can see each other. Then, after a short mini-lesson, brief whole-class discussion, and/or simply the emergence of a new topic, each person starting from my left or right comments on the matter in hand. (They have the 'right to pass', but no one ever does – they are very glad to have this opportunity to talk.) Rarely is there time to go all the way around, so next time we go in the opposite direction.

(b) *Class presentation with three brief comments to left or right of the presenter.* After the first two classes of the year, students begin to give brief (3 or 4 min) class presentations on their emerging 'philosophy' of teaching, with students to their left or right responding. So in each class meeting, with a total of 4 presentations and 12 people responding, 16 people have a chance to speak in this way. A limit of 10 min is placed on each presentation and set of responses, so the total time for this activity is 40 min (we usually do it towards the end of the 3 h). Again, no one has ever declined to give or respond to a presentation: they love it. Also, despite the fact that everyone is in a sense presenting on the same topic (their approach to teaching), for some reason it never becomes repetitive and the level of attention is high: they enjoy hearing what each other has to say.

(c) *Brief whole-class discussion.* After a mini-lesson from me – or whenever a new topic emerges – we have a brief period of whole-class discussion, with the stated rule that each person will only speak once; and if several people raise their hands, I keep a speakers list. This may last up to 10 or 15 min, but if it becomes clear that certain people are going to ignore the rules and dominate, I

quickly shift to discussion in small groups or twos and threes or to going one by one around the room.

(d) *After small groups, everyone reporting back*. Instead of having one person report from each group, we go around the room with everyone speaking in turn about the topic. I will elaborate further in the section on small-group work.

(e) *Discussion in twos and threes followed by reporting around the room.* Sometimes on a particular topic, we have a quick (5 to 10 min) discussion of an issue in twos and threes around the room, followed by individuals reporting in turn on their thinking about the topic. Again, there may not be time to go around the whole class.

(f) *Debates.* If organized appropriately, debates can offer broad student participation. The topic chosen should be important, and the opposing positions should avoid the extremes of traditional debating, which can lead to artificiality. For example, the topic might be 'To what extent should pedagogy at elementary and high school levels be similar?' and the opposing positions might be 'quite similar' versus 'rather different'. To ensure that everyone has substantial airtime, the debate can be organized as follows:

- A class of 32 is divided into 4 teams of 8, 2 teams for each position.
- The teams have a 20-min planning session, during which each member outlines the point they wish to make to support their team's position and the argument(s) and/or example(s) they will use.
- Each team then presents all their points in turn in the order they have agreed on (we alternate hearing the ideas of a pro team and then a con team).

Thus every class member has the floor twice in a major way – once in their team meeting and once at the whole-class level – before general discussion begins. (As always, this general discussion is kept short unless participation is broad.)

All this management of discussion using the strategies mentioned may appear excessive and even stifling. However, from what I have seen, it constrains only those few who have difficulty controlling their talking (and interestingly, even they do not complain about the strategies); for the great majority, the payoff is enormous in terms of participation. Also, the students get to know each other much better than in a traditional class, so community building and inclusion are enhanced. Furthermore, I believe they are learning more, because apart from learning about the strategies themselves, they are more engaged and a great many ideas are injected into the discussion. For myself, I no longer fear my classes in the way I did and in fact enjoy them much more than in the past.

7.4.5 Small-Group Work That Is More Flexible and Engaging

Student teachers often tell me that small-group work is one of the least interesting and useful elements of the pre-service programme. There is little room for choice or creativity, since they have to complete an assigned task; and they see it as a kind of

make-work activity and so do not take it very seriously: often one person completes the task largely on their own, and the others present what that person has done. Furthermore, they become tired of being with the same group every time.

The approach I have found effective is as follows. We form different groups each time by numbering-off around the room; e.g. in a class of just over 30 students, we number from 1 to 6 and have 1 group for all the ones, another for all the twos, and so on. (I am part of the numbering-off process and so am also in a different group each time.) The groups then discuss the topic and readings for the day's class using a modified 'jigsaw' method and report back whatever they wish to the whole class: there is no other group 'assignment' apart from discussing the topic. I find this openness and flexibility results in greater student ownership and a focus on the *topic* rather than just fulfilling a task. As with any group work, of course, the topic has to be interesting to the students, so they approach it with enthusiasm rather than just going through the motions.

I have found that the traditional jigsaw method (which I used for many years) puts too much pressure on students to read and report on their individual article and breaks down when some students fail to do their reading; as a result, some groups ignore the topic and just socialize. Over the past 2 years, I have modified the method as follows. Every student has a permanent jigsaw number – either one or two – and I assign just two jigsaw articles (numbered one and two) per class meeting, with each student responsible for reading their article. This reduces the pressure on individual students, the discussion becomes more collaborative as two or three students speak to each article, and the articles are discussed in greater depth.

Another change I have implemented recently is to use the 'going-round-the-class' procedure for reporting back from small groups. Instead of one person reporting from each group – in which case certain students tend to do the reporting time after time – all the students in turn speak to the discussion topic, either just saying what they think about it, or noting something important that was said in their group, or both. Again, this means the focus is on the topic rather than a reporting requirement; everyone has a chance to speak to the topic in front of the whole class (although there may not be time to go all the way round); and individuals keep building in rich ways on what others have said.

7.4.6 Assignments that Are More Flexible and Individualized

A reflective, constructivist approach requires that student teachers have substantial choice in their assignment work so that they can construct their own ideas. Over the years, I have found that students show more motivation and write better essays if they have this kind of freedom. Assignment work becomes less of a 'chore', and they go into the issues in greater depth. (Recent graduates also speak of the artificiality of some of the pre-service assignments.) In order to increase the depth, I assign just two essays, the first a short 'draft' of the second and final one. I give feedback on the draft, and the students present on their emerging essay ideas and so also get

feedback from their peers. Both the draft and the final paper are on their teaching vision or approach.

The instructions for the *draft* paper are as follows:

> Outline your philosophy of teaching and learning, your teaching vision/approach. This is mainly a personal paper for your own use, but you should include at least two examples from your recent or previous experiences of schooling and at least two brief references to educational theorists (these may be from the course materials). Don't try to cover everything; just present two or three main aspects of your philosophy, connecting them as much as you can. Ask yourself: how would I explain my approach to teaching and learning to a relative or friend, another teacher, a school principal, or in a job interview? (You will find this assignment useful when interviewing for a teaching position.) (Length: 1000 words)

The instructions for the *final* paper are as follows:

> After a year of experience, reading, reflection, and discussion you will be more able to explain your vision/philosophy of teaching. This final paper has two aspects but they may be woven together. (a) Spend two or three pages summarizing your vision of teaching and learning, perhaps noting how it has developed and changed during the year (if it has). (b) Spend three or four pages (which may be integrated with (a)) giving examples of things that happened – good or bad – in one or both of your practicum placements during the year (either in your own teaching or that of your mentor teacher), and explaining how these examples relate to your approach to teaching and learning. Also talk about how your students responded to the teaching or other parts of the programme and what you learned from that. In this paper include at least five references to educational theorists (again, these may be from the course materials). (Length: 2000 words)

These instructions are rather detailed in order to push students to draw on their own experiences, blend theory and practice, and go in depth into a few matters rather than covering too many points. However, I make it clear during the year that the main requirement is for them to think deeply about their ideas and practices; and in grading the assignments and giving feedback, the focus is on the depth, originality, and practical value of the ideas rather than whether they have followed the assignment guidelines. For example, a student may get very positive comments and a high grade even without examples from their practicum or references to the literature. I want the assignment work to reinforce the emphasis on student choice and engagement discussed and modelled in the rest of the course.

7.4.7 Greater Emphasis on Professionalism

I have often observed in my student teachers a mixture of incompatible ideas. On the one hand, they have very idealistic goals for their students, emphasizing personal and social growth and present and future well-being. But on the other, they assume that the extensive official curriculum can and should be fully covered and that the government's new initiatives and 'reforms' must have merit and should be fully implemented. They do not realize that the government curriculum and additional mandates are often largely politically driven; that they will simply not have time or energy to do it all; and that, accordingly, in order to promote student growth

and well-being, they will have to make tough decisions about what subject content to emphasize in their teaching.

Increasingly, then, I have frank talks with them about the need for 'professionalism' notably, taking charge of their teaching and making decisions about what and how to teach. They have to become *reflective* practitioners. This is not easy, because most of them initially have traditional transmission views of teaching and also are strongly attached to their specialist academic subject(s) and want to cover everything in depth. I begin these discussions early in the year, so there is time for the idea of teacher decision-making to catch on (as much as it can in pre-service). A useful dynamic develops between those who see the point immediately (or already understood it before they entered the programme) and those who believe in complete coverage: the arguments are heated but helpful. As noted earlier, I believe that with time it is possible to figure out how to 'do both' to a large extent – teach a lot of subject content *and* make it relevant. But it is important for them to realize that much work will be needed to reach this point, and it will never be possible to cover *everything* and still give their students an optimal education.

7.4.8 More Discussion of Practicum Experiences

The student teachers mention often how much they learn from their practicum experiences, which occur in my programme in two 4-week blocks – part way through the first term and part way through the second – with a 5-week internship at the end. Even though they say my course is useful, their faces really light up when they talk about the practicum (despite the challenges often encountered there).

This has led me to allot even more time than in the past to discussion of the practicum, reviewing strategies and perspectives beforehand and, especially, discussing afterwards what they learned. I find this multiplies their learning as they share their insights and also provides opportunities to link what they learn with the theory addressed in the course. An activity I have found works well is to go around the class, with each student commenting in turn on at least one thing they learned about teaching during practice teaching and/or how their vision or philosophy of teaching has altered as a result of their experiences. In addition to this post-practicum debriefing, there is constant discussion throughout the year of the implications of their practicum-based learning.

7.5 Conclusion

Although schooling in Ontario and other Canadian provinces is relatively 'progressive', it shares to a degree some of the problematic features of other school systems around the world: transmission of large amounts of pre-set academic content, limited regard for relevance, and standardized testing of student learning. Given this

situation, Ontario teacher educators who believe in a more 'reflective' approach have to work to develop an alternative pedagogy that is constructivist and dialogical but nevertheless feasible for practitioners within the prevailing education system.

In this chapter, I have illustrated from my own experience how a relatively reflective pedagogy can be researched, refined, modelled, and fostered within a teacher education programme. I have actually done this; and my 'insider perspective' is that pre-service teacher education programming should include the following elements:

- Teaching theory in a practical way so student teachers can understand and implement it
- Making subject teaching relevant by connecting it to the real world and way of life matters
- Assigning fewer and shorter readings and having less lecturing and more discussion
- Giving *all* students many opportunities to say what they think
- Making small-group work more engaging and useful and again involving *all* students
- Individualizing assignments, again so students can develop and express their own views
- Encouraging students to become 'professionals' who take charge and make decisions
- Allowing students to bring their practicum learning back into the campus programme

In arriving at this approach to teacher education, I have drawn on the literature and traditional forms of research but have also relied heavily on my own practice-based learning (Cochran-Smith and Lytle 2009; Dewey 1910; Loughran 2010; Schon 1983; Zeichner and Liston 2014), with links to 'self-study' research (Samaras and Freese 2009) and 'action research' (Carr and Kemmis 1986). Again, my insider perspective on how to conduct such research involves the following elements: listening to students, noting their preferences and behaviour, trying out new strategies, and again listening to the students and observing their reactions.

I believe the reflective pedagogy described here, and the practice-based inquiry used to refine it, may to a degree be feasible for teacher educators (and school teachers) even in jurisdictions with a heavier emphasis on transmission teaching and standardized testing than we have in Canada. However, adopting such an approach to teaching and research requires forging a distinctive identity and learning how to negotiate the possible 'fallout', such as queries or even disapproval from colleagues and administrators and perhaps professional disadvantages. In my experience, however, the possible negatives are outweighed by the positives: a more fulfilling practice and a better relationship with one's students.

Implications of these conclusions for teacher education policy include the following. First, teacher educators should be supported in engaging in practice-based inquiry and adjusting their instruction accordingly, so they not only improve their practice but also model to their students a reflective, professional approach to teach-

ing. Second, teacher educators should be encouraged to discuss with their students, ways to resist current pressures to adopt largely cover-and-test pedagogy. And third, at higher policy levels, current transmission-oriented initiatives in teaching and teacher education should be opposed as they are bound to have a negative impact on teacher education, no matter how hard we try to resist them.

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Chapter 8
The Development of the Identity of Teacher Educators in the Changing Context of Teacher Education in the Netherlands

Anja Swennen and Monique Volman

Abstract The study presented in this chapter is about the development of the professional identity of Dutch primary teacher educators from different generations. The focus is on how teacher educators develop individually during their professional career and how this individual development relates to changes in their profession. Data were collected and analysed using a biographical research methodology. Analysis of the results shows how participants constructed their identity as teacher educators influenced by their personal history in relation to the (historical) context of teacher education.

8.1 Introduction

The focus of this article is on the identity of teacher educators in the changing context of primary teacher education in the Netherlands. Based on semi-structured life history interviews, we describe from the 'insider perspective' how the identity of teacher educators from different generations develops during the different stages of their careers, and we position their development within the changing context of teacher education. The development of teacher education over time has been described from various angles. For example, Maguire and Weiner (1994) told the story of women in teacher education, Popkewitz (1994) wrote about the history of professionalization in *teaching and teacher education*, and Bullough (2001) described how concepts of pedagogical content knowledge developed from 1907 onwards, while Labaree (2008) wrote about the history of teacher education in the university. Yet, few studies are available about those who work in teacher education

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and are supposed to implement the ongoing changes – the teacher educators (Cochran-Smith 2003; Murray and Kosnik 2013). Even less research is available about how these changes affect the professional identity of teacher educators (Murray et al. 2011; Swennen 2012). This study aims to address those omissions by contributing to our knowledge of how teacher educators develop their identity and how their identity changes as a result of the changing contexts of teacher education.

In the first section, we discuss the concept of professional identity as it has been applied to teacher educators. As this study relates the identity of teacher educators to the historical context, we also give a short overview of the history of primary teacher education in the Netherlands. This is important because teacher education is firmly rooted in the educational and cultural systems of countries and even regions (Snoek et al. 2011). Interestingly, in the history of teacher education in the Netherlands, as in other countries, the terms used to describe 'primary teacher education' and 'primary teacher educators' have changed several times. These changes were often the result of the introduction of important laws for education in general or teacher education in particular. Abbott (1988) states that a change of name often indicates aspirations of higher status for particular types of institution or professions; this is certainly true for primary teacher education. Following this historical overview, we then describe the changing identities of three teacher educators: Pete (born in 1927), Bob (born in 1952) and Hilde (born in 1958). Finally, we relate the individual professional development of each of these educators to developments in the larger context of teacher education.

8.2 The Professional Identity of Teacher Educators

The meaning of the concept of identity differs between – and even within – various disciplines (Beauchamp and Thomas 2009). Kelchtermans (2009) in his studies about the vulnerability of teachers uses the term 'self-understanding' rather than identity to emphasize the dynamic character of identity. However, from a sociocultural perspective, the identity of teacher educators is not limited to self-understanding; rather identity is a concept that 'combines the personal world with the collective space of cultural form and social relations' (Holland et al. 1998, p. 5). One such cultural space is teacher education. The identity of teacher educators can be understood then by looking at how they personally make sense of their professional experiences within the context of teacher education. The identity of teacher educators has a strong personal and retrospective element (Beijaard et al. 2004; Kelchtermans 1993). Teacher educators continuously construct and reconstruct their professional identity through their work as teacher educators and by reflecting on those experiences (Beijaard et al. 2000). This personal professional identity is then situated within the constantly changing contexts of education and teacher education. These are not only shaped by the present generation of teacher educators but also by previous generations and by other stakeholder groups who have influenced education,

including researchers and policy makers. On becoming teacher educators, individuals have to relate to existing traditions, customs and the written and unwritten rules of their new profession (Pennuel and Wertsch 1995).

An important characteristic of many teacher educators is that – at some point in their careers – they decided to leave primary or secondary education to work in teacher education. Thus in this study the participants move from one educational context – primary education – to another, primary teacher education. Klecka et al. (2009) suggest that a sense of past identity as a teacher – the teacher that the teacher educator once was – remains strong throughout the career of teacher educators. Teacher educators cherish their past identity as a teacher for several reasons. In the first place, they gain confidence from their former identity as teachers during the sometimes difficult early years as teacher educators (Van Velzen et al. 2010). It can also be a relief for teacher educators to experience that teaching student teachers is not so different from teaching students in schools (Kosnik 2007). Secondly, the previous experiences of teacher educators as teachers in primary or secondary schools make them credible in the eyes of the student teachers and mentors (Dinkelman et al. 2006).

However, the identity of the teacher is an identity that belongs to the professional past of teacher educators. Most authors investigating teacher educators emphasize that someone who is a good teacher is not necessarily a good teacher educator (Loughran 2006; Zeichner 2005). In other literature (Murray and Male 2005), the development of teacher to teacher educator is seen as a transition, in which a change of identity is also involved. The development of an identity as a teacher educator – and the acquisition of the skills that go with it – is a lengthy process (Dinkelman et al. 2006; Kosnik 2007) and often a difficult one (Zeichner 2005). The study of Murray and Male (2005) showed that the largest problems of teachers in England who become a teacher educator were developing their own pedagogy of teacher education and research skills. The process of acquiring an identity as a teacher educator was seen to take between 2 and 3 years.

From studies about teacher educators, we learn that the identity of teacher educators has several facets (Klecka et al. 2009) or sub-identities (Swennen et al. 2010). Whether a sub-identity is available in the context in which a particular teacher educator works depends largely on the demands set by national and local governments and specific teacher education institutes. Becoming a teacher educator currently includes developing facets of identity as a teacher in Higher Education (in this study referred to as a 'lecturer'), a researcher and a second-order practitioner (Murray and Male 2005; Swennen et al. 2010). Teaching in Higher Education means that teachers have to adapt to teaching different age groups: their students are now young adults or even mature students, who want to become teachers. Ex-school teachers also have to adapt to the greater freedom to organize their own work, including tasks that differ from traditional teaching (e.g. developing part of the curriculum or supervising teaching practice). Finally, ex-school teachers have to adapt to working in a larger and more complex organization, such as a university or higher education institutions (HEI) (Murray and Male 2005). Teacher educators who work in an academic (university) environment in the Netherlands have always been engaged in

research and publishing, but nowadays teacher educators in professional teacher education (in other types of HEIs) are supposed to be involved in research activities as well. The development of a research identity by school teachers is often regarded as quite a challenge (Murray et al. 2009). This is partly because teacher educators who previously worked in schools can be conceptualized as moving, in their work, from a 'first-order context of schools' (teachers teaching a subject to students) to a 'second-order context of teacher education' (teacher educators focusing on teaching teaching) (Murray and Male 2005). Successful teacher educators can be seen then as having made the transition from being first-order practitioners to being second-order practitioners; in other words, they developed an identity as teacher educator.

8.3 The Development of Teacher Education in the Netherlands

Three main periods are distinguished during the past 50 years of primary teacher education in the Netherlands, each marked by important laws for primary teacher education and a change of the name for primary teacher education (see Fig. 8.1) (Swennen 2012).

Before 1952 primary teacher education was regulated by the same laws as for primary school education. Those teaching in primary teacher education were called and called themselves 'onderwijzer', a name that means 'teacher in primary education'. In 1952 a law for the Teachers Colleges was introduced that positioned primary teacher education as a form of secondary education. By then the educators in the Teachers Colleges were called and called themselves 'leraar', a name that meant and means 'teacher in secondary education' – in this chapter we will use the word

Law	Name primary teacher education	Situated in education landscape	Name educators in primary teacher education
1952	Teachers College	Independent schools	Teacher (as in teacher for secondary education)
1968	Pedagogical Academy (Pedagogische Academie, in Dutch abbreviated to PA)	Higher (Vocational) Education; Independent schools	Lecturer (as in lecturer in Higher Education)
1984	Pedagogical Academy Primary Education, Pedagogische Academie Basisonderwijs in Dutch abbreviated to PABO	Higher Education; Part of Universities of Applied Science	Lecturer (as in lecturer in Higher Education) Teacher educator

Fig. 8.1 Overview of the development of primary teacher education in the Netherlands

'teacher' when we refer to the Dutch term 'leraar'. The change in terms indicated that the identity of the educators had shifted from primary teacher as a generalist who taught many subjects into that of subject specialist.

After teaching degrees for secondary education had been introduced in the second half of the nineteenth century, it became common for teachers in primary education to study for such a degree, and after 1952 a secondary teaching degree became mandatory for teachers in primary education. This strengthened the identity of these educators as teachers. It was quite common for primary teachers to study for a teaching degree for secondary education while working in primary education, as this gave them the opportunity to study and improve their social status. Teaching degrees were valued within education, but they had no academic status.

In 1968 a new law for primary teacher education was issued in the Netherlands, and the Teachers College changed their name into Pedagogische Academie (Pedagogical Academy, abbreviated to PA). The law of 1968 positioned teacher education for primary education within higher vocational education (a form of non-academic higher education), alongside technical and economical colleges. The PAs were, like the Teachers Colleges, relatively independent and still housed in their own buildings and own school heads.

The name PA reflected the two main aspirations of primary teacher education. In the Netherlands the term 'pedagogical' referred to the preparation of student teachers for their future work as teachers; this was seen as an important task of the PAs. 'Academy' referred to the scholarly ambition of the teacher education institutions. The professional preparation of student teachers was in the hands of the so-called pedagogy teachers, while the subject teachers were responsible for raising the level of student subject knowledge. Teaching methods that were seen as more suitable to higher vocational education, such as group work and projects, were introduced. It was a period of relative autonomy for teacher educators (Hargreaves 2000). Gradually, the name of the educators changed in documents and in daily use by lecturers and students from 'teacher' to 'docent'. 'Docent' is typically used in Dutch for a lecturer in Higher Education.

More radical changes occurred in the period from 1984 to the present. In 1984 another major law for primary teacher education was launched. The name of PA changed into Pedagogische Academie BasisOnderwijs (Pedagogical Academy Primary Education, in Dutch abbreviated to PABO – an abbreviation to be used herewith). From 1986 primary teacher education became part of large HEIs which resembled Hochschule in Germany or Hogskola in Sweden. As a result of this move into Higher Education, primary teacher educators became formally Higher Education lecturers. In policy documents and literature about teacher education increasingly the term 'teacher educators' was introduced. However, the name 'docent' was and is still used for all teachers in Higher Education and also used by students and teacher educators on a daily basis. As part of the large HEIs, the PABOs had to comply with the new educational missions and practices of these institutions, including competence-based, problem-based and practice-based educational methods.

From 1990 onwards teacher education in the Netherlands became increasingly school-based, with schools taking over part of the responsibilities of the teacher education institutions. The emphasis of the PABOs is now on the future work of teachers and schools; PABOs work together in partnerships with schools to support the learning of student teachers in schools. Teacher educators teach the pedagogy of school subjects, teaching methods or educational studies and supervise student teachers in partnership with primary schools; they are also increasingly involved in the development of the curriculum.

Initially HEIs were a form of non-academic higher education, but from 2000 onwards they increased their academic status and are now often referred to as Universities of Applied Sciences. As in some other countries, undertaking practice-based and applied research became part of the responsibilities of teacher educators within those HEIs. In 2005 the Education Council of the Netherlands, a prestigious body, published a document which attributed the low quality of teacher education, in part at least, to the lack of a thorough and explicit knowledge base of the subject knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge to be taught in teacher education. Teams of specialists were assembled to develop a so-called knowledge base for each subject in teacher education. This knowledge base consisted of subject knowledge, subject pedagogy knowledge and teaching methods which are characteristic of each subject or subject area (see also Swennen and Volman 2017).

8.4 Participants and Method

The teacher educators who took part in this study all worked as teachers in primary school education before shifting into positions in primary teacher education. The participants differ in age, subject area and the geographical location of the teacher education institute at which they worked (see Fig. 8.2).

In-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with the teacher educators and the resulting data used to construct five professional life stories (Connelly and Clandinin 1999). The professional life stories gave insight into four stages of the professional life of the participating teacher educators: the first stage is the

	Year of birth	Gender	Subject	Studied at:	Worked from	Worked at
Pete	1927	male	Dutch	Teachers College	1960 to 1984	Teachers College and PA
Bob	1950	male	History	Teachers College	1975 to 2007	PA and PABO
Hilde	1958	female	Dutch	Pedagogical Academy	From 1984	PABO and Teacher Education for Primary education

Fig. 8.2 Characteristics of the participating teacher educators. PA = Pedagogical Academy. PABO = Pedagogical Academy Primary Education (in Dutch: Pedagogische Academie BasisOnderwijs)

development of an identity as primary teacher (here the focus was on why teacher educators chose to study at a Teachers College to become a primary teacher); the second stage covers the preparation to become a teacher educator, including study for the teaching degree in secondary education; the third stage tells about the first years of work as a teacher educator; and the fourth stage covers the further development as a teacher educator. The interviews were audio recorded, and verbatim transcripts were made.

The transcripts were developed into life histories in three steps. First, discourse time (the order in which the events are told in the interview) was re-organized into narrative time (in this case the chronological order of the stories) (Connelly and Clandinin 1999). A second step was to reduce overlaps in each story. The third stage was translating the spoken language of the interviewee into a written form; here the wording of the participants was maintained as much as possible (Atkinson 1998). The process of writing the life histories greatly contributed to the understanding of the stories and was, as such, a form of analysis. The life histories were shared with the teacher educators for 'member checks', and changes were made in line with their comments. All participants agreed with the text of the final version of their life history.

However careful the analysis though, it cannot be denied that the writing of such professional life stories is largely an interpretative part of the research process (Wolcott 2008). This process of interpretation and writing of the professional life stories is influenced by the context in which the research takes place. That context is formed by the personal knowledge and experience of the researcher and the scientific, social and political developments in educational research and teacher education (Denzin and Lincoln 2005).

8.5 Life Stories

8.5.1 Pete: Dutch Teacher at a Teachers College

Pete (born in 1927) was the third of six children of a Catholic family in a large city. His parents were not poor, but they were unable to send him to higher secondary education or university. As he wanted to become a primary teacher, he went to the Normal School that was conveniently located in the same building as his primary school. While he was preparing to become a teacher, he dreamed about working in teacher education and studying languages. After he finished teacher education in 1946, Pete worked as a teacher at several primary schools and developed a strong identity as a primary teacher.

To fulfil his dream, Pete started a part-time study in English as a foreign language and Dutch as mother tongue for the secondary teaching degree that was a necessary qualification for teaching in higher secondary education or primary teacher education. The courses focused almost entirely on subject knowledge;

hardly any attention was given to subject pedagogy. Pete felt proud when, in 1960, his application as a Dutch teacher (mother tongue) at an, at that time, all-male Catholic Teachers College in the south of the Netherlands was accepted. He did not receive any support from the head of the Teachers College nor from his colleagues, during what we would now call his 'induction period', but then he never expected any such support. The transition from primary school teacher to teacher at the Teachers College was not a difficult one for Pete as he experienced feelings of continuation and accomplishment. To teach Dutch, he relied heavily on his own experience as a student at the Normal School and his experience as a primary teacher. He felt a great sense of continuity between his own education and his work at the Teachers College. The content of Dutch lessons at the Teachers College was largely determined by books and the national exams, and Pete found it his duty to prepare the student teachers for the exams. His teaching degree gave Pete the additional knowledge to teach some grammar, spelling, phonology, morphology, reading comprehension and essay writing. Pete was convinced that the topics he was teaching contributed to the expertise of primary teachers who had to teach children to read and write. As a rule, all teachers at the Teachers Colleges supervised student teachers, and Pete enjoyed visiting schools.

During the interview Pete said that it was important to him to be a model for his students in the sense that they could imitate him. He did not use terms such as 'teach as you preach' or modelling, as that vocabulary was not then available to him, but he told his students that they could use the same methods that he used to teach (e.g. writing essays).

By the time the Teachers College became a PA in 1968, subject pedagogy and preparation for the practice of teaching had become more important, and, gradually, Pete incorporated subject pedagogy into his teaching (e.g. children's literacy). He also developed an interest in second language learning as he was asked to teach immigrant primary school teachers. He learned about literacy and second language acquisition by reading journals in the teacher's room and books in the school's library. Pete did not undertake other professional development activities, such as a formal course, study day or workshop, as nobody ever asked him to do such things.

Pete held the view that was then accepted within the Teachers Colleges that teaching staff there had to be accomplished primary teachers in order to prepare student teachers, providing them with general knowledge and any theory they needed to pass the examination. To some degree, Pete developed an identity as a second-order teacher, as he wanted to be a model for his students, but he never called himself 'teacher educator'; in his time that term was only used in policy documents. He also, to some degree, developed an identity as a subject pedagogy teacher, but he never applied this term to himself. Looking back on his career, Pete called himself a Dutch language teacher at the Teachers College. During the interview he stressed that this was his dominant identity throughout his 24-year-long career until he retired in 1984.

8.5.2 *Bob: History Subject Teacher and Lecturer in Higher Education*

Bob's parents owned a small fruit farm in the north of the Netherlands, and his parents never envisaged sending their son to university. The only study option for Bob was to go to the nearby Protestant Pedagogical Academy (PA). He liked the PA, but not the study of 'pedagogy' to become a primary teacher, as he found this to be superficial and self-evident. He did enjoy the more 'academic' part of the course, including introductions to several school subjects. After he finished the PA, Bob worked for a few months as a primary teacher but, as he had, in his own words, 'a thirst for knowledge', he decided to study for a secondary teaching degree in History. While he studied he took on work in primary education to pay for his study and living costs. As in Pete's time, the secondary teaching degree focused almost entirely on subject content, but Bob did not mind as his main interest was in studying History as a subject, rather than the Pedagogy.

Bob did not choose explicitly to become a teacher educator – he applied for jobs in secondary education as well – but enjoyed his first years of working at the PA. Just like Pete, Bob did not receive any formal support from the head of the PA or from his colleagues during his 'induction period', but he, too, never expected any. The transition from teacher to teacher educator was quite demanding for him, and he remembers working very hard to prepare the contents of the history lessons.

After several years of working as a history teacher, Bob became the head of the PA. However, after the PA moved into the HEI, he no longer was the head of the PA or the new PABO, but just one of the middle managers within the larger institution. After an incident in which he was outranked by senior management, Bob decided to become a history teacher at the PABO again. His preference was still to teach history as a subject, although he did supervise student teachers as part of his job and liked that. Bob was involved in professional development activities when he was the head of the PA, but as a teacher educator.

Bob was very clear during the interview that he identified with being a subject teacher in History. He accepted the view about teacher education that teachers have to be knowledgeable about their subject before teaching it. He also identified with being a lecturer at the HEI. This agreed with his identity as subject teacher, as lecturers in HEIs were regarded subject specialists. He was a member of the association of history teachers with a branch for teacher education, and he visited their study days and conferences. He felt obliged to participate in study days at the HEI about competence-based education or student-centred education, but he disliked these educational views as they were related to general learning and future professional development, rather than to a thorough knowledge of the subject. He was convinced that such emphases do not contribute to the education of good teachers. For the same reason he, in his own words, 'despised' the term 'teacher educator' as it was too general for him. He accepted the initiatives to make teacher education more practice-based, but he was convinced that thorough subject knowledge is the basis for becoming a good teacher in primary education.

8.5.3 Hilde: Teacher Education and Language Pedagogy Expert

Hilde grew up with her mother who was a piano teacher. She went to preuniversity education, the highest form of secondary education in the Netherlands. After finishing secondary education, she felt insecure about going to university and opted for the – in her eyes – safer choice of becoming primary school teacher. Her mother told her she was a 'real teacher', and Hilde felt that teaching was a good job for a girl.

In 1976 Hilde started studying on a 4-year programme at the Protestant PA situated in a big city near her home town. Although the curriculum had changed and the theory of pedagogical content knowledge was more important, there was still little attention to the practice of teaching in teacher education at the time. Consequently, Hilde felt ill prepared to work as a teacher and struggled in her first years of working as a primary teacher. She did not identify much with primary teachers, or with her teacher educators as professionals, but she was a good pianist and played in a small orchestra with some of these educators and therefore come to know some of them well. After a few years of working in primary education, Hilde decided to study Dutch for a secondary teaching degree. Although the emphasis in teacher education at this time was still on subject content (compared to the time when Pete took his teaching degree in Dutch), attention for subject pedagogy had increased. Hilde felt she had some very good subject pedagogy teachers who, in her own words, were 'teaching as they preached'.

In 1984, the first year of the new PABO – and the year Pete retired – Hilde started working as a teacher educator at the same institute where she had previously studied. She started working part-time by teaching a course in Children's Literature, a new subject at the PABO. From there, she gradually made the move from primary teacher to full-time teacher educator. Hilde was disappointed when she started working at the PABO as her colleagues were still teaching the same content as she had experienced in her own study. Hilde went on to reject this theoretical approach to subject pedagogy that she had experienced as a student and as a beginning teacher educator; rather she tried to change the pedagogy of language teaching in teacher education. She identified with being a subject pedagogy teacher educator and tried to teach pedagogy of language education (both as a mother tongue and as a second language) in a way that was useful for her student teachers' practice. When her PABO received a large grant from the government, Hilde – much to her own excitement – became involved in designing a new curriculum for Dutch, including emphases on ICT, and large practice-based assignments with more relevance to the work of primary teachers. Together with her colleagues, she developed an up-to-date curriculum for mother tongue education in which they tried to model their own theory. As all teacher educators at the PABO, Hilde supervised students' school practice. She enjoyed this, but preferred to collaborate with schools on language projects.

At the time of the interview, Hilde was actively involved in an association for Dutch teacher educators and undertook a range of professional development activities including visiting conferences and taking courses. When, after 2000, research

became important at the PABO, Hilde undertook some personal research and published the results within the PABO and on the Internet. Hilde did not call herself a researcher, but 'doing research' was an important and interesting aspect of her work as a teacher educator. While Hilde engaged in a diversity of professional activities as a teacher educator, they were entirely through her own initiative. Her professional development was sometimes supported – but never initiated – by her managers.

Hilde called herself a 'teacher educator' and in the interview used expressions like 'teach as you preach' and 'modelling'. She also called herself a language pedagogy specialist. She was happy when, after 2005, there was more attention focus on subject pedagogy knowledge in pre-service work, and she felt she was then recognized as both a teacher educator and a language specialist.

8.6 Developing an Identity as Teacher Educator Within the Historical Context

The aim of this study was to understand how the identity of teacher educators developed within the changing contexts of teacher education in the Netherlands. The professional life stories show that teacher educators developed unique professional identities that comprised several interrelated aspects. Their identities resulted from a complex interplay between their personal biographies, the historical contexts of teacher education and the specific situations in the institutes in which they worked.

The choice of the three teacher educators in this study to become primary teachers and teacher educators was partly motivated by the opportunities and constraints in the social contexts in which they grew up and the financial resources of their parents. Their choice was also based on their aspirations and expectations for the future, as primary teacher education made it possible for them to study for a secondary teaching degree. They had restricted possibilities to choose other studies, but entering primary teacher education opened their routes to becoming teachers and then teacher educators, the latter as an accidental career choice (Mayer et al. 2011). This may also be one of the reasons why their identities as primary teacher were not very strong for any of these three teacher educators. They chose to become primary teachers in part to pursue further ambitions, such as learning a foreign language or studying at the university, as the overview of the professional identity of the three teacher educators in Fig. 8.3 below shows.

After working in primary teaching for some time, they started to study for their educational degrees, with the aim of finding work outside primary teaching. Through further long periods of study, they received the necessary degrees to work as teacher educators; this study strengthened their identities as subject specialists, a factor particularly notable in Bob's life history.

However different their motivations to work as teacher educators, all three had to make the transition from teacher to teacher educator. They had to get used to working with older students, teaching a single subject and supervising student teachers.

	Pete	Bob	Hilde
Primary teacher	X	–	x
Subject specialist	X	X	x
Supervisor school practice	X	x	x
Subject pedagogy specialist	X	x	X
Second order educator	X	–	X
Lecturer in HE	–	X	x
Researcher	–	–	x

Fig. 8.3 Overview of teacher educator identity aspects in this study. – non or almost non-existing, x average, X strong

As none of them had any formal education as a teacher educator, they had to rely on their experiences as student teachers and primary school teachers when they learned about teaching as a teacher educator. They also relied on the subject knowledge acquired during their studies for their teaching degrees in secondary education. This special form of 'learning by apprenticeship' (Lortie 2002) and the complicated relationships between their own teacher preparation and their identity as teacher educators was only a minor focus of this study, but is worth investigating further in future research.

These teacher educators received no formal professional development support during their first years of working in teacher education. They were, as so many teacher educators still are, dependent for their learning on the micro-communities – the small communities of colleagues formed within departments, subject teams and project groups (Murray 2008). This may have been one of the reasons why the professional identities that were constructed before they started to work as teacher educators remained strong throughout their careers. Yet, in spite of this lack of formal induction, Pete – and more so Hilde – developed an identity as second-order educator (Murray 2002).

One difference between them that influenced their sense of selves as teacher educators was the availability of a professional language to talk about their professional identities. Pete could only say that he showed his students how to read aloud or how to give instructions, while Hilde could talk about modelling and the 'teach as you preach' principle. The availability of such a professional vocabulary or language is related to the development of a body of pedagogical knowledge for Dutch teacher educators. This knowledge was not available for Bob and Pete, but Hilde had the opportunity to develop her skills in subject pedagogy through professional development activities later in her career.

After the first few years, the participants became experienced teacher educators and – each in their own way – were given or took upon themselves new tasks that were defined by the changes in the context of teacher education; these included second language education, curriculum development and ICT. These new tasks were the driver for the professional development activities they undertook on their own initiatives. The new tasks – and the subsequent new knowledge and skills they gained through them – strengthened their existing identities or led to the reconstruction of former identities (Beijaard et al. 2004). This meant that Pete and Bob, to

some degree, developed an identity as subject pedagogy specialist, while Hilde strengthened this aspect of her identity.

The work of teacher educators has become more complex over the last few years, with the pedagogy of teacher education (Loughran 2006; Murray and Male 2005) and research (Murray and Kosnik 2013) now being regarded as important aspects of the work of teacher educators. The stories of the three teacher educators reflect this increased complexity and also the increased availability of terms to identify and discuss this complexity and to make it an explicit part of their identities. Pete just saw himself as a teacher of Dutch at the Teachers College; Bob had a strong belief in the importance of subject knowledge and developed an additional identity as lecturer in higher education; only Hilde saw herself as a second-order educator *and* subject pedagogy specialist *and* a researcher into her personal practice. These formulations of personal identities can only be understood by taking into account the availability of such identities in teacher education in the Netherlands. For Hilde, her multiple identities gave opportunities to broaden and deepen her work and to take up tasks such as curriculum development and practice-based research.

Research into identity is an emerging theme in educational studies, and the study presented in this chapter reflects this trend. Dutch teacher educators may recognize aspects of their own professional lives in the stories presented here and may gain insights into their own professional lives. More generally, this chapter aims to show how the development of the profession of teacher education and the evolution of personal professional identities are intertwined. More research is needed into the identity of teacher educators in other historical periods and in other places, as this may help researchers and teacher educators to understand who they are and how they, as individuals and as a professional group, contribute to the education of teachers for future generations.

However, as becomes evident from this chapter, policies also have to change. Policymakers have to take into consideration that they are not the ones who adapt these ideas and ideals into practice, as that is done by the teacher educators. Policymakers have to realize that the changes they make on paper have far-fetching influence on the work of teacher educators and on the identity of teacher educators. It is therefore important that support and professional development specifically for teacher educators are part of policy changes for teacher education.

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Chapter 9
Teaching About Teaching: Teacher Educators' and Student Teachers' Perspectives from Norway

Marit Ulvik and Kari Smith

Abstract In this chapter we address the question of how to prepare student teachers for professionalism in teaching. We especially focus on higher education-based teacher educators and their role in promoting integration between theory and practice, which is frequently perceived as a challenge in teacher education (Korthagen F, J Educ Teach 36(4):407–423, 2010; Kvernbekk T, Informal Logic 32(3):288–305, 2012). The chapter draws on a study, in a Norwegian context, that investigated teacher educators' competence as seen from their own and student teachers' perspectives (Ulvik M, Smith K, Uniped 39(1):61–77, 2016). Competence is here understood as the knowledge and skills that teacher educators need to do their job.

9.1 Introduction

As a report from the OECD (2005) states, teachers matter! The importance of teachers and the quality of their work are things on which the public, teachers, researchers and policymakers share the same views. Good teachers are widely believed to have a positive effect on their students' learning and achievement, whereas bad teachers usually have the opposite effect. When students' achievements do not meet the expectations of educational stakeholders, teachers are held to blame – and so too is the teacher education system which has not produced 'good enough' teachers. One of the solutions for improving the school system therefore becomes to reform teacher education, often in technical ways, such as revising the curriculum, enhancing practical preparation for the practicum, lengthening programmes or making provision more academic and research based. However, the real issues to be discussed are as follows: what is a 'good teacher'? How can teacher education prepare for

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high-quality professional practice in teaching which enhances student learning? What does this require of teacher educators, and, in particular, what knowledge do they need to be able to educate 'good teachers'? There seems to be little agreement among stakeholders and practitioners on these issues.

In this chapter we will address a common criticism of teacher education, namely, the notorious gap between practice teaching (knowing how) and university coursework (knowing that) (Korthagen 2010; Wilson 2006). Acting professionally, teachers need to draw on knowledge from both fields (Smith and Ulvik 2010). They are constantly faced with new and unexpected situations and have to assess various solutions, prioritise and make their own decisions depending on the context in which they work. Independent decision-making, informed by practical and theoretical knowledge, as well as experience, is what makes teaching a profession. There is no right answer to the many not-planned-for situations that a teacher has to handle daily. It is therefore not sufficient to focus on predefined skills in teacher education; rather student teachers need to be supported to seek informed alternative solutions when they encounter challenges. As we see it, such professionalism in teaching requires the confidence to make independent decisions; it also means being able to explain and critically reflect on the decisions made. The main question raised in the current chapter is 'what is required of teacher educators to be able to promote that kind of professionalism in teacher education'? This question is discussed with reference to a Norwegian study. We focus here on higher education-based teacher educators, employed in teacher education at either universities or university colleges and teaching pedagogy (general didactics/educational theory) or subject didactics. This does not mean that we ignore the central role school-based teacher educators play in preparing a new generation of teachers.

In Norway there have traditionally been two different routes to become a teacher. University colleges have offered a four-year teacher education programme for primary and lower secondary schools (level 1–10, that is aged 6–16 years). Since 2010 this provision has been divided into two programmes, level 1–7 and 5–10. The universities have traditionally offered a 1-year postgraduate teacher education programme for secondary schools. Since 2004 they have also offered a five-year integrated teacher education programme that leads to a master's degree in a school subject (for teachers of levels 8–13, aged 13–19 years). This is still the main model, but the situation today is a little more complex, due to the fact that some university colleges have become universities. In addition, the new National Curriculums for schools and teacher education have been implemented with more similarity among the different programmes, but at the institutional level, they are kept totally separated. The emphases in the new teacher education programmes are on increased subject knowledge and teaching skills and the overall quality of teaching. There is also a greater emphasis on research. The programmes are expected by policy documents (see, e.g. Kunnskapsdepartementet 2013) to connect theory and practice by integrating coursework at the higher education institution with the students' field-based learning in schools and vice versa. In this way the two arenas for learning are viewed as equally important in the process of learning to become a teacher.

But, even if it is a prescribed aim to connect practice and theory, teacher education in Norway has been criticised for being fragmented and for not preparing student teachers for the challenges they encounter in schools. What happens on campus and in fieldwork in schools are often perceived as two different cultures and representing different understandings of the profession (NOKUT 2006; Finne et al. 2014). The Norwegian government's White Paper 11 (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2009) addresses such challenges in teacher education and argues that teacher education should reinforce the quality of teaching practice and the relationship between the different parts of the programme. In Norway these consist of four main components – pedagogy, discipline studies, subject didactics and practice. Furthermore, teacher education programmes are research-based and development-oriented. In taking these approaches, the programmes also contribute to school development and to research on teaching, teachers and the school system as a whole. Enhancing the quality of teacher education is one of the government's means to improve Norway's ranking on international tests, for example, the well-known Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). To improve teacher education in Norway, a reform was implemented in 2010 for levels 1–10 and in 2014 for levels 8–13. Another new reform will be implemented by 2017 when a 5-year teacher education at master's level will be introduced for all teacher education programmes.

9.2 Background

9.2.1 Teacher Educators

The term 'teacher educator' is vague; in some countries (e.g. Japan), the term is new as all academics involved in educating teachers were previously defined only in relation to their subject discipline. In other countries (e.g. England), the term 'teacher trainer' is commonly used when referring to teacher educators. In Norway, when typing the Norwegian word for teacher educators, 'lærerutdanner', the spell checker would mark it as a mistake. The blurred definition and understanding of the name of the teacher educator 'profession' make it less valued, and there is certainly a need to clarify what the profession should be, expected to know and be able to do (European Commission 2013; Smith 2009).

Across Europe then there is no shared understanding of the role of teacher educators and the competences and qualifications needed for teaching about teaching, and there is little agreement about whether teacher educators should have a teaching qualification and school teaching experience or if they should hold a PhD before working in higher education (Lunenberg and Hamilton 2008).

Different understandings of teacher educators mirror differences in views about how to educate teachers. The literature (Harrison et al. 2006) differentiates between two main approaches: a training approach in which student teachers achieve explicit standards and a more learning-centred, broadly educative approach. The first view

emphasises measurable standards for teaching, teacher education becomes teacher training, and a good teacher is someone who masters certain technical skills (Stephens et al. 2004). The second view is a more educative model based on scholarship and disciplinary knowledge. A good teacher is viewed as a professional who makes independent decisions grounded in a high level of reflection. Norwegian teacher education might be placed in this category because of its emphasis on theory (ibid).

The background of teacher educators differs from one country to another. In countries like England and the Netherlands, teacher educators have often been competent school teachers (Murray et al. 2011; Koster et al. 2005). In teacher education they encounter demands about conducting research and may feel insecure when it comes to meeting academic expectations around research (Murray et al. 2011). In Finland, the USA and, increasingly, in Norway, the way to get a permanent position in teacher education is by having a doctorate (Elstad 2010; Tryggvason 2012), as it is research and publications that are recognised in universities. Other qualities, such as teaching qualifications and experience, often become of secondary importance.

Research clearly identifies that teacher educators' expertise is different from teachers' expertise (Bullough 2005; Smith 2005). The parties may be referred to as first and second order practitioners, following Murray (2002). The job of educating teachers also differs from other positions in higher education. By teaching about teaching, teacher educators model the pedagogical skills and values of the teaching profession; how they teach and the processes they initiate become part of the message (Loughran and Berry 2005). It is important then to align personal practice to the practice the teacher educator wants to encourage in their student teachers and to provide a meta-commentary by explaining underlying pedagogical and philosophical choices and linking those choices to relevant theory (Ruys et al. 2013). Implicit modelling is seldom understood by student teachers (ibid.; Lunenberg et al. 2007). Several studies, however, state that teacher educators do not connect their own practice to theoretical conceptions but rather to personal experience, implicit theories and common sense (Ruys et al. 2013). It can then be hard for student teachers to be aware of the relationships between theoretical perspectives and practice teaching.

In England studies have found that all teacher educators are recruited, in part, because of their school teaching experience and many continue to perceive part of their identity as 'once a teacher, always a teacher' (Murray et al. 2011), even after years working in universities. In contrast, many teacher educators in Norwegian universities have no experience as school teachers. This can be a challenge when teacher educators are employed according to academic criteria only and student teachers ask for practical ideas about how to master teaching roles (Elstad 2010).

A recent report in Norway found that student teachers value fieldwork higher than campus courses and criticise teacher educators' teaching competencies (Finne et al. 2014). As indicated above, student teachers do not see a clear connection between fieldwork and the teaching that takes place on campus. They suggest, among other things, that teacher educators' knowledge about what is going on in schools should be brought up to date. Basically, there seems to be a gap between student teachers' expectations and what teacher education offers (Lid 2013). Whilst

Norwegian student teachers are mainly concerned with how to teach, teacher educators are more likely to want to emphasise the reasoning and ethical and political considerations that underpin practice (Fosse and Hovdenak 2014).

Even though there has been a recent emphasis on making teacher education more relevant for the practice field, Norwegian teacher education still aims to develop research-based knowledge, and there is a pressure on schools to implement research-informed practice. The current policy, referred to earlier, to implement a five-year master's degree for all teacher education programmes means that teacher educators will have to be research competent at a doctoral level since master's programmes in Norway are research focused and to graduate students have to submit a research project. Inherently then, all student teachers need to be supervised in their research by a teacher educator with a degree higher than the level they study for. There is a heavy pressure, if not panic, about how to prepare teacher educators without doctorates for these not-too-distant requirements. Overall then, teacher educators are increasingly expected to adapt to the research culture of the university, whilst still maintaining a sense of proximity to the practice field (Elstad 2010).

9.2.2 Theory and Practice

Professions draw on knowledge from different fields. Kvernbekk (2012) claims that all professions have a theory-practice problem. In teacher education the relationship between the two is sometimes described as a 'gap' that needs to be overcome, and it is argued that practice and theory should be brought into alignment. However, the notion of such coherence in teacher education has also been problematised. Some researchers, for example, claim that practice and theory derive from different epistemologies and understandings; both should be part of a teacher's competence, and the two should challenge each other (Christensen et al. 2013; Heggen and Smeby 2012). Thus, whilst efforts to link practice and theory are necessary, the two elements do not have to appear as a harmonic unit. Kvernbekk (2012), for example, finds that some gap is useful because it leaves theory with a critical, independent role in relation to practice. She problematises the view that practice does not need theory and that theory is theoretical and practice is theory-free; rather she argues that practice is fundamentally theory-laden. Kvernbekk differentiates between what she calls 'weak' and 'strong' theory. Theory in a weak sense comes in the form of preconceptions, prior beliefs, prejudices and so on that are shaping and guiding personal practice theory. Strong theory should provide other ways of understanding practice, alternative explanations and critical views. In order to criticise practice, strong theory should keep a distance from practice (ibid.). Such differences might also create new connections (Christensen et al. 2013).

Biesta et al. (2015) support the idea that teachers need access to the wider perspectives found in theory in order to evaluate their teaching. An important finding in this study from Scotland was 'the absence of a robust professional discourse about teaching and education more generally' (p.638). Rather teachers' beliefs were ori-

ented towards the here-and-now and influenced by current and recent policy. These researchers argue that teacher education needs to address the wider purposes and meaning of schooling, not be only geared towards the instrumental side of teaching.

9.3 The Study

9.3.1 Methods

The study reported here has 'grown on' from a larger project in England (see Murray et al. 2011). This particular study in Norway investigated teacher educators' competence as seen from both student teachers' and teacher educators' perspectives. The data was gathered through interviews with 20 teacher educators from 5 higher education institutions, a questionnaire, which was sent to 120 student teachers and 4 focus group interviews with 4 cohorts of the students. The majority of informants came from the universities' teacher education programmes for levels 8–13, which means they were studying either for a 5-year integrated master programme or a 1-year postgraduate programme. The informants were asked, among other things, how they defined teacher educators, what experiences they thought were crucial for them and which skills and attributes they valued in them. The student questionnaire consisted of a series of closed questions, using Likert scales (1–5), as well as opportunities for free-text responses to each question. The interviews with the teacher educators, as well as the focus groups with students, were based on a semi-structured interview guide, following up the questions in the questionnaire. The research instruments were translated from the English originals and adapted to the Norwegian context.

We followed strict ethical guidelines when collecting and analysing the data. The informants gave informed consent to participate and were told that their responses would be handled confidentially. Furthermore, the project was approved by the Norwegian Social Science Data Services, which in Norway is mandatory to get permission to gather personal data. Being teacher educators ourselves, we chose not to include our own students in the study. Furthermore, we interviewed teacher educators we could meet in person – some we knew, others we did not. In order to get multiple perspectives, we strived for a maximal variation sampling.

The quantitative data collected from students were analysed using SPSS; the qualitative data were analysed using an interpretative approach (Hatch 2002). For the purpose of this chapter, we address the main findings in the project that are relevant to the practice/theory perspective (for further details see Ulvik and Smith 2016).

9.3.2 Perspectives from the Teacher Educators

The vast majority of the teacher educators in our sample held a doctorate; about half of them did not have a teaching certificate and school experiences. Some saw themselves first and foremost as researchers, others as teachers and as teacher *educators*, not as *trainers*. One of them explained: 'Teacher trainer is a concept I know of, but I do not like it because I do not train people. It sounds a little like training dogs'. Those with both school experience and a doctorate seemed to feel confident in their jobs, and they were proud of working in teacher education. Others felt that being a teacher educator at the university had low status. Regardless of background, all felt that their level of competence was relevant to their work. 'I think it's important that students meet people with different kind of experiences', one of them said.

Whilst some teacher educators found that experiences of teaching were crucial and pointed at the importance of tacit knowledge developed through practice, others underlined that experience alone is not enough. Reflection, it was stated, needs input from more than personal experiences in order to achieve greater depth. But school experiences were seen as offering teacher educators legitimacy with student teachers and the practice field. As a consequence, some without such experience felt that their competence did not live up to the expectations of others, even if they felt qualified themselves. One such teacher educator said:

I've thought a lot about it, but I've to say that what's important is being close to the practice field. You cannot expect people both to have a full time job at the university and to have recent school experiences.

The quote expresses the tension in covering demands from two fields. Even if teacher educators found school experiences beneficial, many pointed out that lack of direct teaching experience might be compensated for by knowing what goes on in schools. One suggestion that some teacher educators made was that teaching experience should be considered as part of the competence possessed across a group of teacher educators rather than necessarily being seen as only an individual attribute.

Research was recognised as very important. It created a wider theoretical understanding which underpinned different practices and made teacher educators able to support student teachers in their research projects. One explained:

What is valuable is research that can offer student teachers categories and ideas and tools they need to think about and value in their own practice. I do not believe in research that offers good recipes and best practice. I believe in research that generates theory and concepts that help us to think.

However, teacher educators had several examples of colleagues who were not researchers and who still were good teacher educators. What was seen as important here was for the educator to understand research and be able to use it. Overall, to be connected to research in some way was regarded as essential for all teacher educators. And from the teacher educators' perspectives, it was not enough for students to have 'technical survival kits' in preparing for professionalism in teaching. Student

teachers were seen as needing theoretical knowledge to appreciate the breadth of teaching roles and be able to reflect on their practice.

9.3.3 Perspectives from the Student Teachers

When looking at the data collected from student teachers, we found a general awareness that being a teacher educator implied engagement in both teaching and research. In general, the student teachers wanted to downgrade the theoretical perspectives in their education and upgrade the practical elements. For example, they wanted to learn how to manage the classroom more than to gain theoretical or background knowledge about classroom management. They understood that research is important at the university but asked particularly for access to classroom-relevant research. Few reported positive experiences with research they saw as relevant or informative. Some students also showed a degree of scepticism about *any* research, finding it more relevant for experienced teachers. Whilst some said that they were not introduced to much research during their education, others claimed that teacher educators sometimes promoted their own research even if it was not relevant.

The table below shows how important student teachers find experiences from school teaching and from research on a scale from 1–5 (Fig. 9.1):

The data here shows that school experience is ranked far above research experience as an attribute for teacher educators. But, whilst the data from the questionnaire showed that student teachers want teacher educators with personal school teaching experiences, the focus groups provided further nuances on this general picture. What was underlined there was that the students thought that at least one teacher educator in the staff ought to have school experiences. Furthermore, some students agreed that lack of school experience might be compensated for by teacher

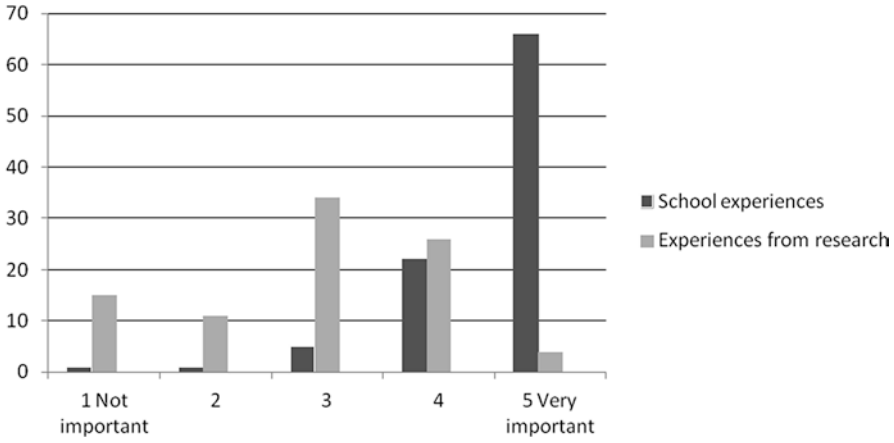

Fig. 9.1 Importance of school teaching and research. (Translated from Ulvik and Smith 2016)

educators' engagement in relevant research. One of the student teachers underlined the meaning of theoretical knowledge by saying that one always has to build teaching *on* something. Another appreciated research-based knowledge but found that the results of research are sometimes contradicted in schools. Overall, though, the various views expressed a perceived lack of continuity and coherence between the practice field and the university.

The students expected teacher educators to make visible the relevance of theory to practice or to illustrate theory with practical examples. One of the student teachers said that postgraduate students know much theory but they need help with practical skills and knowing how to link practice and theory. Student teachers also expected to find exemplary practice demonstrated in teacher education. Sometimes they reported experiencing a discrepancy between what teacher educators said and what they did, that is, from student perspectives, the educators did not always practice what they preached. However, student teachers seemed to understand that it was difficult for teacher educators to meet all their demands. The personal attributes of teacher educators played a crucial role in their work, and according to some students, the personality of the teacher educator might compensate for limited school experience. Some student teachers also mentioned teacher educators who had proximity to the practice field, were good teachers in higher education and were good at analysing practice teaching, even though they lacked personal teaching experience.

In the questionnaire the student teachers (n = 120) were also asked about how important it is for teacher educators to provide practical tips and to promote critical thinking. As Fig. 9.2 shows, here student teachers expected teacher educators to do both.

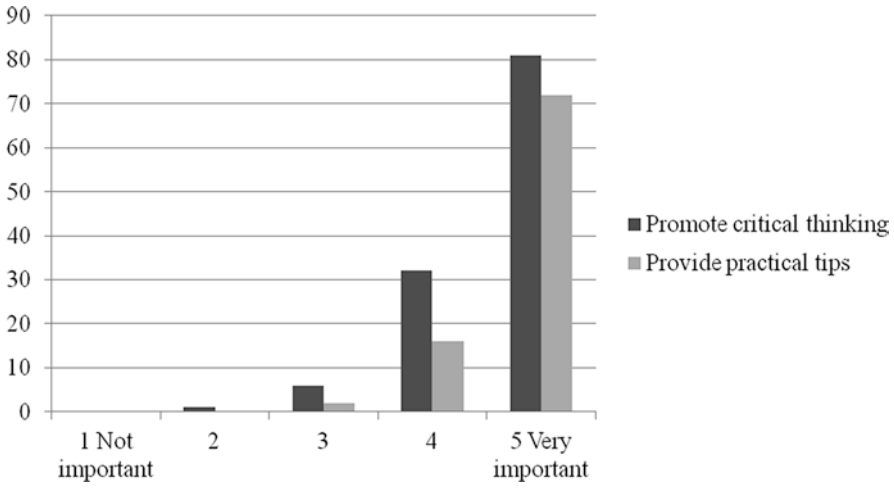

Fig. 9.2 Importance of practical tips and promoting critical thinking. (Translated from Ulvik and Smith 2016)

9.4 Discussion

In preparing students to become professional teachers who can make independent decisions and explain and critically reflect on the decisions they make, teacher educators need to connect practice and theory and to develop strong interactions between the two. It is the integration of practical skills (techne) and abstract understanding (episteme) that together with experience creates practical wisdom (pronesis) (Eisner 2002; Korthagen et al. 2006). Practical wisdom is crucial when dealing with the unexpected, and in teaching one will never stop asking: 'What am I going to do next'? Teachers need an abstract understanding of their experience that gives it 'transfer' value, from situation to situation. Relating their understanding to theory can expand the transfer value of their experiences, accompanied by an awareness to constantly search for informed alternatives; through an increased conceptual knowledge, the understanding of the situation can develop (Smith and Ulvik 2010). Reducing teachers' professional knowledge and wisdom to a checklist of behaviours reflecting imposed standards will not lead to development (Rodgers and Raider-Roth 2006). Teacher education is today seen as the start of a career-long education, with the drive and motivation for professional learning and development starting in pre-service programmes.

Whilst the teacher educators in our study experienced tensions between teaching and research, the student teachers, as in other studies (see, e.g. Murray et al., in this volume), wanted pre-service education to help them manage the classroom and therefore prioritised the importance of teacher educators having practical experiences (Fosse and Hovdenak 2014). The student teachers seemed to perceive the practice field as something they were supposed to master, more than an arena for learning where they could engage in critical reflections. Their responses to the questionnaire indicate that they were oriented towards the here and now and saw teaching in the main as a practical job that had little relationship to theoretical knowledge. This picture was, however, not as simple as it seemed. The student teachers also expected teacher educators to engage in dialogues about teaching and to promote critical thinking. Yet it may be argued that these are not meaningful activities if there are perceived there were fixed answers to every teaching situation.

Biesta et al. (2015) suggest that teacher education should present different educational discourses to provide students with a superior view on education. The teacher educators in our study had similar perspectives. The extent to which student teachers can and will appreciate a meta-perspective in a phase of teacher education where they are struggling to develop teaching skills, might be questioned. However, we regard a meta-perspective on education as a vital component in pre-service teacher education to be followed up in further professional development.

The attributes identified by teacher educators and student teachers to different kinds of knowledge and experiences depend on their perceptions of the teaching profession and on the interactions they perceive between theory and practice. As in other studies, cited above, we found discrepancies between student teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions. Both parties regarded school experiences as

important for teacher educators. However, in the study reported here, school experiences could, to a certain extent, be compensated for by other experiences, attributes and skills. What seemed to be important is that teacher educators were familiar with the school as an arena of learning for student teachers. University-based teacher educators said they experienced a closer relationship to the practice field than student teachers thought they had; this finding is supported by a recent Norwegian report (Finne et al. 2014). Criticisms were also raised against teacher educators with outdated school experiences as students stated that schools have changed and the pupils of today are different from previous generations. The student teachers clearly stated that a few visits by teacher educators during the practicum were not enough to establish a close relationship to the practice field; rather university-based teacher educators need to spend more sustained time in schools.

Most Norwegian teacher educators regarded research as a very important part of their job. This positive emphasis is different from the defensive stance of research engagement as 'keeping the wolf from the door', as found in Ellis et al.'s 2014 study in England (p 39) and the often ambiguous attitudes found in Murray et al.'s work (2011). However, even in Norway, research often seems to play a vague role in teacher education, and the greatest difference between the teacher educators' and the student teachers' responses was related to the usefulness of research. The findings suggest that the students had limited experiences with what they saw as relevant research, whilst teacher educators saw a great deal of research as relevant and beneficial for students.

Action research or enquiry-based learning during teacher education are both ways to create a closer connection between practice and theory and to make student teachers see themselves as actors, changing their perceptions of the immediate and wider practice field (Smith and Sela 2005; Ulvik 2014). The current study, supported by other studies, suggests that teacher educators do not make it sufficiently clear to the student teachers how research and theoretical perspectives might contribute to developing a critical view of the practice field (Fosse and Hovdenak 2014; Lid 2013). However, this might change as we in Norway see an increasing emphasis on research and development activities in schools involving both teacher educators and teachers.

Teacher education builds on different fields of knowledge, and it is, perhaps, unrealistic to expect every individual teacher educator to cover all fields in the profession. One solution is therefore to regard teacher educators as a team in which individual types of expertise complete each other. There would then be a need for extensive cooperation between the different stakeholders in teacher education, real partnerships which go beyond rhetoric (Smith 2015). To utilise different competences like this does not seem to be happening in Norway today where teacher education is criticised for being even more fragmented and less coherent than some years back (Finne et al. 2014; Lid 2013).

The importance of teacher educators acting as role models is underlined in the research literature (EU 2013; Loughran and Berry 2005). It is rightly expected that teaching in teacher education should be of high quality. Teacher educators' teaching provides them with the opportunity to model how practice and theory are connected.

The student teachers in this study did not experience that teacher educators always practised what they preached, yet connecting practice and theory is usually seen as a competence which teacher educators should have, as part of their pedagogy (Loughran 2006).

If teacher educators are expected to act as role models, their high-level teaching skills should be part of recruitment criteria, and all teacher educators need to be conscious of this responsibility (Ruys et al. 2013). This implies critical reflection and theorising of their own teaching, something that other research also shows is not always the case (Lunenberg et al. 2007). In Norway, two recent reports (Finne et al. 2014) show that student teachers are dissatisfied with teacher educators' teaching competence. We suggest developing communities of practice as a recommended way to develop teacher educators' teaching practice and their ability to theorise personal pedagogies.

Whilst the student teachers emphasised teacher educators' teaching skills and personal attributes, these qualifications play a minor role in recruitment criteria where academic qualifications are prioritised. The lack of expertise teacher educators have when starting working in higher education can, however, be developed through continuous professional learning. This is also important from the student teachers' perspectives. The aforementioned European Commission report (2013) suggests different ways for teacher educators to develop. One is good induction arrangements for teacher educators; another is to establish network among teacher educators. The Norwegian National Research School in Teacher Education (NAFOL) is also mentioned as an example of how to provide practising teacher educators with clear research identities and skills through doctoral study (EC 2013).

It is often said that teacher educators have to live with the tensions between theory and practice, but perhaps an alternative is to understand the role of teacher educator as a unique profession in which being an active researcher and a model teacher are both integral parts of the job.

9.5 Conclusion

To be a teacher educator and to contribute to educate professional teachers are different from being a school teacher or a discipline lecturer in a higher education institution. It is not enough to be a good teacher and to know the school or the discipline. Teacher educators should be research literate and able to talk about their own teaching drawing on relevant theoretical concepts. Neither a doctorate nor school teaching experience in itself is then sufficient for teacher educators. Furthermore, student teachers also want teacher educators who are skilful teachers with relevant personal attributes; they perceive that these things impact on the extent to which they as learners can benefit from the experiences and research of teacher educators.

Student teachers need to see the classroom and teaching in broader perspectives and to be able to evaluate current practice and act as independent, professional

teachers. Pre-service teacher education provides a foundation for later professional learning, and it is therefore our responsibility as teacher educators to offer an education that addresses all these needs and where practice and theory interact and challenge and develop each other. We suggest two ways to make this happen and to make research-based and theoretical perspectives relevant. One is to provide student teachers with insights into and active engagement in practice-oriented research. Student teachers should be encouraged to develop an inquiry-based approach to teaching and to be able to conduct their own research projects to improve their own and their colleagues' practice. By being research literate, they will be able to access, interpret and adapt research findings to their own settings (BERA 2014). Research literacy can also promote school improvement. Second, teacher educators should be able to talk about their own teaching using theoretical concepts and modelling how practice and theory are related.

To make teacher education a meeting place for practice and theory, we argue that teacher educators need to feel confident, explaining practice through theory and exemplifying theory in practice. For this to happen, it is essential they are close to the practice field and are research literate as consumers and producers of research. Furthermore, they need to practice what they preach and to expose student teachers to inquiry-oriented practice. Finally, it might be difficult for every teacher educator to be the multifaceted teacher educator (Smith 2011), so as suggested above, we recommend that teacher educators form communities of practice with complementary competences so that they can work and learn together. The optimal context, as we see it, is that such communities of practice include school-based as well as university-based teacher educators.

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Chapter 10
Who Is Teaching Me and What Do They Know? Student Teachers' Perceptions of Their Teacher Educators and Mentors

Jean Murray, Gerry Czerniawski, and Patti Barber

Abstract Using a survey and interviews, this chapter explores how 442 student teachers on pre-courses in England construct and value the identities and knowledge bases of those teaching them. Whilst there were some minor differences in responses across different groups, the general patterns were as follows: experiential knowledge of school teaching was highly valued capital in the eyes of student teachers, meaning that teacher educators who had recent teaching experience in the school sector and mentors working in practicum schools were seen as 'experts' in teaching. Other types of knowledge, particularly those gained through research or scholarship, were often overlooked or marginalised. Certain kinds of interpersonal skills and dispositions were highly valued in both mentors and teacher educators, particularly adopting an ethos of care and responsibility for student progression.

10.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on an interpretative study, exploring how student teachers on pre-service or initial teacher education (ITE) courses in England construct the identities and knowledge bases of the educators teaching them in higher education (HE) and/or in schools. This study was part of a larger research project, The Academic Tribes and their Territories (A3TE) originally funded by the Society of Educational Studies.

Much research on teacher educators and mentors prioritises these educators' view points (see Davey 2013; Mayer et al. 2011); very little of it analyses student perspectives. This study aims to show how student teachers perceive their teacher educators and mentors, in particular, what identities, forms of knowledge and attitudes they privilege and value during their ITE. This study therefore addresses an

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under-researched area in teacher education. We argue that this type of study matters because how students perceive their educators and their knowledge, experience and attributes affect their engagement as learners and what and how they learn in the complex process of becoming teachers.

The context for this research is the contested and politicised field of ITE; this field is ambiguous and ill-defined, often subject to changing influences from central government, schooling and HE. Because of these changes, there is also considerable flux and contestation in what counts as valued 'capital' in the field. Certainly, this field has been subjected to repeated interventions by central government and its agencies since 1984, as part of focuses on raising educational standards in schools. These interventions, together with the creation of regulatory structures, inspection regimes and quasi-governmental organisations to monitor ITE have changed all aspects of the field, making it more a practice-focused, school-led and fundamentally more instrumental enterprise (Murray and Mutton 2015).

As a result of these changes, ITE has moved away from the dominance of the higher education institutions (HEIs),[1] as seen in most of the twentieth century, and to schools as far more influential stakeholders. The term 'teacher educator' was still usually applied to – and claimed only by – those employed by HEIs on full- or part-time contracts (Murray 2002) until recently. That 'traditional' occupational group has now been joined by teachers working as school-based teacher educators and/or mentors. This expansion has been driven in large part by new school-led routes (including the highly influential School Direct route in which schools take responsibility for recruiting student teachers, providing the majority of their school experience and arranging any other necessary training towards qualified teacher status) and the marketisation of the school system itself (Whitty 2014; Murray and Mutton 2015). School-based teacher educators now include senior school staff coordinating, implementing and developing the ITE provision in the schools and subject specialists in secondary schools or class teachers in primary schools who undertake roles in inducting student teachers, guiding and mentoring their progress, observing their teaching, giving feedback and finally assessing them. The latter sub-group is usually still called 'mentors'.

Mentors – and all school-based teacher educators – are of central importance to the quality of ITE because, as part of a growing emphasis on the practicum and experiential knowledge, all programmes now include large amounts of time in school. On a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course, for example, all pre-service teachers have to spend at least 24 weeks of their 36-week programme in schools; undergraduate degree programmes typically include at least the same amount of time in school, if not more. On school-based routes, the amount of training time spent in school is often greater still – up to 100%. In designing, implementing and assessing student teacher learning on these long teaching experiences, school-based teacher educators are central. Depending on the type of programme offered in their schools and whether or not that includes partnership with a higher

[1] Most, but not all, higher education institutions offering teacher education in England are now universities.

education institution (HEI), these school-based educators sometimes work alongside the traditional cohort of HE-based teacher educators.

Our conceptual framework for this study sees both teacher educators and mentors as agents involved in (re)producing – that is both producing and reproducing – the discourses and practices of school teaching and teacher education with and for student teachers. In order to achieve this, through their pedagogies and all other aspects of their practice, they deploy their knowledge strategically and make visible aspects of their identities as educators to student teachers and teachers. Following Day et al. (2007), we draw on a formulation of identities as multiple, a shifting mix of personal biography, culture, social and institutional influences and values which change according to contexts and roles.

10.2 Research Design

This was an interpretive study, drawing on established qualitative research methods for embedded case studies (Yin 2002) and conducted along ethical guidelines approved by the participating universities. The research design enabled focuses on the student teachers' views of their educators and the institutional contexts, specifically the Schools of Education and schools, in which they learned. This element of the design was important in that we wished to investigate whether students learning to teach in different institutions – and on different types of courses – perceived their educators' identities and knowledge in varying ways.

The HEIs from which the student samples were drawn were one 'old' or pre-1992 university and two post-1992 or 'new' universities. Both the latter institutions will have experienced 'academic drift' defined here as the process by which institutions once classed as 'public sector institutions' (polytechnics, diversified higher education institutions and teacher education colleges) have made their way into the university sector in England between the 1960s and the current time. The School of Education within University A provides an extensive and diverse range of education programmes; the host university is a large institution offering courses across many disciplines. The second School, in University B, is smaller and less diverse, set within a small university, which specialises in liberal arts and vocational programmes. University C is an 'old' and elite university. Placed high in national league tables for both research and teaching, it offers a wide range of academic and professional courses. The School of Education is small, offering only 1-year secondary teacher education programmes (preparing students to teach pupils aged 11–18) alongside a range of research degrees at master's and doctoral levels.

Through noncoercive ethics procedures, all student teachers studying on preservice programmes at the three universities were asked to complete questionnaires, consisting of a series of closed questions, using Likert scales, and opportunities for free-text responses. The resulting sample was a total of 442 students, 246 on

Table 10.1 Distribution of questionnaire sample across universities and programmes

University	Type of university	Programmes	Total number of respondents per programme	Total per university
C	Pre-1992	Secondary (11–18)	94	94
B	Post-1992	Secondary	63	95
B	Post-1992	Primary (elementary, 5–11) and early years (3–5)	32	
A	Post-1992	Secondary	89	253
A	Post-1992	Primary	164	

Totals – secondary, 246; primary, 196; overall total, 442

secondary courses and 196 students on early years or primary courses (preparing to teach pupils aged 3–11). The majority of these students (86%) were studying on PGCEs of 38 weeks' duration; this was, at the time of the empirical work, the dominant mode of pre-service provision (Table 10.1).

Individual semi-structured interviews with a purposive sample of 28 students were used to explore resulting issues in depth. The sample group here was chosen to give insights into the variations found in the questionnaire data across universities, programmes and age phases. All interviews were conducted face-to-face. The questions in the interview schedule ensured that all aspects of the research questions were covered fully, at the same time as leaving space for idiosyncratic questions and responses. Because of the potentially sensitive nature of the data, all participants were given additional assurances of confidentiality and anonymity, so pseudonyms for institutions and individuals have been used here.

This chapter draws on the data from both the questionnaires and the interviews, which were fully transcribed. That data was then subjected to an initial content analysis, generating a number of emergent themes through the use of open coding (Strauss and Corbin 1990). These initial codes were refined by repeated analysis and used to define recurring themes, resulting in the creation of core categories to be included in the findings.

The resulting data set from this study is large and complex, enabling us to look at variations across the different types of universities, programmes and age phases involved. In this chapter we aim to give insights into the main patterns our analysis found for each of the main research focuses. For simplicity's sake, we have chosen to reflect traditional usage of the term 'teacher educators' to mean those employed by HEIs on full- or part-time contracts and 'mentors' to mean teachers taking on the support of student teachers in schools.

10.3 Findings

10.3.1 Professional Identifiers and Roles

In order to ascertain how the student teachers perceived the identities and roles of their educators, the questionnaire gave a number of terms in common use in HE in England to describe first teacher educators (e.g. lecturer, academic, teacher educator, tutor, mentor, teacher trainer, teacher) and then mentors (e.g. teacher, teacher trainer, mentor, teacher educator, supervisor) and asked which terms students thought most appropriate to describe the educators working with them.

When talking about those educating them in schools, the majority of the students (94%) opted either for the descriptor 'mentor' or for the dual terms 'mentor' and 'teacher'. There were no notable differentiations in responses between different universities, types of programmes or age phases. In the free text box responses where students could add descriptors of their own, some added terms such as 'guide', 'head of department', 'year leader' and 'facilitator' in describing their mentors, but most left these boxes blank.

The findings on teacher educators' roles and identities showed more diversity. Students on PGCE courses, particularly on secondary programmes, were most likely to choose the descriptor 'tutor' for their teacher educators. In English this is a term which often carries elite connotations of individualised teaching and the close supervision of student learning and welfare. This choice of term may reflect the tendency for some secondary courses to be taught in small groups and predominantly by one person, a model of subject-specific pre-service often referred to as 'cottage industries'. In these teaching situations, the teacher educator may know their students well and take oversight of all aspects of their learning.

PGCE primary students across Universities A and B were equally likely to select the terms 'tutor' and 'teacher educator'; this may have been in part because these students are on multi-subject courses and are therefore more likely to be taught by a team of educators, with less opportunity to form close professional relationships with just one individual. The only students in the sample on undergraduate primary programmes (at University B) were more likely to select the terms 'teacher educator' or 'lecturer' (the latter being the term most often used for any university teacher in England); these choices may reflect the longer time that these students spend studying in universities, the modes of teaching they experience and their self-identification as undergraduate students.

Students at University C were the most likely to choose the descriptor 'academic' or to add the term 'academic tutor' in the free text box. One student, for example, stated, 'I would describe her as an academic tutor because I know she does research as well as teaching us'. For another, 'academic and pastoral tutor' was the

right descriptor for his educator because 'he guides all aspects of our work this year and he always knows what is happening with us'. Here, as in other findings, students from University C – the most research-intensive institution in our sample – were more likely to stress academic aspects of teacher educators' work. Few students at University A or B used the descriptor 'academic'.

Only 43 students across the sample group selected the terms 'trainer' or 'teacher trainer' for teacher educators, a surprising finding given that this term is part of the dominant government language of ITE in England.

10.3.2 Knowledge for Teaching Teachers

(a) Experiential knowledge

When asked to identify the knowledge which mentors required, all the students in the sample group, without exception, emphasised that how to teach effectively was the most important thing. The mentors' knowledge of the school, classroom(s) and pupils and their pedagogical skills were all seen as part of that effective teaching. This type of recent and highly relevant knowledge was highly valued – experientially based, up to date and highly relevant. In particular, mentors' practical expertise and experience were seen as invaluable in inducting students and supporting their learning development:

> Coming to a new school can be a mystery or worse for us, everything seems so different and strange but if you get a good mentor they know the subject department best all its politics and the kids and they give you a good induction into the school from there you can get to know it and how it works.

> You can improve your teaching with your mentor's help – they know the school, the uni supervisor (*teacher educator*) doesn't so the mentor knows the children and how they learn best. They are best at teaching me how to teach *these* children (*emphasis in the written original*).

'Good' mentors were usually seen as good teachers with strong local knowledge of the placement school, with high-level skills in working with student teachers. As part of this, many students clearly prioritised the mentors' knowledge of teaching in their *particular* placement school, placing less value on the breadth and depth of experience they might possess. For these students, typically, it did 'not matter if they have taught in many different types of schools' as they were interested more in 'how to learn to teach <u>now</u> in this school' (*emphasis in the written original*).

Here the students' views of their mentors' knowledge and roles came across as narrow and often concerned with transmission-orientated ways of knowledge transfer, in which the mentor had powerful knowledge of the practicum school to be acquired – preferably rapidly – by the student.

Few students were concerned about the amount of experience of mentoring itself which their mentors had had, but nearly all had clear expectations that they would

be good role models. Many students had positive experiences of mentoring; others were less satisfied:

> I think Judith (*the mentor*) is a great class teacher. She really knows this class and how to teach them, all the children's strengths and weakness she knows them. She's a great role model for me I learn so much being in her class.

> She definitely wasn't the strongest teacher in the year group so I wondered why she had been chosen as a mentor, she couldn't control the class and she didn't seem to be very good.

Few students were concerned about the length of teaching experience their mentors had. As one student said, 'you don't need to have been teaching for that long to be a really good teacher – and that's all that matters'. Other students expressed some scepticism about more experienced teachers who may have been 'burnt out', 'past their best' or 'beyond their sell-by date' because they had been 'teaching too long'.

For 10% of students, *less* experienced teachers were explicitly stated to make better mentors than the *more* experienced. The reasons for this varied, but the increased levels of empathy which less experienced mentors were likely to have for students were frequent themes in the data:

> I've had two mentors now who only had three or four years of experience in school but really knew their stuff … because they'd been through the PGCE so recently themselves they really empathised with me.

When asked to identify the knowledge which teacher educators needed, nearly all the students (98.5%) across the sample group emphasised that knowledge of schooling was the most important attribute, with most seeing it as important that it was gained through the *experience* of having been a teacher. Some students were incredulous that this needed to be stated, 'It seems obvious to me – I don't see how you could teach teachers or be able to do it if you had never been a teacher yourself – what would you know about what it is like in schools'?

Other students justified their opinions in various ways, often by counterposing the 'reality' or perceived 'value' and 'authenticity' of teaching experience with the explicit or implicit distance of other ways of knowing, particularly 'learning from books'. 'Experience is vital not just text book advice or theory – it's more real', said one student. Another wrote, '(t)hey (*teacher educators*) need to know and be familiar with real day to day teaching issues – you can't learn that from a book or research'. The sentiments of approximately 25% of students are summarised in this quotation, 'I don't want to be taught by someone who only knows the theory of teaching, that's too remote, it's not going to work for me. I need to know about the reality of teaching and how to cope with it'.

Most students felt that a number of years in school teaching were needed to provide a good basis for pre-service work; as one student said, it should be 'enough time so that they, (*teacher educators*) know what they are talking about but not so much that they are burned out'. Other students ventured to give exact timeframes as in the following quotes: 'they should have five years or so of experience' or 'I would say ten years is enough'.

Not only was experience seen as vital but just over 75% of students felt that it should be *recent* in order to ensure relevance and contemporaneity. Here the emphasis was often on how fast schools changed and how important up-to-date knowledge therefore was in teacher education. A student at University C wrote, 'More than five years out of school and I'd feel that they (*teacher educators*) might not know what they are talking about anymore'. Two other students, one primary and one secondary at University A, wrote:

> Without recent and relevant experience I believe tutors may not be able to keep in touch with teaching in a school environment – it all changes so fast that you could be out of date really soon maybe without knowing it.

> To teach others to teach you have to have up to date knowledge. I don't want to be taught by someone who only knows what schools and kids were like ten years ago or twenty, what would the point of that be?

Asked if experience of teaching teachers was important, most students conflated teaching in schools with teaching as a teacher educator. Typical examples of this tendency included, 'They're teachers they know how to teach, the skills are just transferable' or 'A good school teacher is all you need'. Another student wrote, 'Knowing how to teach in schools is enough to know how to teach us'. This type of student opinion was also linked to the devaluation of 'learning from books' as not 'real', as discussed above. The majority also saw the time which teacher educators had spent teaching in HE as irrelevant to them.

Only 15% of the total sample group showed clear recognition of any differences between their teacher educators' knowledge of teaching in schools and knowledge of teaching teachers (Loughran 2006) – second-order knowledge (Murray 2002). For most then the knowledge and pedagogical skills of teacher education itself went unrecognised (Murray et al. 2011). As one student typically stated, 'a good teacher is a good teacher is a good teacher, wherever'.

The interview data showed that students clearly expected their teacher educators to model 'good teaching' for them. Here the emphasis was often on teacher educators being *explicit* role models (European Commission 2013; Loughran 2006), that is teaching in ways appropriate for implementation in schools.

(b) Subject knowledge

For the majority of secondary students, 'subject knowledge' had very high priority as a key knowledge area for both teacher educators and mentors to possess. This knowledge was usually attributed to the educators' undergraduate and/or postgraduate study of their subject (what was sometimes termed 'pure subject knowledge') by 34% of students and/or to their knowledge of how to teach the subject in school (what has been termed 'subject knowledge for teaching').

One student at University C talking about his science teacher educator typically talking about 'pure' subject knowledge said, 'He has excellent subject knowledge – his first degree was from Cambridge followed by a Masters degree in biology at Kings'. Secondary students at this university were more likely to cite this type of 'pure' subject knowledge as important, often attributing it to past study at high-

ranking UK universities. Other secondary students across all three universities (51%) stressed the importance of educators having excellent subject knowledge for teaching; for both mentors and teacher educators, this was largely seen as generated by a fusion of 'pure' subject knowledge and experiences of teaching in schools.

Primary students were much less likely to see subject knowledge as important, with less than 15% mentioning the 'pure' subject knowledge of their teacher educators and only 42% prioritising 'subject knowledge for teaching'. Most of the primary students wanted their teacher educators to have knowledge of child development and learning patterns. This knowledge was variously defined by the students as 'knowledge of how children learn', 'understanding about child development' and 'good knowledge of child psychology', with the sources of this knowledge clearly seen as experiential.

(c) Sources of knowledge generation

The majority of the total student sample (51%) showed limited recognition of ways – beyond the experiential – in which their mentors and teacher educators might generate the required knowledge of how to teach. But some students recognised that their mentors learnt from their engagement in activities such as marking exam papers, being part of a teacher support group, working for exam boards or visiting other schools as an advisor. There were only five responses across the entire questionnaire sample which mentioned these mentors being engaged in research or scholarship. Two of these responses talked about the Master's level qualifications for which the mentors were studying.

For teacher educators, writing text books, knowing the most up-to-date subject-specific books, being on examination boards and researching with schools and pupils were recognised as valuable sources of knowledge generation. The value of research was particularly stressed by students at University C.

Here one student on a science PGCE course wrote, '(m)y tutor has done a lot of research on how kids learn in science and that informs what he teaches us … you can see when he is in schools with us that the teachers really respect his expertise too'. For some students, at both A and B, 'going into schools to research' was also acknowledged to be a valuable source of knowledge generation.

Another – and more widely recognised – source of knowledge generation for students was teacher educators' broad knowledge of schooling, gained through visiting many classrooms during the student practicum. As one student at University A wrote:

> I know that my tutor has visited many schools and seen lots of classrooms since she left teaching herself, that gives her very valuable perspectives to pass onto us not just about one school but knowing about a whole variety of ways to teach.

Another student (University B) said 'seeing us (*her students*) teaching in lots of schools and having to work with us and the teachers is good experience too'.

(d) Interpersonal skills for educating teachers

Teacher educators' and mentors' interpersonal skills were highly valued by nearly all the questionnaire sample group, with 88% mentioning these as essential

attributes for both professional groups. Examples given of such skills included high-level verbal and non-verbal communication skills with individuals and groups, strong listening abilities, good emotional intelligence, high levels of empathy and abilities to build confidence and bolster self-esteem in their students' professional lives.

Mentors' interpersonal skills and their consequent abilities to support student learning were often highly praised in the questionnaire and interview data, with some referred to as having 'fantastic inter-personal skills' and being 'so skilled' and 'my main support system'. But considerable variability in the quality of mentoring experiences was also clear from the students' responses, with some being scathing about their mentors' skills:

> I don't think he should have been a mentor as he didn't seem to like us trainees at all. In fact I think he sometimes resented having to spend time with us instead of the children. Even though he's a teacher he didn't exactly have good people skills, not with adults anyway.

Typically, students who had had negative experiences complained about 'my learning time getting squeezed', 'often being ignored' or 'not getting enough help when I needed it'. Some of these students clearly recognised the significant time constraints on their mentors but still regretted the impact these had on their personal learning:

> I understand her main job is teaching the children and I had to come second but it was often hard to find a time when we could talk. She always had to be busy, busy with her own teaching and the children.

In the questionnaire data, teacher educators were seen as taking greater degrees of responsibility for student learning and progression than many mentors were able to do, but then as one student at University A succinctly noted, 'making sure we get through the course is their main job'. The interview data also showed students' views of teacher educators' empathy, care and a sense of responsibility for learning and support during an ITE experience that was often constructed as 'tough', 'a struggle' and 'challenging to say the least', especially when on placements. Here the teacher educators became the students' 'representative' or 'voice'.

> You need the uni people (*teacher educators*) to have good inter-personal skills as well as being good teachers because they'll be doing a lot of propping up especially during placements.

> XX (*name of teacher educator*) was amazing in getting me through first placement. I couldn't have done it without her – visiting me, phoning me, emailing me anything she could do to keep me going in and staying on the course.

Teacher educators were also seen as having good problem-solving and decision-making skills, which they often needed when negotiating with schools on behalf of their students.

10.4 Discussion and Conclusion

This is a large-scale study, conducted using a robust research design. It gives considerable insights into how these student teachers perceive their teacher educators and mentors, in particular, which identities, forms of knowledge and skills from those educators they privileged and valued during their ITE. As stated above, this type of study matters because how students perceive their educators affects the nature of their engagement in the learning process, their ability to take advantage of the learning opportunities offered and therefore potentially the quality of outcomes of pre-service. This study therefore makes a definite contribution to research in and on teacher education.

Nevertheless, the study has a number of acknowledged limitations, including the fact that only a questionnaire (often seen as 'blunt' instrument for exploring nuanced perceptions) and a semi-structured interview schedule were deployed as data collection methods. Certainly, the questionnaire format did not enable us to explore sometimes surprising student perceptions in depth. We should also note the researcher positionality here in that both questionnaires and interviews were implemented by teacher educators, albeit usually individuals not teaching those particular student cohorts.

The findings show some differences in responses across the types of universities, programmes and age phases. For example, secondary students were more likely to value subject knowledge for teaching and 'pure' subject knowledge than primary students who gave a higher value to 'knowledge of how children learn'. A further example of difference is that students from the elite and research-intensive University C were more likely to recognise and stress the academic identities and work of their teacher educators, whilst students at the other universities placed less emphasis on these things. The implications of these differential findings will be analysed and reported in future publications.

But over and above these differences, we can determine some general patterns across the whole sample group. These were that experiential knowledge of school teaching had become highly valued capital in the eyes of student teachers, making them keen to have teacher educators who had recent and relevant teaching experience and mentors who had expert knowledge of the practicum school and its classrooms contexts. Subject knowledge for teaching was largely attributed to a mix of personal study, usually at first-degree level and teaching experience. Other types of knowledge, particularly those gained through research or scholarship within the discipline of education, were often overlooked, marginalised or delegitimised by the students for both mentors and for teacher educators, particularly at Universities A and B. Certain kinds of interpersonal skills and dispositions were highly valued for mentors and teacher educators, particularly adopting an ethos of care and responsibility for student progression.

Many studies identify that student teachers, particularly those on 1-year programmes, prioritise the acquisition of the practical knowledge and skills they will need to survive in the classroom. The current assessment procedures during placements in English schools and the emphasis on Newly Qualified Teachers needing to be 'classroom ready' by the end of their training only intensify and formalise this pressure. It is then hardly surprising to find students identifying pre-service as a time of high stress and adopting an instrumental view of their learning processes. Many of these students seem to perceive the need to 'master' a set body of knowledge and skills in order to become teachers; there are clear links here to what Winch et al. (2013) have termed the 'teacher as technician' model where teachers have technical know-how of 'what works' and deploy this knowledge to create effective classroom practice.

In the instrumental learning processes which result the recent and relevant experiential knowledge of educators is prioritised over other types of knowledge, including 'theory' or broad research-informed perspectives. Some students clearly perceive a need for their educators, whether in schools or HEIs, to fulfil two basic roles: first, functioning as sources of knowledge to be acquired by the students, and second, supplying the essential professional, practical and emotional support required for survival (Caires and Almeida 2005; Orr 2012).

These models – what might be termed 'tell me' and 'support me' – have certainly been found in other studies of student teachers. But many commentators discuss the inadequacy of these models, not least because they supply only a superficial and 'survival-orientated' reproduction of a narrow, restricted and instrumental knowledge base for teaching (Kosnik and Beck 2009; Yandell 2016). They allow little space for developing sound, long-term knowledge based around personal practice, reflexivity and professional judgements – or for deeper understanding of schools and pupils. Learning about teaching is an on-going, career-long process then not a short experience of 'mastering' teaching as some participants in this study seem to imply; rather 'student teachers … must see themselves not as conquering heroes but as grappling with the challenges of teaching' (Kosnik and Beck 2009:145).

How teacher educators and mentors understand their work in developing student learning varies. In Shagrir (2015), for example, one of the three models of work described by teacher educators is 'to help and assist students to succeed in their studies' and in this role to 'make themselves, their experience and their qualifications available to help and support the students' (p. 6). But a second group of teacher educators in the same study sees their roles as empowering students and helping them to grow and become independent learners through 'active and participatory learning' (p. 7). A third group see themselves serving as mediators between 'the academic content learned and the practice of teaching' (p. 8).

Many mentors, perhaps constrained by time and opportunities, may resort to a traditional, transmission mode of mentoring as the imparting of wisdom from more experienced professional to the newcomer. Other mentors, however, see their work in very different and complex ways, with a key role being to challenge student teachers and to encourage them to construct their learning with mentor support (e.g. Jones et al. 2009; Van Velzen et al., in this volume). Yet for many of the students

here, mentoring seemingly remains defined by a transmission mode, supplemented by requirements for 'support and guidance'. Whilst it is widely accepted that these learners need 'safe' environments for their practice in schools and good quality support and guidance, these are worryingly narrow ways of understanding what mentoring is, with little understanding of how mentors might involve student teachers in more participatory models of learning. These findings are of concern because they indicate that many students' understanding of mentoring – as one of the key educative processes in which they participate – are limiting for them as learners and at odds with at least some of their educators.

Mentoring has long been acknowledged as an undervalued role, conducted in varied ways and resulting in variable quality learning experiences for student teachers. The recent Carter Review into teacher education in England (DfE 2015) underlines the growing importance of mentoring in a school-led system where the majority of student learning necessarily occurs in school contexts. Yet, even in the current school-led system, the work these professionals undertake may still continue to involve undervalued and often tacit knowledge and skills (DfE 2015). This situation is not helped if the perceptions of student teachers frame mentors' knowledge and roles in narrow ways which ignore the wider accumulated experience and expertise of their educators.

The findings also indicate limited ways of understanding and valuing teacher educators' knowledge and roles. These students' perceptions reflect the growing emphasis on experiential knowledge of schooling as a key element of teacher educator professionalism in England (Ellis et al. 2012; Murray 2014). Teacher education in England has undoubtedly made a strong turn towards practice and the practical, but there are still strong arguments for broad and research-informed models of teacher education in which 'theory', often mediated by teacher educators, is an essential element of learning with and from practice. The 'clinical practice model' (Burn and Mutton 2013), for example, attempts to integrate practice in schools with research-based knowledge, using teaching methods which give students access to the reasoning and underlying knowledge of both university-based teacher educators and mentors.

But for many teacher educators, there are still discrepancies between students' and teacher educators' perceptions and expectations, and as Brown et al. (2016: p. 7) comment, overall, 'university tutors both new and old, are now less able to compete with school-based teacher educators in meeting the demands of immediate practice'. There are also tensions between student expectations of classroom experience and up-to-date knowledge of schools and university expectations of high levels of research productivity. These tensions have led Brown et al. (2016) to state that teacher educators find themselves in a crisis of legitimacy. Adding to these pressures, findings like ours identify that in their narrow focus on teacher educators' knowledge and identities, many students may risk overlooking the broader and more participatory learning experiences which the accumulated experience and expertise, including the broad and theoretically based knowledge, of their HE-based teacher educators could bring them. This situation further undermines the perceived value of HE contributions to pre-service education.

This study raises further issues for both teacher educators and mentors including how can these educators best communicate their extended roles in teacher education and their strategies for offering support and guidance, whilst also generating knowledge in collaborative and co-constructed learning environments in school classrooms and university seminar rooms? And how can they communicate their professional identities, values and purposes to their students in ways which help to develop the more participatory pedagogical models which support high-quality and research-informed learning in pre-service?

Finally, how can policymakers be encouraged to consider the implications of these professional identities and participatory pedagogical models in their formulations of teacher education for the coming decades? Undoubtedly, there is an urgent need to focus on professional learning for both mentors in schools (school-based teacher educators) and teacher educators in universities; both need support in understanding, negotiating and implementing the fast-changing contexts in which ITE in England takes place. This support for professional learning should have the aims of supporting these educators and improving their practice, thus long-term improving the quality of student teachers' learning. It deserves to be well-funded by policymakers and implemented across the system, reflecting national imperatives but also designed to offer learning support tailored to the local contexts and the diversity of provision found there.

Within national policymaking on teacher education and even in policies and practices in university departments of education, the changing identities and positionalities of teacher educators and the implications for their practices in both pedagogy and research are rarely mentioned. And yet, as this study and the findings of the research in Chap. 12 clearly show, this occupational group remains very influential 'on the ground' of teacher education, with high significance for student teachers and mentors in many contexts. These implications for policy, particularly the implications of how teacher educators, whether in schools or in HE, are positioned within policymaking debates, are discussed in more detail in the finale to this book, Chap. 14.

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Chapter 11
There Is No Need to Sit on My Hands Anymore! Modelling and Scaffolding as Mentoring Tools During Co-teaching

Corinne van Velzen, Monique Volman, and Mieke Brekelmans

Abstract The title of this chapter is a statement made by Megan, a student teachers' mentor, after she and her student teacher Selma experienced the collaborative mentoring approach (CMA) and co-teaching as a mentoring activity in this approach.

This chapter describes this CMA, a mentoring practice built on cycles of three lessons, which was designed to provide mentors with opportunities to share and discuss practical teaching knowledge using (explicit) modelling and scaffolding as mentoring tools. Co-teaching is part of CMA.

The approach was studied in two schools of secondary education in the Netherlands. At the time of the research project both schools participated in a school-university partnership in teacher education, meaning both schools and university feel a shared responsibility for teacher education. Teacher education in these partnerships asks for a transformation of the traditional practicum into guided work-based education. Guidance provided in CMA is seen as a contribution to a work-based pedagogy providing support to student teachers' workplace learning.

Five different teams of mentors and student teachers participated in this study, but here we will especially follow Megan and her student teacher Selma during their collaborative lesson-based conversations and co-taught lessons. Next to their experiences the theoretical background of this approach will be discussed. At the end of the chapter we will also go into some challenges related to the implementation of the approach.

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11.1 Introduction

'There is no need to sit on my hands anymore until the lesson is finished and (*when*) I can only provide feedback afterwards when the moment has gone'. This was said by Megan, a mentor in a school in the Netherlands, after she and her student teacher, Selma, experienced co-teaching and collaborative lesson-based conversations as a mentoring practice. During this mentoring, Megan used explicit modelling and scaffolding as tools aimed at sharing practical knowledge with her student teacher.

The story of Megan and Selma, as told in this chapter, provides insider perspectives on teacher education from both a mentor and a student teacher about their experiences with collaboratively prepared and evaluated co-taught lessons. This co-teaching is part of the collaborative mentoring approach (CMA), based on the collaborative apprenticeship model of Glazer and Hannafin (2006). As reported in this study, CMA is designed to create and implement opportunities for the student teacher to share mentors' practical knowledge.

CMA consists of cycles of three collaboratively prepared and evaluated lessons. The first lesson is taught by the mentor, the second lesson involves the student teacher and mentor teaching together, and the third lesson is taught by the student teacher. This way of enacting practice allows the mentor to model classroom routines during the first lesson and during co-teaching. As far as possible, student teachers' learning needs are the focus in all lessons and lesson-based conversations. So, the mentoring tools used in this approach are implicit and explicit modelling and scaffolding. Here modelling is based on showing experienced teacher behaviours in actual practice, along with critically discussing this behaviour with student teachers. The discussions are not only about the how and what of lesson enactment (teaching) but also about the why and why so of teacher behaviour. During lesson enactment by the student teacher, the mentor also uses scaffolding as a form of support directly aimed at facilitating that teaching. This support can, for instance, include suggestions and hints to propel forwards a lesson which may be at risk of becoming deadlocked. Both modelling and scaffolding strategies facilitate the development of students' understanding of teaching behaviour and its underlying pedagogical reasoning. Moreover, both strategies provide student teachers with opportunities to practise new behaviours during the actual enactment of the lesson.

By studying the insider perspectives of five duos of mentor and student teacher in two schools, we learned that all the participants experienced this approach as being more effective than traditional mentoring activities. Deeper conversations appeared and new learning issues emerged earlier than in their traditional conversations. Valuing mentors' practical knowledge and the focus on student teachers' learning needs were seen as important in creating the robust structure of the approach. Observing the collaborative lesson discussions showed that mentors and student teachers did indeed critically discuss practical knowledge, with the mentors using eight different ways to model this knowledge. Enacting co-teaching was not always easy for any of them; in particular the transition between the roles of teacher and mentor (or school-based teacher educator), as required in co-teaching, proved

difficult. Using scaffolding as a mentoring tool during lesson enactment and judging the 'right' moment to step into the teaching of the student teacher were also seen as problematic. Nevertheless, co-teaching was seen as a promising mentoring approach by all the mentors and their student teachers.

Before going into the experiences of the specific duo of Megan (mentor) and Selma (student teacher), we outline the theoretical underpinning of CMA and the use of modelling and scaffolding as mentoring tools. Next we will describe the methods used in the larger research project which is the basis for this chapter (see Van Velzen 2013, for further details). At the end of the chapter, we will discuss in more detail two challenges that arose while implementing CMA in the schools.

11.2 Theoretical Framework

11.2.1 School as an Authentic Learning Environment for Student Teachers

In the Netherlands, more and more student teachers are educated in school-university partnerships, and more and more schools are taking on co-responsibility for teacher education. As a consequence of this change, a transformation of the school practicum (or internship) into guided work-based teacher education is needed. Such a transformation demands that the (guided) learning processes of student teachers at school during their practicum (their workplace learning) must become tightly connected with the actual teaching and teaching-related activities. The school practicum has to be transformed into an authentic workplace learning environment for student teachers, an environment in which learning and working are integrated and where student teachers can – and should – participate in all activities related to teaching. According to Mattsson et al. (2011), this transformation offers student teachers the opportunities to develop situated, contextualised professional knowledge and the disposition to act wisely and prudently in actual practice.

Billett (2004, pp. 312–313) stated that the workplace is a learning environment that 'must be understood as a complex negotiation about knowledge use, roles and processes – essentially as a question of the learners' participation in situated work activities'. By becoming partners in this negotiation – and therefore participants in all teaching-related work activities – student teachers on the practicum can develop their practical knowledge; this is the basis of their capacity to plan teaching and learning which meets the needs of pupils and the demands of the (school) context. However, traditional forms of guidance by experienced teachers as mentors are not always aimed towards this type of knowledge construction with student teachers or towards developing shared conceptions of the knowledge used during teaching and mentoring (Wang and Odell 2002).

To achieve such guidance, a work-based teacher education arrangement aimed at sharing and cocreating knowledge is needed. In addition to providing student

teachers with opportunities to participate in actual practice, mentors are often asked to make their practical teaching knowledge explicit by showing their teaching behaviour and then discussing this behaviour in a critical way with their student teachers. Creating such a context for learning asks mentors not only to interpret the learning needs articulated by the student teacher but also to diagnose and understand other aspects of their development. These things must be done at the same time as the mentor is preparing, enacting and evaluating the student teacher's teaching. They must know how and when to react to problems the student teacher encounters as they learn to teach. At the same time, they must also function in their normal subject teacher role, diagnosing pupils' problems and knowing how and when to react in order to support pupil learning. As a result, mentor teachers act as both teachers and as teacher educators with transitions from one role to another at many points during the time they are guiding student teachers.

11.2.2 Practical Teaching Knowledge

Practical knowledge is a practice-oriented conception of knowledge, based on the epistemology of practice instead of a foundational system established on the justification of propositional knowledge (Munby et al. 2001); it 'encapsulates the essence of being an accomplished practitioner' (Loughran 2010, p. ix). Many terms, each with a slightly different meaning, are employed to depict teacher knowledge, reflecting multiple views of this type of teacher knowledge based on different research approaches (see, e.g. Ben-Peretz 2011). Markauskaite and Goodyear (2014, p. 238) and used the term 'working knowledge'. They emphasised that the concept 'working knowledge of a professional' is distinct from the formal concepts 'strategies' or 'rules of reasoning' that are often held to constitute a professional knowledge base. 'Working knowledge' is seen as a functional concept referring to diverse knowledge resources that are used to organise one's understanding, making plausible sense of encountered situations and sensible acts (see Greeno 2012, p. 311). Hence, all practical knowledge components are interconnected and intertwined in ways directly relevant to the student practicum. And, one of the critical features of teachers' expertise is 'the extent to which teachers can integrate the various aspects of teacher knowledge *to bring about effective learning*' (Tsui 2009, p.424, italics in the original). Practical knowledge, shaped by the history and culture of the vocation, is developed through the engagement of individual teachers in social practice and through multiple discourses, with all actors involved in 'communities of practice' (Lave and Wenger (1991/2002); Hodkinson and Hodkinson 2005) as Lave and Wenger have called the groups in which this knowledge is used and produced.

According to Edwards (2010, p. 73), 'mentor teachers are ideally positioned to be mediators of the practical knowledge that comprises their expertise in the act of teaching', and their guidance can open up the thinking and acting of student teach-

ers (Hagger and MacIntyre 2006). It is clear then that to achieve the guided participation of student teachers in actual teaching and the above-mentioned negotiation of knowledge use, mentoring should become more than traditional forms of mentor guidance which are often based primarily on (emotional) support, observation and feedback. These new forms of mentoring must provide opportunities for guidance, while the student teacher is actually teaching, and for critical discussions about all aspects of teaching and learning – learning both by pupils and the student teacher – after the lesson is over.

11.2.3 Co-teaching Instead of Mentoring by Observation and Feedback

Parker-Katz and Bay (2008) emphasised opportunities for participation in which student teachers are involved in 'talking *about* and talking *within* a practice'. Their ideas are based on the argument of Lave and Wenger (1991/2002) that new learners learn by learning '*to* talk' instead of just listening ('learning *from* talk') (p. 109, italics in original). In the Netherlands and other countries where this approach is adopted, co-teaching is increasingly seen as an opportunity to realise this kind of participation and as an alternative for the traditional mentoring approach. This co-teaching differs from team teaching as here both mentor and student teacher contribute to actual practice and have full responsibility for the whole lesson. Shared contribution and responsibility create shared ownership for both pupils' and student teacher's learning and development (Murphy and Carlisle 2008). This shared responsibility becomes visible in mutual involvement during the enactment of the lesson (Roth and Tobin 2002) and through the interdependency of student and mentor (Pratt 2014). Ownership is a prerequisite for connecting the student teacher who is learning to teach with the mentors' teaching aimed at development of pupil learning. Such ownership leads to the development of a 'layered pedagogy', characteristic of teacher education (Boyd and Harris 2010). During co-teaching the mentor and the student teacher give each other space by stepping in and out the actual teacher role. These role changes are based on signs and signals agreed in advance.

The actual co-teaching is embedded in collaborative lesson-based conversations focused on the critical discussion of plans, ideas, perspectives, expectations, concerns and so on (before the lesson) and of (un)expected events, realised goals, explanations and possibilities, new challenges and so on (after the lesson). These critical discussions – and the co-teaching itself – provide mentor teachers with in-depth opportunities to share their practical knowledge with their student teachers. Once again, modelling and scaffolding are mentoring tools that enable them to do so (Van Velzen et al. 2012).

11.2.4 Modelling and Scaffolding: Mentoring Tools in Co-teaching and Related Lesson-Based Conversations

Co-teaching provides mentors with opportunities to 'model, guide, enhance and even challenge student teachers' interpretations and responses' (Edwards et al. 2002, p. 110). The practical knowledge of the mentor can become visible and audible in practice, but it cannot simply be transferred from mentor to student teacher; a process of transformation is needed, along with use of the specific mentoring tools of modelling and scaffolding to support it (Van Velzen et al. 2012).

Modelling is a well-known pedagogy in teacher education aimed at sharing learning and teaching experiences, bringing to the surface 'the thinking, decision making, and pedagogical reasoning underpinning pedagogical expertise' (Loughran 2014, p. 275). Implicit modelling (or congruent teaching: showing the general behaviour that is expected from the student teacher) should be distinguished from explicit modelling (explicitly showing and discussing teacher strategies).

Mentors always act as implicit role models (Clarke et al. 2014), but this modelling can become more explicit in critical lesson-based discussions about teacher behaviour and the impact of teaching activities on pupils. While co-teaching, for example, the mentor can model their practical knowledge by addressing pupils, completing student teacher's instructions and rephrasing questions or statements (Van Velzen 2013).

Scaffolding is used by mentors while the student teacher is actually teaching, and this guidance is specifically focused on difficult aspects of their teaching task at a particular moment (Van Velzen and Volman 2009). The mentor directly addresses the student teacher with helpful suggestions which may even briefly be discussed during the lesson. It is the student teacher who decides whether and how to make use of these suggestions. Here scaffolding is seen as an overall structure of support that provides the student teacher with opportunities to immediately gain the practical knowledge of their mentors in practice. It allows the student to complete their complex task of teaching pupils, helping them not only to act in ways they have already mastered but also to work on a 'proximal' level, which is achieving higher levels of teaching than they would be unable to reach on their own (Collins 2006). Here, modelling and scaffolding are not one-way interventions but interactive processes that occur between mentor and student teacher, who both have to actively participate in co-teaching and the related lesson-based conversations (see Van de Pol et al. 2010).

When mentors use modelling during co-teaching, they act as teachers (addressing pupils and being observed by the student teacher). When using scaffolding, they support their student teachers' teaching and act as teacher educators. In order to be able to do this, mentors must have a 'bifocal perspective' (Achinstein and Athanases 2005) so they can pay attention to both the learning needs of pupils and those of the student teacher.

Based on the above, we consider CMA to be a mentoring approach aimed at sharing practical knowledge in collaborative, prepared, enacted and evaluated lesson cycles, providing a useful approach within a work-based curriculum. The guidance provided by modelling and scaffolding is seen as a contribution to a work-based pedagogy which provides support for student teachers' workplace learning.

11.3 Methods

The research data on the experiences of the mentor, Megan, and the student teacher, Selma, are drawn from a larger data set originating from a research project in two schools of secondary education in the Netherlands (reported in Van Velzen 2013). In these schools, pupils from the age of 12 to 18 years are prepared for higher education. Five different teams of mentors and student teachers took part in the study. Both schools are partners in a school-university partnership in teacher education. More information about these partnerships and the roles of both school- and institute-based teacher educators can be found in Van Velzen and Van der Klink (2014).

In the research project, three case studies of three teams each consisting of a mentor and a student teacher were undertaken, all centred around the guidance which the mentors provided for their student teachers in actual daily practice. The first comparative evaluative case study was used to investigate how the mentoring approach was enacted and evaluated by the mentors and their student teachers. In a contrasting case study, with a mixed method approach, we studied differences in the implementation of the lesson-based conversations as part of the mentoring approach and the consequences of sharing and co-constructing practical knowledge. Table 11.1 is an overview of the practical knowledge frames and the modelling and scaffolding actions used.

The last study was a descriptive multiple case study (with four mentor-student duos), focused on the enactment of the co-teaching part of the approach. During the related lesson-based conversations, both the preparation and evaluation of the lesson as part of the co-teaching itself were discussed.

Data collection in all three studies included audiotaping lesson-based conversations, videotaping lessons, short questionnaires and daily logs and interviews with all participants before, during and after the co-teaching. All conversations and interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim and analysed with the help of Atlas.ti (1993–2001). The analysis of co-teaching in the videotaped lessons was based on multiple viewing followed by segmentation of each video into chunks; the segments were determined by the intervals at which the mentor or student teacher stepped into or out of taking direct responsibility for teaching the pupils. Within each chunk, verbal and non-verbal behaviour during the lesson was analysed. Indicators used were (a) stepping in/out, signals used and positioning of mentor and student against each other and (b) teaching activities performed both in whole-class teaching and during teacher's support of small groups. The analysis identified mentor activity either as modelling (mentor addressing pupils, taking a teacher's role) or scaffold-

Table 11.1 Outline of practical knowledge frames, modelling and scaffolding actions

	Components
Practical knowledge frames	Instruction and guiding (teaching and learning activities; class management)
	Pupils (individual, groups, class characteristics) and relations with pupils
	Subject matter (and pupils' problems related to the subject matter)
	Curriculum development and lesson planning (including time management), aims and objectives
	Self (personal experiences, characteristics as teacher, opinions, beliefs)
Modelling actions	During lesson enactment by the mentor and in lesson-based conversations:
	Showing behaviour in lesson enactment by the mentor or observations of this behaviour brought into the lesson conversations by student teachers
	Telling about behaviour or ideas
	Explaining behaviour or ideas
	Discussing effectiveness of lesson plans and enactment
	Discussing alternatives: reframing the situation and/or teachers' behaviour
	Providing suggestions and discussing expected effectiveness of these suggestions
	Asking student teachers' suggestions and discussing expected effectiveness of these suggestions
	Giving feedback underpinned with vocational expertise
	During co-teaching:
	Addressing pupils
	Elaborating on student teachers instructions, questions and so on while stepping in during student teachers' teaching
	Showing effective teacher behaviour while teaching during co-teaching
Scaffolding actions.	During instruction, stepping in while the student teacher teaches:
	Small non-verbal signals (encouragement, pointing out something special like time problems or (un)expected pupil behaviour)
	Cautiously interrupting student teacher's teaching in order to:
	Whisper some suggestions or hints
	Discuss or explain those suggestions shortly
	Asking for a time-out to discuss different opportunities for the student teacher to follow
	During pupils' working in small groups
	Alternately shadowing each other during individual pupil guidance or group work
	Instantaneously showing exemplary behaviour as reaction on student teachers ineffective behaviour

ing (mentor addressing the student teacher, taking a mentor role). The next stage in the analysis was the creation of a timeline which functioned as a narrative representation of the process of co-teaching in each lesson.

Before the mentors and their student teachers started with the enactment of CMA, the aims of the approach and the importance of sharing practical knowledge were discussed with all participants. Mentor teachers practised sharing practical knowledge with each other on the basis of their own videotaped lessons.

11.4 The Story of Megan and Selma

Megan had been a chemistry teacher for 12 years and was in her second year as a mentor. As indicated earlier, Megan's student teacher was Selma. They agreed on enacting the CMA in a class usually taught by Megan. The learning needs which Selma had expressed were related to the following areas: questioning pupils; making smooth transitions between lesson phases, without losing control; and reflecting on the impact of Selma's positioning in the classroom in terms of her classroom management. As far as possible, these learning needs became the focus during lesson enactment and in all the conversations.

Megan and Selma started all pre-lesson conversations with a review of the preceding lesson before they discussed the upcoming lesson. Conversations followed and rehearsed the chronological structure of the lesson to come – how to begin, instructional aspects and pupil assignments and evaluation. For example, Megan asked Selma: 'What might be good ways to check whether they [*the pupils*] actually understood it [*molar volume*] without calculating?'

In post-lesson conversations, the relationships between the teaching and pupil learning and behaviour were discussed, particularly with regard to the original planning and to unforeseen events. Attention was also paid to teacher characteristics and the process of feeling comfortable as a teacher 'in your own class'. Megan gave attention to Selma's subject knowledge and its relationship with her teaching and the pupils' learning. For example, Megan and Selma discussed how to react to a pupil who asked why it was necessary to complete four assignments. Selma also thought it was unnecessary to do that. Megan identified several reasons to help this pupil (and Selma) to understand why doing four exercises that looked the same (but were not) could actually be useful. Megan also discussed with Selma the importance of sharing this insight with pupils.

During the lesson-based conversations and lesson enactment, all the components of practical knowledge could be identified. In lesson-based conversations, it became clear that many events needed to be discussed through the 'lens' of different knowledge categories. So, for example, as might be expected, knowledge of instruction was combined with knowledge of subject matter and of pupils. In discussing these different but interrelated categories of practical knowledge, Megan used a number of modelling possibilities.

Megan and Selma both made mind maps showing their views about 'what a teacher knows'. These maps were then discussed, creating a learning activity which provided Megan and Selma with opportunities to explain to each other what they meant by the terms used and why they thought these aspects of teaching were important. As might be expected, Megan's mind map was far more structured and elaborated than Selma's.

Preparing the co-taught lesson, Megan and Selma planned all the 'regular' aspects of the lesson and then paid attention to several topics related to co-teaching. These were (a) introducing a second teacher in the classroom, (b) dividing tasks and splitting up lesson parts to make sure both teachers actually taught, (c) making

smooth transitions between different parts of the lesson and (d) creating a system of signs and signals to indicate that the other teacher wanted to step in or out. Megan used an earlier lesson (enacted by her and observed by Selma) to discuss possible ways to implement support for Selma, when needed, during co-teaching. Strategies that arose were completing statements of the student teacher by the mentor (modelling) and consulting each other on actual teaching (scaffolding).

In the co-taught lesson, Megan explicitly modelled teacher behaviour by directly addressing pupils, while Selma was teaching by, for instance, completing or rephrasing Selma's explanations. She also asked additional questions, explained the importance of Selma's questions and rephrased some of her questions to enhance pupil understanding.

Scaffolding was done by Megan during actual co-teaching by stepping in during Selma's teaching. In short discussions, cautiously interrupting Selma's teaching, Megan helped Selma to continue her lessons by overcoming problems caused by the misunderstandings of pupils in relation to the subject at hand. Sometimes she whispered something in Selma's ear, but she also asked for a 'time-out' after she observed pupils haphazardly guessing answers, without understanding what Selma was talking about. During these conversations, Megan and Selma negotiated ideas on how to continue, while Megan offered hints and suggestions. After such these whispers or time-outs, Selma continued with a phrase such as 'I just got a hint …', taking up her lesson from the point where she got stuck and starting off with a new question or another way of explaining a problem. Although some pupils initially reacted with amusement to these interruptions and started talking to each other, Selma had no problems in drawing their attention back to the learning at hand again and in continuing the lesson.

Throughout group work with pupils, separately supporting small groups was alternated with working together. Here Selma 'shadowed' Megan when the latter was in charge, listening to her explanations and questions. Megan then did the same while Selma was in charge. Megan used non-verbal signals, such as walking away from a group, when a pupil took too much of her time; Selma worked with other pupils to answer their questions.

During the post lesson-based conversations, Megan and Selma mostly discussed Selma's teaching, but they also briefly discussed the ways in which they kept in touch during the lesson and whether stepping in or out went smoothly enough, without interrupting the lesson flow. Megan also explained some of her actions and the impact she thought they had had on pupil learning and behaviour. She underlined that teaching is always performed in collaboration with pupils and that pupils should be informed about and involved in the co-teaching to make it a mutual learning process for them all.

After the second co-taught lesson, Megan stated she was still searching for an effective method for enacting co-teaching. Selma thought of co-teaching just as actually teaching together with Megan and as responding to her mentors' corrections and adjustments, as spoken out loud. Megan explained that, for her, the stepping in and out, her mediation of Selma's questioning of pupils and her whispering of hints or ideas on teaching into Selma's ear were also co-teaching activities. By saying this, she explicitly reasserted her position as both mentor and co-learner in

the classroom. Both Megan and Selma agreed that co-teaching was a sign to pupils that 'we are learning just as you do'.

After having experienced this way of mentoring, Megan explained that co-teaching was an important opportunity for her to give immediate support, rather than 'sitting on her hands' and hoping she could discuss Selma's teaching effectively, after the lesson, using only her observations. She stated:

> For me this is a real enrichment. It is no longer seen as a 'violation,' such as when a mentor is saying things from the sidelines. Now we are in it together. We do it together, and it feels safe when I interfere.

She underlined the importance of finding 'the right moment to intervene', especially when Selma did not ask for support. For Megan, the timing of her stepping in either modelling (in her teacher role) or scaffolding (in her teacher educator role) was based more on intuition than on a formula.

Selma also mentioned the differences between the CMA and the 'regular' or traditional mentor approach she had experienced in the past. She stated that:

> Each week, there are moments when we talk about how things are going…But normally, lesson preparation and evaluation are things I do on my own. This time we went much deeper… It gave us the chance to discuss and deliberate on issues and to find out what the other thinks: Is this the right thing to do? What works here and why? I very much liked discussing in detail what you could do, what you did do, and why… I think this approach accelerated my learning process. Maybe I would have got the message three months later anyway, based on my own experiences. But with this intensive support I am more actively involved and the message comes quicker.

The influence of Megan's mentoring on Selma became visible not only in the ways Selma talked about teaching in general and about her pupils' learning but also in her actual teaching. Sometimes Selma literally imitated Megan's behaviour as she had observed it. Sometimes, after discussing this 'imitated behaviour' with Megan, Selma decided it was not useful for her, and she started to implement other forms of teaching behaviour. While discussing the lesson plans and the enacted lessons, Megan and Selma did not just describe to each other what they thought could happen – or what had happened – they also shared their purposes and the understandings they deemed to be relevant for both pupils and Selma's learning.

But, surprisingly, Selma hardly mentioned these conversations and its outcomes in the mandatory portfolio of work for her practicum which she had to complete for the university. In her portfolio she reflected on her experiences from the perspective of the so-called rubrics which were prescribed by her university. This issue is discussed in more detail below.

11.5 Challenges Related to Implementing Co-teaching

Co-teaching, particularly stepping in and out during student teachers' lesson enactments, asks for changing commitments on a personal level, in the school and at the teacher education institute, for instance, commitments related to the changed roles

of the mentor and the student teacher (Billett and Choy 2013), the importance of learning by observation and imitation (Tobin and Roth 2006) and the necessity of more research-informed knowledge in schools (Burn and Mutton 2013).

Furthermore, co-teaching is not a common practice in teacher education (at least in the Netherlands), and the practice of mentors intervening in student teachers' lesson enactments is seen as difficult or sometimes even inappropriate. When implementing the approach in other partner schools, we also found mentor teachers mentioned several objections to this way of mentoring. They were afraid it would take a lot of time, they did not think they could have those types of discussions with their student teachers because they did not know how to do it, and, last but not least, they were afraid co-teaching would jeopardise their own and the student teachers' positions in the classroom. In their research on mentoring, Gardiner and Weisling (2015) found the same mentor fears about jeopardising student teachers' positions through intervention.

To support mentors and to make them more comfortable in their new roles, we expanded the preparations before the enactment of the CMA. In these new forms of preparation, mentors now practise making and discussing mind maps of their practical knowledge; they also discuss videotaped lessons of their own teaching and practise how to explicate their own teaching behaviour to others. The overall focus is on what they did, why they did it and with what effect. In these preparations, the help of experienced school-based teacher educators and an institute-based teacher educator proved to be supportive. The mentors also considered several opportunities to share this work with their student teachers. Small examples of co-teaching on video helped them to further overcome their worries and encouraged them to try the technique in their own way with student teachers. In the end, all the mentors undertook the CMA, and they (and their student teachers) found it a very satisfying and worthy experience, meaningful for all of them. The mentors also emphasised the importance of experiencing this approach with colleagues and together discussing co-teaching with a school-based teacher educator during their professional conversations. Hence, we have learned that implementation of CMA takes time and requires educational provision that can be characterised as 'fuzzy learning architectures'; these arrangements are not only based on formal courses but also on workplace learning opportunities with colleagues from school and the teacher education institute (Boyd and Harris 2010).

A second challenge is strongly related to the shared responsibilities for teacher education in a school-university partnership and is connected to the nature of the knowledge needed and the knowledge shared. In the Netherlands the desired outcomes of teacher education activities are formulated in a competence matrix and, with the help of rubrics, made accountable through a portfolio. Rubrics articulate the expectations for the assignment by listing the criteria or what counts and describe levels of quality from excellent to poor (Reddy and Andrade 2010). The rubrics used in the portfolios are derived from the teachers' competence matrix and five teacher roles (teacher as developer, performer of lessons, pedagogue, team member and professional, including doing practical research). Underlying this competence matrix is the knowledge base that is seen as the required, generalised body of pro-

fessional knowledge for teachers. Student teachers have to use these rubrics in their portfolios to demonstrate their growing competences and to justify their activities. Hence, these rubrics should mediate between university demands and actual performance and thinking in practice. However, as we found in the activities of Megan and Selma, these rubrics do not seem to be very useful in relating between these different educational contexts.

As Markauskaite and Goodyear (2014, p. 238) emphasised, in the climate of evidence-based practice and reflective thought, explicit and articulated forms of knowledge are the main focuses in teacher education, with less internally consistent and less well-articulated forms of knowledge (like practical knowledge) undervalued. But, as Cohen and Hill (2001, as cited in Mena et al. 2016) stated, attention given to specific knowledge is more effective in terms of professional development than general knowledge because of its relation with 'the particular' within learning to teach. Moreover, teachers discussing and reflecting their practice often use narrative and valuing appraisals (e.g. Mena Marcos et al. 2008; Gholami and Husu 2010). They talk about what can be done or what was done to realise at least some of the intended results or in terms more related to a 'moral ethos', that is, what could be done from the perspective of professional responsibilities generally and care for pupils specifically. To really value co-teaching and the related modelling and scaffolding of mentor teachers, the knowledge shared and produced in this practice should be seen as important and valuable for student teachers. This could be achieved, for instance, by making it an acknowledged and mandatory part of their portfolio stimulating them to use 'teacher language'.

Last but not least, institute-based teacher educators have to accept the idea that they are not the only sources of authority over the production of knowledge but they have to share this with those who actually teach in schools (see Ellis 2007). To realise this, institute-based teacher educators should develop (even) closer relationships with schools. This is not only to support student teachers but also to enable mutual learning with experienced teachers about (learning) teaching and learning and to collaboratively define the rubrics used in student teachers' portfolios.

11.6 Conclusion

CMA was developed as a means of sharing practical knowledge – both in lesson-based conversations and in actual teaching – with the help of modelling and scaffolding strategies. Studying the insider perspectives of mentors and student teachers in combination with the observations of practice in which CMA was enacted enables us to better understand how mentor teachers (can) take their (new) role as teacher educators supporting student teachers to 'integrate work and learning'. This integration is an important affordance for schools and aimed at student teachers developing their teaching competences and related practical knowledge. The guidance provided in CMA makes the school more of a learning environment rather than just a place where training is delivered and where student teachers can practise institutional

assignments. Moreover, modelling and scaffolding practical teaching knowledge – and the critical discussions with their student teachers about this knowledge – proved to be very informative for the mentor teachers as well. In this study, the valuing of their knowledge proved to be important, and, along with the preparation before starting the mentoring, this valuing supported them in rethinking and explicating their own teaching. As a result, the mentoring became a mutually beneficial learning process. As such, the mentoring approach and the modelling and scaffolding by mentors, although still difficult to enact, were considered a promising contribution to a pedagogy of work-based teacher education and to the continuing professional development of (mentor) teachers.

Co-teaching, modelling and scaffolding are not panaceas for all problems in teacher education, but this guidance provides opportunities to instantaneously support student teachers' teaching alongside talking about teaching. However, implementation of new ideas in practice is always related to how we – practitioners and researchers – think about good teaching and good teacher education. And we do not always agree on these matters. Different ideas about how student teachers should be educated and about the knowledge they have to develop will lead to (ethical) questions and the need for much dialogue between schools and universities – discussions that have just begun, discussions that take lots of time, which is unfortunately a rare affordance in the teaching profession. Sustainable partnerships between schools and universities are a start and a critical condition for the much-needed intensive collaboration and discussion in teacher education aimed at realising student teachers' support and based on the best of both worlds. And that is a challenging and far from easy thing to do.

To support this intensive collaboration, we need changes in teacher education policy both on a national and institutional level. Changes in the opportunities for research, professional development and sharing responsibilities are necessary. The required dialogues should be supported by further research about, i.e. mentor roles. At this time, it is almost impossible to find funding allowing institute-based and school-based teacher educators execute research aimed at co-construction of knowledge needed. As found by Czerniawski et al. (2017), teacher educators want to learn with colleagues and peers and be part of learning communities. At the moment these communities are very hard to organise, even in established partnerships, due to the siloed organisational cultures not only in higher educational institutes but also in schools. Modelling and scaffolding practical teaching knowledge as part of the pedagogy of work-based teacher education should become part of professional development activities of both school- and institute-based teacher educators. It will enable the development of the transversal competences of teacher educators needed for the work across and between schools and teacher education institutes (Murray 2016). Last but not least, in order to really acknowledge the importance of practical knowledge, it is important the Dutch government formally allows school-based teacher educators to be as responsible for final certification of teachers as institute-based teacher educators are right now. Student teachers should be asked to justify their actions with both types of knowledge, and portfolio formats must invite them to do so.

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Chapter 12
We Are All Teacher Educators Now: Understanding School-Based Teacher Educators in Times of Change in England

Gerry Czerniawski, Warren Kidd, and Jean Murray

Abstract Within the context of the European Commission's recent policy gaze on teacher education (European Commission, Improving teacher quality: The EU agenda – lifelong learning: policies and programme. Brussels, April 2010, EAC.B.2. D (2010) PSH, 2010; European Commission, Supporting teacher educators for better learning outcomes. European Commission, Brussels, 2013; European Commission, Strengthening teaching in Europe: new evidence from teachers compiled by Eurydice and CRELL, June 2015. Available from: http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/policy/teaching-profession-practices_en.pdf, 2015), this chapter contributes to an improved understanding of the hybrid, poly-contextualised identities of school-based teacher educators. At a time of systemic change in the education systems of many countries, teachers in schools are increasingly being asked to be responsible for the education and training of future teachers. Within the English backdrop of a rapidly changing landscape for teacher education, we present initial findings from a small-scale study exploring, through interview data, how the knowledge bases and identities of two groups of insiders, university and school-based teacher educators, were perceived by those hybrid teacher educators (Zeichner 2010) working in schools. Our findings reveal differences in school-based teacher educators' views on their work and the work of university-based teacher educators, school-based teacher educators' views on the role educational research has in the work they do and the ways in which different professional pathways (e.g. occupational/university; primary/secondary) influence views on what it means to be a teacher educator.

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12.1 Introduction

Proposals made by the European Commission have led to the Education Council adopting, for the first time, a European agenda (European Commission 2010, 2013) for improving the quality of teacher education for all countries within the European Union. The Commission, commenting on the professional identity of teacher educators, notes that:

> Effective cooperation requires common values for the profession and a shared responsibility for high quality teacher education. Therefore, teacher educators – no matter what role they play in teacher education or how they identify themselves – should have a clear, shared understanding of their roles and of the many aspects of quality of teaching. [European Commission. 2013: p9]

There are, however, different globalised, internationalised and localised understandings about how to educate teachers, the nature of what it means to be a professional teacher educator and what is meant by teaching 'quality' (Gewirtz et al. 2009; Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Czerniawski and Ulvik 2014). Even within national borders, differences in the constellations, configurations of influence and patterns of professional relationships ensure that the experience of being a teacher educator differs considerably for different individuals even within broadly similar contexts and settings. Similarly, making generalisations about the student-teacher experience can be problematic, despite the international trend in the adoption and implementation of professional standard frameworks and, in some cases, the increasing take-up of school-based and school-driven teacher education (White et al. 2015). Universities and schools differ in their teacher education programmes; university and school departments may vary in their interpretations of the knowledge, skills, practices, ethics, values and attributes that different frameworks prioritise. Teacher educators have their own styles, preferences and images of the 'ideal' teacher, based in part on their own student-teacher experience that will inform the ways in which they facilitate the professional development of their own student teachers. Furthermore, tensions, while not irresolvable, exist between the harmonisation of policies that might attempt to determine teacher education in different nation states, and the extent to which such policies are viewed appropriate and beneficial for pupils, teachers and their educators.

The chapter will briefly contextualise and outline recent developments in school-based teacher education in England before briefly outlining the research design for this study. The findings of the study are then discussed around three themes: differences in school-based teacher educators' views on their work and the work of university-based teacher educators, school-based teacher educators' views on the role educational research has in the work they do and the ways in which different pathways to becoming a teacher (e.g. occupational/university; primary/secondary) influence views on what it means to be a teacher educator. In so doing the study draws attention to the parameters of fuzziness that potentially surround, position and limit the work of all teacher educators in England.

12.2 School-Based Teacher Training: From Slow Trot to Fast Gallop

Over the last 20 years, the dominant policy agenda in many Western democracies has been to open up teacher education to market forces, deregulation and cost-cutting (Davey 2013; Grimmett 2009). Nowhere are these characteristics more prevalent and powerfully articulated than in England. While university and school partnerships have been a firmly embedded (and statutory) feature of teacher education since the 1992, the country's schools and universities have increasingly had to navigate their way through an environment of increased competition, *über* accountability and external evaluation. A variety of occupational or vocational pathways into teaching have subsequently emerged, all subject to professional teaching standards. Alongside existing more traditional university pre-service teacher education courses exist an array of occupational school-based (and salaried) training schemes that enable non-qualified teachers to start teaching in the classroom immediately, learning on-the-job from more experienced colleagues. With the exception of the traditional 3-year Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) degree course, historically associated with primary student-teacher pathways, both the university courses ('Post' and 'Professional' Graduate Certificate in Education [PGCE]) and the occupational pathways normally run for one academic year. The relatively short duration of these courses, combined with the legislative and standards-driven requirements that such courses have to abide by, limit the extent to which teacher educators can provide breadth and depth in the curriculum offered to student/trainee teachers. School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) programmes represent one strand of these occupational routes and are run by school consortia and colleges. School-based programmes in general offer courses that will award a 'recommendation' for Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) although in many cases this is *not* accompanied by a PGCE that has been validated by a higher education institution, therefore limiting the international currency such programmes possess.

With new professional standards for teachers, accompanied 'by a wider discourse of research-informed teaching' rather than 'scholarship-informed' (Gewirtz 2013), these developments mean that schools have replaced universities at the heart of the decision-making process in terms of who can/cannot be recruited into the profession. Furthermore both Schools Direct (SD) and SCITTS represent a significant threat to higher education institutions (HEIs) not just in terms of the decreasing student numbers (and therefore income) but also the extent to which educational research remains viable within the academy. McNamara and Murray (2013) argue that SD and the wider reforms that accompany these developments are radical in that they combine three elements:

- An ideologically driven understanding of teaching as essentially only a 'craft' rather than a complex and fundamentally intellectual activity
- An apprenticeship model of teacher training that can be located entirely in the workplace

- And the related and highly questionable assumption that a longer period of time spent in schools inevitably – and unproblematically – leads to better and 'more relevant' student learning [McNamara and Murray 2013: 14]

The authors of this chapter acknowledge these elements as challenges to teacher education in England across the multiple contexts into which teachers are socialised into their profession. In the next section of this chapter, we address the conceptual framework and methodology we use to capture and analyse the views of some of the teacher educators working in these contexts.

12.3 Research Design

The conceptual framework for this study draws, in part, on earlier work by (2002) that views teacher educators within higher education as *second-order practitioners* involved in the processes of (re)production of the discourses of the *first-order field*, within a partnership system of professional teachers and paraprofessionals working within schools. In line with earlier work (Murray et al. 2011), we see professional knowledge and identity as intricately related in the formation and development of teachers and the ways in which they choose to deploy their knowledge in professional practice. We draw on the notion of professional capital (Hargreaves and Fullan 2013) and the many ways in which that capital is deployed by the school-based teacher educators in this study.

This chapter reports on research with an opportunistic sample of school-based teacher educators in England. Twenty-two teacher educators drawn from two primary schools and four secondary took part in semi-structured interviews. The research design[1] enabled a dual focus on these participants both in their primary role as teachers and their secondary role as teacher educators. The six schools chosen for this study are, themselves, training schools. In terms of their own training trajectories as former student teachers, participants represent training routes from both university and occupational pathways. The research tools were designed to capture individual understandings and experiences of their identities and working lives in their dual roles as both teachers and teacher educators. However, this focus has been extended to elicit their views on the identities and knowledge bases of the university-based teacher educators they professionally engage with.

Some of the terminology in this paper (e.g. 'trainee teachers'; 'student teachers'; 'teacher education' and 'teacher training') reflects the often shifting and contested historical and discursive positioning of teacher education and those that are trained/educated. For this reason it is appropriate here to acknowledge that the terminology used reflects that often contested positioning but also the variations in usage by participants in this study. The decision has therefore, reluctantly, been taken to use

[1] See Czerniawski (2013) for a more detailed explanation of the research methodology deployed in this study.

the term ‘trainee’, where appropriate, to describe student teachers and those ‘trainee’ teachers who embark on occupational pathways to qualification (e.g. SCITT; Schools Direct, etc.). However, the authors of this chapter recognise the problematic nature of this term.

12.4 Findings

Our findings reveal differences in school-based teacher educators’ views on their work and the work of university-based teacher educators, school-based teacher educators’ views on the role educational research has in the work they do and the ways in which different professional pathways (e.g. occupational/university; primary/secondary) influence views on what it means to be a teacher educator. These three themes are briefly presented below.

12.4.1 I Train and They Educate

Most school-based teacher educators in this study differentiated themselves significantly from university-based counterparts in their views on the work they did, the relationships they had with their trainee teachers and the types of knowledge they engaged with. In almost all cases, the participants, unsurprisingly, identified themselves as first and foremost ‘teachers’ and, in most cases, viewed themselves as ‘teacher trainers’ rather ‘teacher educators’, the latter of whom they associated with the work of their university-based colleagues. As teachers and teacher educators, most participants identified their multifunctionality as symptomatic of working in ‘hectic’, ‘ever-changing’ and at times ‘chaotic’ school environments far removed from the ‘ivory tower’ environments they associated with those working in higher education.

The participants’ knowledge *of* teaching, as opposed to knowledge *about* teaching (Smith and Lev-Ari 2005), was emphasised as a key component of their work with student teachers. Despite only one participant using the word ‘pedagogy’, the knowledge of how to teach specific subjects, the use of appropriate resources and the ability to deploy a range of teaching strategies were all seen as elements that they could, should and did model to their student teachers. In relation to modelling, two mentors stressed the importance of teachers in this role. Expressed variously as ‘letting them become their own person’, ‘troubleshooting obstacles’ and ‘helping them through their journey’, mentoring was highlighted as a significant feature of their work with student teachers. Articulated alongside an equally powerful ethics of care, ‘tough love’, ‘professional mothers’ and ‘handholding’ were seen as features of their work, often couched in terms of its similarity to being ‘just like a teacher’. This mentoring role was often contrasted with what was seen as the more ‘formal’, ‘distant’ and ‘tick-box’ approach adopted by some university teacher

educators on their visits to schools. Melissa, for example, spoke of the way that she and her colleagues in school would:

> …watch the trainees sitting down with their tutors and it seemed that they came over as the 'expert', that they would be telling them how they should be doing it and how they needed to do this to get a higher grade [Melissa, primary school-based teacher educator]

If the knowledge of school-based teacher educators was generally characterised by this group of insiders as 'hands-on', 'practical' and 'realistic', then the knowledge of their colleagues working in universities was often seen as more 'holistic, 'theoretical', 'academic' and 'removed'. And while knowledge *of* teaching was the domain laid claim to by teacher educators in schools, then knowledge *about* teaching (e.g. different student teaching learning patterns, adult pedagogic and modelling strategies and experiential knowledge of different schooling systems) was perceived to be an area of knowledge more likely to be embedded within those teacher educators working in universities. A further distinction was made between those colleagues in university whose primary purpose, as ex-teachers themselves, was to 'support' and 'nurture' their student teachers and those colleagues who, for some, seemed 'out of touch', 'close to retirement' and/or 'more interested in their own research'.

It was generally accepted that teacher educators working in universities had a much better understanding of the assessment criteria to pass the courses, the 'mountains of paperwork' associated with the student-teacher experience and 'the many hoops they needed to jump through' to pass the course. Most participants conveyed their belief that it was essential that teacher educators in universities must be former teachers. It was also generally thought that teacher educators in university would and should know about 'research' in teacher education. It is to the often ambiguous and contradictory views held about what research is and who should carry this out that we now wish to turn to in this chapter.

12.4.2 Research-Informed Practice and School-Based Teacher Educators

The recent BERA-RSA (2014) inquiry into research and the teaching profession in the UK states that 'schools and colleges become research-rich environments in which to work' (BERA-RSA 2014:2). Findings in this study problematise this seemingly straightforward assertion. In earlier work we (Murray et al. 2011) have identified a distinction made by university-based teacher educators between research with a small (r) and capital (R). This distinction is evidenced here with school-based participants in this study. Small 'r' research, akin to Boyer's (1990) 'scholarship of teaching', is seen here, for example, as the reading around preparation of lessons, new subject disciplines and its associated pedagogy. Capital 'R' research is meant here as the production of new knowledge brought about through research activity and often associated with the gathering of primary data.

When asked about their position on the role of research in the work they did, participants' responses varied in terms of its importance and significance although most believed they 'should be involved' in 'some sort of research'. Most, for example, made claim to small 'r' research playing a role in the work they did both as teachers and teacher educators. Variously expressed as 'reading up on subject matter', 'looking at articles in newspapers', 'reading for preparing lessons' and 'updating my subject knowledge', subject mentors and coordinating mentors tended to prioritise these elements above updating their subject pedagogy. The latter activity was conveyed through 'attending exam board' training, 'copious use of twitter' and some 'staff inset' sessions. More experienced mentors talked of the need to 'be knowledgeable about school policies', the 'latest developments in SEN' and, in relation to teacher education, 'the wealth' and 'mountain' of information that 'floods in from the universities' in relation to their student-teacher courses. Time constraints were constantly flagged up as a limiting factor on the extent to which teacher educators in schools could keep abreast of the requisite knowledge required to train teachers with one participant stating that 'research is paramount but I rarely get the chance to look at research now'.

Examples of school-based 'capital R' research activity included 'action research', 'pupil shadowing', involvement in 'student voice initiatives' focused on 'raising achievement' and projects linked to 'assessment for learning', 'the use of questioning strategies' and 'the level of challenge pitched in lessons'. However, ambiguous and at times contradictory positions were adopted around the extent to which this sort of research was, or should be, a defining feature of the work school-based educators carried out. School-based research was often couched, instrumentally, in terms of the strategic 'outcomes we (senior staff in the school) have in mind' and with an examination results focus on 'A-Stars in the classroom'. Those who were actively involved in research spoke about how it provided 'opportunities to reflect on their practice, 'time to talk to colleagues about what actually goes on in the classroom' and 'a valuable form of CPD [Continuing Professional Development]'. University colleagues were generally accepted as having greater 'knowledge' and 'experience' of 'doing research' although at times this was not necessarily conveyed enthusiastically. Three mentors, for example, commented on how teacher educators in universities needed to become more involved in schools if there was to be an effective 'partnership' between schools and universities over school-based research. For some other participants however, being involved in research was seen less attractively, particularly if they had received their own education and training from occupational pathways:

> My role as a teacher must come first – your priority is a teacher and my role in teacher training gives me an edge coz I'm still in the classroom, head of department and that must come first and a long way down the line above doing any sort of research project. [Christine, secondary subject mentor]

A former B.Ed. student and subject mentor, commenting on the significance of research and the 'value-added' university-based teacher educators bring to the lives of her student teachers, stated that:

> Equality and Gender is more than a training session on equal opportunities. Those in universities need to know policy, how it is informed, and where the theoretical basis for that policy has come from. Some subject areas may implicitly 'get' these differences but others won't and that is where the university must step in [Maureen, secondary subject mentor]

This bifurcation in situating the significance of research in the work of educators in schools and universities is further exemplified by this subject mentor saying that:

> We all know what outstanding teaching and learning looks like. Universities might have a greater understanding of the research that underpins it whereas in schools it is based on what we see rather than what we read. [Simon, secondary subject mentor]

However, despite these, at times, varying and contradictory views on the significance of research for school-based teacher educators, the roles of university colleagues were generally seen as a valuable part of the professional development of future teachers:

> We *must* keep university input – schools can fully support with classroom practice, but we are far less confident with the academic, research side of it. Simply – because we do not have the time to keep up. We do action research in school but that's *different*. We can't keep up with the academic research, or the resources associated with it, or the international side that is so important when understanding what it means to train teachers well [Peter, secondary subject mentor]

This response exemplifies the many fears expressed by those interviewed in this study regarding the potential changes in relationship between universities and schools, the time constraints imposed on teachers in general within this new policy climate and the limited resources available to carry out research in both its forms. It also exemplifies a potential for identity dissonance (Boyd and Tibke 2012) when attempting to juggle the often-competing demands associated with being a teacher and teacher educator.

12.4.3 Different Pathways, Different Values?

A tentative finding of this study, and one that deserves further research, emerged around the extent to which the pathway school-based teacher educators took when they, themselves, trained as teachers affected their perceptions of what it meant to be a teacher educator. As authors of this paper, we had, for example, assumed that those teacher educators who had received longer periods of training (e.g. on the 3-year B.Ed. degree route) might have been more critical of shorter courses in the development of their own knowledge base. However, responses revealed ambiguous and contradictory views from one particular group of (n = 4) teacher educators, all of who worked in primary schools and whose training took between 3 and 4 years. This particular group of teacher educators' extended period of study was, in their eyes, juxtaposed with the 'short', 'crammed' and 'superficial' experience they felt their own student teachers received on 1-year PGCE courses. Furthermore, as teacher educators, they tended to favour, for their own student teachers, the equally

short occupational pathways (in contrast to the PGCE experience) in their ability to provide more 'relevant', 'practical' and 'hands-on' experience arguing that their student teachers were being grounded, more quickly, in the 'reality' of teaching through this particular pathway. In part these views from primary teacher educators could be explained by the greater time spent that primary teachers have with their own pupils and the time invested in their own training. Most primary school teachers will be completely responsible for the educational development of *all* pupils within one particular class rather than the shared responsibility many teachers have when working with pupils in secondary schools. A point emphasised by one experienced mentor (herself the deputy head teacher of her primary school) saying that student teachers 'have to be me'. She went on to say that:

> Quite simply the system of training at the moment does not work. The PGCE, a route instinctively, I prefer but is quite simply too short and while I absolutely believe student teachers need a wide experience in different schools during their training, in a primary school this is problematic because of the nature of what we do. So I am looking for a student teacher, from day one, who can replicate what I do in the classroom, quickly with me there throughout the year to pick up the pieces. [Janine, primary coordinating mentor]

This replication and the assumption that what is being replicated is good practice is one of the more unsettling findings in this study. This diminution in the opportunity for critical reflective practice resonates with recent emerging literature on school-based teacher educators (see White et al. 2015; Boyd and Tibke 2012).

Across the board, criticism was widely voiced by those interviewed for the PGCE experience as a vehicle in the development of a future teaching workforce. Seen as 'hardly the Finnish model' with only '1 year in which to cram everything in', one mentor, in particular, who had received his training via the PGCE route talked of this route as 'very much a training course with not much opportunity to be educated as such'. Another former PGCE participant said that his course would have been 'brilliant if it had been longer with more chance to get to grips with the ideas we studied'. One mentor speaking about 1-year preparatory courses in general felt that 'we are limiting their [future teachers] career opportunities by not giving them the academic rigour they need'. Another described such courses in general as 'monkey see monkey do' – trainees do what they need to do to pass the course rather than what textbooks say about what is good/bad teaching.

It was notable that the 'gate keeping' role that we identified in an earlier study (Murray et al. 2011) continues for some teacher educators in terms of the ability to decide who should/should not become teachers. At the time of writing this chapter, there are many gates and many paths. Gate keeping was a domain of university-based teacher educators identified by school-based teachers in this study although *not* by those who had come through occupational pathways. Those that worked in higher education were singled out as being 'strong enough to say this is not necessarily the right direction for them' as well as being able to 'have that distance' and 'spot true potential'. This gate keeping role was aligned with another quality associated with those working in higher education, that of the 'challenge agent'. Having 'experience of working in a wide variety of different school settings', and, in some cases, different phases, was seen as valued professional capital (Hargreaves and

Fullan 2013), further differentiating the work of teacher educators in universities from their school-based colleagues.

12.5 Discussion

This chapter argues that while similarity in developments of policy-making is taking place in teacher education internationally, the pace of change varies considerably and the nature of those changes far from predictable. Ozga and Jones (2006) remind us that while 'travelling policy' may be shaped by globalising trends, 'embedded' policy is 'mediated by local contextual factors that may translate policy to reflect local priorities and meanings' (Ozga and Jones 2006:1). It has also been argued elsewhere (Czerniawski 2010) that cultural specificities exist that can account for the variety of ways policies are interpreted and implemented at national, regional and local levels. Making generalisations in a study of this size is unwise; however, the findings do contribute to a greater understanding of school-based teacher education at a time when many countries are increasingly developing their own school-based models of teacher education. Under the watchful and (in most cases) caring eyes of qualified teachers, whose primary *raison d'être* is to educate their pupils, England represents, at times, a frightening glimpse into an uncertain future for teacher education and the implications that future has for critical reflective practice. Within an international context in which teacher education is often positioned as a 'policy problem' (Mayer 2013; Grimmett 2009), there is a danger that many teacher educators lose sight of what their primary focus should be – the preparation of future professional teachers who are equipped to develop young people to play their part in the formation of a socially, economically and environmentally just and viable society. The findings in this chapter reveal how much more complex such a focus can be when teacher education increasingly moves into schools. In England the many structural differences between different types of school play a significant role in teacher education and professional development limiting the potential decisional and social capital of a future teaching workforce. The pick'n'mix array of comprehensive, grammar, specialist, 'faith' and independent schools in England must therefore raise concern for those preparing to teach on school-based programmes where the pressure is to train future teachers or, as one of our participants said, 'mould them' for that particular school rather than for *all* schools. To be trained to become critical reflective practitioners, teachers require many mirrors – many significant others (Mead 1934; Czerniawski 2010). Limiting the exposure of becoming a teacher to just one school is likely to therefore limit the opportunities student teachers have to access the valuable knowledge capital of experienced colleagues who work in different and varied educational settings.

A second concern emerges related to the rise of measurement cultures in education at national and supranational levels (Biesta 2008). Smith (2011), for example, drawing attention to international discussions around evidence-based teacher education, warns that this can 'easily lead to a top-down culture of evidence in which

all teacher education has to be planned according to the "what works" principle' (Smith 2011, p.341). The extent to which schools in England have felt obliged to respond and reflect these measurement cultures is well documented (see Gewirtz 2013; Ball 2003). With increasingly narrow school curricula dominating school-teaching time tables, often at the expense of extracurricular activities (e.g. music, sport, school visits), many school-based teacher educators, as reported in this study, are under pressure to focus their student teachers on getting pupils 'A*s' rather than working within a broader holistic vision of what education is. Our concerns here are the extent to which teacher education can retain and enhance its ethical, moral, theoretical and practical commitment to what Kari Smith calls 'teachership' (Smith 2011). The alternative risks producing and reproducing, in school-based teacher education, 'cultures of compliance and a narrowly technicist approach to the education of teachers' (Gewirtz 2013, p. 10).

One working hypothesis that the authors of this chapter had was around the notion that the pathway that individual school-based teacher educators took might colour their own professional identities as teacher educators working in schools. This hypothesis turned out to be too naïve, too simplistic. The findings in our study indicate that differences do emerge, partially but not exclusively dependent on routes into teaching, in the views of school-based teacher educators about the role of research in teacher education. The findings show that the school-based teacher educators in this study, in general, value educational research, value opportunities to engage in that research and value the professional capital university-based teacher educators have in terms of their knowledge and understanding of that research. However, our findings would indicate that, in the eyes of many school-based teacher educators, the 'Ivory Tower' still stands limiting the efficacy of its inhabitants to effectively educate and train its student teachers. The findings also indicate that those in the tower may need to consider the extent to which they can engage more in school-based training activities, the professional development of teachers and the professional development of school-based teacher educators.

At this juncture the authors acknowledge one elephant-in-the-room in the guise of the English PGCE (both types). Almost all participants in this study regarded their school-based practicum as playing a far greater role in their professional development in becoming qualified teachers than their student-teacher experience at their universities. While this, in part, can be attributed to the theory/practice gap often associated with the professional socialisation and development of all teachers (Korthagen 2010), the PGCE was generally regarded by most participants in this study as inferior to either the occupational pathways or 3-year degree programmes many participants had followed. We should add that the authors are not implying PGCE courses are inferior to other forms of teacher preparation (not least because of our own roles as teacher educators on PGCE courses at our own institutions). Rather, the shortness of duration in these courses (e.g. 36 weeks for secondary PGCEs in England) necessarily limits the extent to which 'theory' can be sufficiently introduced, discussed, applied and critically evaluated by students and those that educate them. Within this time-constrained context, the introduction of theory to many student teachers seems far removed from the realities of the classroom, and

this strengthened, for some participants, their support for the more practical focus of occupational pathways. While this finding is in itself not new (see Boyd and Tibke 2012), what is significant for this study is the increasing numbers of teacher educators now working in schools who have been trained on occupational routes. These teacher educators' experiences of becoming teachers are framed, in part, by their own limited engagement with higher education when they were training to become teachers. Their distancing from higher education combined with the perception that educational theory is of little significance when carrying out 'hands-on' teaching is further bolstered by the perception that many PGCE student teachers themselves see much of the theory they engage with as irrelevant to their own practice. Such perceptions may well 'fit' conveniently with the recent UK coalition government's policy rhetoric and discourses of derision (Ball 2005) surrounding the role of universities in preparing future teachers. However, these perceptions do not fit international evidence (e.g. OECD 2011; European Commission 2015) in relation the role that universities play in the development of teachers working within the top performing countries. We would argue, therefore, that greater time is needed to prepare teachers within higher education (in partnership with schools) and engaging them with the practical, ethical, theoretical and moral dimensions that contribute to becoming a teacher rather than a wholesale transfer of teacher education into schools.

Within the context of the Europeanisation of teacher education, this chapter has been fundamentally concerned with the knowledge bases and identities of teacher educators. The authors recognise that in most cases, teacher educators in all locations carry out their work with integrity, passion and a fundamental commitment to social justice. At a time when many countries are increasing their provision of school-based teacher education, the authors are concerned that a fast gallop to radical change can often bring with it unforeseen externalities. In this particular case these externalities might include:

1. The diminution of the role that research plays informing the quality of initial teacher education and teacher professionalism. Gewirtz (2013) argues that the danger in talking about *research-informed* teacher education is that rather than critically reflecting and questioning taken-for-granted assumptions this particular discourse reinforces a reductionist, techno-engineering model of teaching where teachers, uncritically, implement 'what works'. These concerns have been picked up in the BERA-RSA Inquiry into the role of research in teacher education (BERA 2014) and the Carter Review (2015).
2. Teachers developing limited and limiting pedagogies as a result of being trained and prepared to teach in *one* school rather than being *educated* to teach in *all* schools. As part of a deregulation agenda, the shift in the locus of control of teacher education from universities to schools has the potential to shift 'the focus from pedagogy to content knowledge and verbal expression, maintaining [the belief] that pedagogy and professional learning are best acquired on the job' (Grimmett 2009, p. 10).

3. The diminution in the authority and availability of university-based teacher educators offering high-quality research-informed advice, guidance and support to student/trainee teachers as they increasingly are involved in 'relationship maintenance' (Ellis et al. 2011). The fear here is that as universities become ever more reliant on schools to engage their services, universities and university tutors prioritise partnership arrangements with specific schools and colleges over and above the research and supervision required to ensure the high quality of the practicum in general.

12.6 Conclusion

At the start of this chapter, we referred to the fuzziness that characterises teacher education and training in England. Its parameters are multiple, overlapping and contradictory. It engulfs what we mean by 'research', who should carry it out and for whose purpose it serves. For those working in schools, fuzziness exists around the extent to which school-based teacher educators should, and are able to, prioritise the teaching and learning of their pupils above and beyond that of their student teachers; for those preparing to become teachers themselves, it exists around the reality of being in the classroom and the differing 'takes' on that reality in the eyes of their school-based and university-based teacher educators; fuzziness surrounds the debate about where student teachers should be trained/educated and the extent to which higher education institutions should be involved; and finally fuzziness can obscure, in the eyes of the public, its perception of university and work-based teacher education and the nature of who can, cannot, should and should not teach.

Epistemological and ontological uncertainty and incoherence in teacher education create spaces into which overly simplistic definitions of teaching as 'craft', teacher knowledge as 'practical' and teacher education as an 'apprenticeship' emerge. The sorcerer's apprentice found himself in deep water mimicking the actions of his master without the requisite skills, knowledge and attributes developed over time with rigour, scholarship and practice. This study draws attention to the fact that many teacher educators working in English schools, in the past, have engaged with varying degrees of hybridised discourses centred around *both* practice and theory. This synergy emerges, in part, out of their own previous experiences as student teachers within the academy and a system of university-/school-based partnerships. However, findings from this study also draw attention to the fact that that this system risks being replaced by school-based teacher educators situated and positioned within limiting monocultural understandings of what teacher education is or indeed should be. It also risks the marginalisation and eventual disappearance of a theory-informed future teaching profession.

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Chapter 13
Strategies Employed by Pre-service Teacher Educators in Ireland in Order to Develop Second-Order Knowledge

Rose Dolan

Abstract The National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 in Ireland (Hunt C. National strategy for higher education to 2030. Higher education authority. Department of Education and Skills, Dublin, 2011) recommends that academics should have access to professional development opportunities to develop their knowledge of teaching, as well as their disciplinary knowledge. Teacher educators who enter universities after careers as school teachers tend to have high levels of understanding and competence in pedagogy. But they need not only to be able to teach: they must also be able to teach teaching. Professional development needs therefore include opportunities to transmute their knowledge-in-action into knowledge-of-practice knowledge that integrates both theoretical constructs and practical knowledge. Using data from a series of case studies of teacher educators on a pre-service programme in an Irish university, this chapter describes and conceptualises the strategies employed by teacher educators in order to transmute this knowledge-in-action and to use it to teach student teachers.

13.1 Introduction

Those who become teacher educators in the Republic of Ireland do so without any requirement to register with a professional body, without any formal period of study of the foundation disciplines of teacher education and of appropriate pedagogical strategies for teaching adults and with no formally supervised practice of teaching. This is not unique to Ireland for, although many Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), in Ireland, the UK and beyond, now offer courses on teaching in higher education, in almost all European countries, one becomes a teacher educator without any formal qualification, preparation or induction into the role (Kosnik 2008).

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Two key European Commission policy documents, *the Green Paper on Teacher Education in Europe* (Buchberger et al. 2000) and *Supporting Teacher Educators for Better Learning Outcomes* (European Commission 2013), have highlighted concern about the lack of training for and induction into the teacher education profession, including appropriate methodologies for working with adult learners. The Green Paper drew attention to the low professional qualifications of teacher educators when compared with other fields of professional education and proposed reviewing and raising these through the introduction of coherent staff development programmes , while the European Commission called for the development of a 'number of systemic conditions' (2012: 37) to enhance the profession, including a legislative framework/regulatory mechanism and an explicit policy framework for all those who educate teachers. Although post-graduate qualifications for teaching in higher education may be obtained in many universities, there is no requirement for beginning teacher educators to acquire such a qualification. The ESCalate study (Murray 2005) showed that those who made the transition from school to university were generally perceived to be qualified to teach and therefore exempt from such qualifications, despite the fact that they may not have had any experience of teaching adults or of learning about andragogical principles.

This chapter styles the processes that six teacher educators used to develop professionally in their new role as second-order practitioners and the spaces where this development took place. As such, it is located in a theoretical framework that draws upon the concept of learning communities: the community of practice as described by Wenger (1998), the community of inquiry (Senge 1990; Cochran-Smith and Lytle 1999; Cochran-Smith 2003) and the discourse community (Swales 1988), in order to frame the locations for learning. Literature pertaining to the mid-career transition from teacher to teacher educator (see Table 13.1) provides a frame within which the change in orientation from teacher to teacher educator is considered.

Table 13.1 Emergent themes from the literature on teacher educator transition

Theme	Literature
The importance of prior experiences of teaching and learning as a student, as a teacher, as a cooperating teacher with student teachers, as an in-service tutor with experienced teachers	Bullough (1997), Russell (1997), Murray and Male (2005), Dinkelman et al. (2006), Berry (2007a), Martinez (2008), Cuenca (2010), Grierson (2010), Williams and Ritter (2010), and Wood and Borg (2010)
The presence of an informal mentoring system within the institution, particularly within the department or faculty	Murray (2005), Dinkelman et al. (2006), Kosnik and Beck (2008), and Grierson (2010)
The effect of interactions with student teachers in different contexts	Dinkelman et al. (2006), Berry (2007b), Ritter (2007), Cuenca (2010), and Grierson (2010)
Opportunities to engage with the larger academic community and the literature pertaining to teacher education	Zeichner (2005); Dinkelman et al. (2006); Ritter (2007); Grierson (2010); Wood and Borg (2010)

13.2 Transition from Teacher to Teacher Educator

For those who come from the ranks of the schoolteacher into the world of teacher education in Higher Education, conceptual difficulties with respect to identity and to expertise almost always arise. These former schoolteachers move from a position of expertise in their subject disciplines to a novice position as teacher educators. As schoolteachers, they were first-order practitioners in the first-order setting of the school, but as teacher educators they are second-order practitioners working with first-order practitioners, i.e. the student teacher (Murray 2002). This resulted in a mid-career transition from teacher to teacher educator with an ensuing change in professional identity and a need to acquire new professional knowledge and understanding (Murray and Male 2005). Their craft knowledge is often denied in this new setting, particularly if it is practice – rather than research-based. As they move from teachers teaching in the first-order setting to teacher educators with an expertise in teaching and learning about teaching, they often find that there is little or no direct transfer of pedagogic knowledge and experience, no formal preparation and little or no support from experienced colleagues (Kosnik and Beck 2008). In such scenarios, their knowledge of teaching can remain static since it was developed for a different purpose, that of teaching a school subject rather than of teaching teachers of school subjects. This is particularly true for part-time teacher educators, many of whom may be simultaneously teaching in school and in a HEI and consequently spanning both first- and second-order settings on a daily basis.

According to Russell, the cognitive process of becoming a teacher educator "has the potential to generate a second level of thought about teaching" (Russell 1997: 44) where the focus is on the process of teaching rather than on the content, requiring the teacher educator to be able to articulate his/her pedagogical rationale to the student teachers. This is echoed by Loughran (2006) who indicates that the teacher educator has a responsibility which goes beyond merely modelling the type of teaching that is expected from a student teacher. Loughran (1997) also describes four dimensions of professional knowledge of teaching about teaching, including an understanding of:

- Student teachers' needs and concerns in their transition from student to teacher
- Appropriate ways and times of challenging their beliefs about teaching and learning
- A range of school teaching situations (content, year level, etc.)
- Approaches and practices in supervision, pedagogy and teaching about teaching (Loughran 1997: 4)

Lunenberg (2002) indicates four extra dimensions that teacher educators require above and beyond what they know as teachers:

- An understanding of the adult learner
- An ability to bridge the gap between theory and practice both for self and for the student teachers
- Being a role model who can communicate actions at metalevel

- A reflective capacity, both for oneself and for development with the student teachers (Lunenberg 2002: 266)

Murray and Male's (2005) research with beginning teacher educators highlighted five areas in which teacher educators acquired new professional knowledge and understanding during their first 3 years as teacher educators:

1. Pedagogical knowledge and experience appropriate to being a teacher educator
2. Enhancement and generalisation of their existing knowledge base of schooling
3. Developing an identity as a researcher
4. Developing ways of working with mentors in school-based settings
5. Acquiring pragmatic knowledge of the higher education institution and how it operated (Murray and Male 2005, p. 130)

These studies indicate the importance of pedagogical knowledge at two levels, one that is appropriate for teaching the student teachers and the other that teaches how to teach in the first-order setting.

This process of moving from first-order to second-order practice has been described in the literature in a number of ways. There are self-studies of the transition (e.g. Grierson 2010; Wood and Borg 2010; Cuenca 2010), papers that combine a case study approach with self-study (e.g. Dinkelman et al. 2006a, b) and small-scale studies that employed qualitative and/or quantitative strategies to examine this transition (e.g. Murray 2002, 2005; Murray and Male 2005; Kosnik and Beck 2008; Martinez 2008; Boyd and Harris 2010; McKeon and Harrison 2010; Shagrir 2010). Some of these studies describe those who joined the education faculty as full-time members of staff (Murray 2002, 2005; Murray and Male 2005; Martinez 2008; Boyd and Harris 2010; McKeon and Harrison 2010; Shagrir 2010), while others highlight the issues for those who were occasional staff or graduate students working in the area of pre-service teacher education (Cuenca 2010; Grierson 2010; Wood and Borg 2010; Dinkelman et al. 2006a, b; Kosnik and Beck 2008). The literature also describes three different roles for the pre-service teacher educator: supervision of the practicum (Cuenca 2010; Dinkelman et al. 2006a, b), teaching the professional studies components (Grierson 2010) and lecturing in the foundation disciplines. Interestingly, no papers relating to the experience of those who lecture in the foundation disciplines of education were found in the literature search. This may be due to the fact that this group may come into an education department from full-time doctoral studies in the foundation discipline rather than from teaching in schools and may identify with the academic parent discipline rather than with the field of education. The nature of the teacher educator's work is different within each of these roles mentioned above since they may be teaching through one-to-one interactions (supervision of the practicum), small group seminars (professional studies components) and/or large group lectures (generic professional studies). An analysis of the literature about learning to be a teacher educator highlighted other common themes:

While these are common themes emerging from the literature, it must also be acknowledged that the literature does not emerge from a homogenous educational

system. It draws from different national systems of education, e.g. England, Canada, the USA, Australia, Israel and the Netherlands, and must be considered within that context. Differences exist within these systems both at institutional and faculty/departmental levels, especially in terms of the recruitment criteria for teacher educators and the ways in which the ITE programmes are configured in relation to the role of school and university. Nonetheless, these themes provided an initial framework for the gathering of data and the subsequent analysis of data gathered.

13.3 Methodology

The research design for this study is ethnographic and is located in a situational ethnomethodological framework, i.e. it is concerned with the world of everyday life (Cohen et al. 2007: 23). This framework seeks to understand the ways in which people make sense of their environment through assumptions that they make, practices that they utilise and conventions that they employ (Cohen et al. (2007): 23). The educational history of the teacher educator is constructed and analysed in the social and cultural context in which it occurred, allowing for insight into the way in which their dynamic personal professional skills and abilities developed within that historical and educational context. Yin (2009) describes case study research as an enquiry into an existing phenomenon within the context in which it occurs. Since it takes cognisance of both effect and context, it is particularly suitable when professional development is the phenomenon, allowing an understanding of the specific world occupied by individuals (Cohen et al. 2007). Semi-structured interviews with teacher educators were used to construct their educational life history biographies. The research was designed around one specific location, an education department in a university. This gave both a common frame of reference for all of the case study subjects and insights into the way in which his/her professional learning was influenced by the historical and current educational context within which the ITE programme operated.

The type of case study undertaken in this research is both exploratory and interpretive, seeking to develop an understanding of the processes employed in teacher educators' learning. The bounded system that constitutes the case is the individual teacher educator, yielding six case studies and a multiple-case design (Stake 2006), employing both literal and theoretical replication logic (Yin 2009). In literal replication, the cases were selected to provide the same or similar results, whereas in theoretical replication, selections were made to provide contrasting results but for reasons that could be anticipated (Yin 2009).

Case study one was the longest serving lecturer in the foundation disciplines of education (see Fig. 13.1), and this was paired with case study two, the most recent appointment as lecturer in the foundation disciplines. This literal replication was followed for case studies three and four, with supervision of the practicum as the common denominator and, for case studies five and six, using professional studies

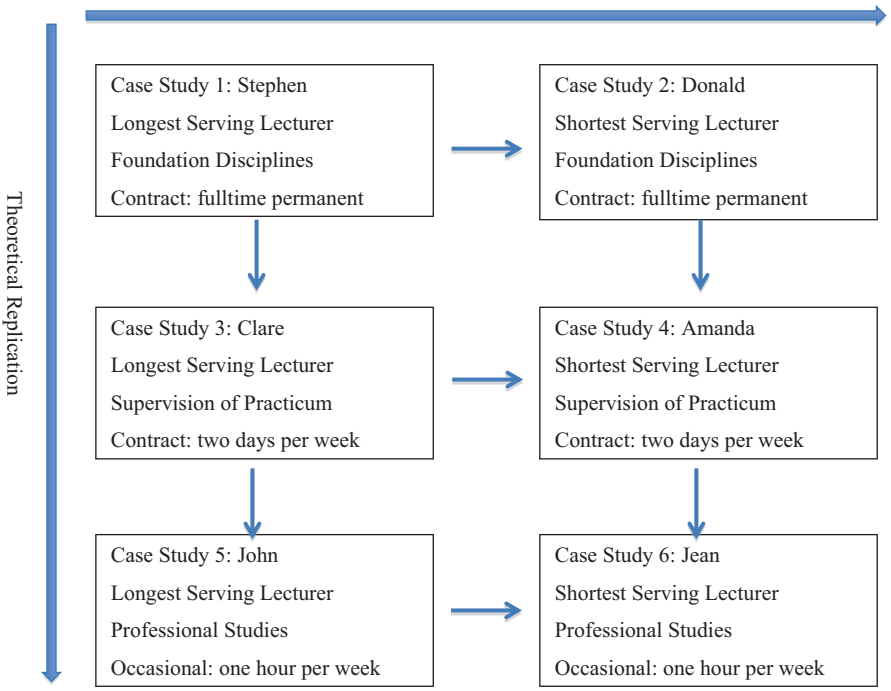

Fig. 13.1 Case study replications

as the common denominator on that occasion (Fig. 13.1). Theoretical replication was based on the length of employment with a contrast in the nature of the contract from permanent to part-time to occasional. Case studies one, three and five fitted the theoretical replication model as did case studies two, four and six.

Data gathered included educational life history interviews, document analysis (course handbooks, university calendars, national documents, written material pertaining to student teacher observation) and video of teaching of each of the case study subjects. Data coding used a framework of processes engaged with and the places where these processes occurred and were then analysed using HyperRESEARCH, a computer software programme for qualitative data analysis.

The use of multiple sources of evidence contributed to a process of triangulation of the data. In addition, each teacher educator reviewed his/her draft case study report in order to ensure that the report accurately represented the information given for the construction of the reports. A degree of pattern matching, through searching for common themes across cases, provides some internal validity within the multi-case study approach employed (Yin 2009). Literal and theoretical replication, combined with cross-case analysis, added further to the degree of robustness of the research design and subsequent analysis.

13.4 Findings

13.4.1 Developing Second-Order Knowledge

Engaging in activities that lead to reflection-on-action was one of the first steps taken by all of the second-order practitioners. These intrapersonal processes included such activities as reflection, analysis, writing, reading and researching. Such solitary processes occurred in the car while travelling between schools (Clare and Amanda), in the office in work or the study at home (Stephen and Donald) and in the act of designing the lecture (Donald, Jean and John). Initially this involved a reflection on experience as a first-order practitioner and distilling this experience into the hints and tips to be passed on to the teacher, as illustrated by Jean, the newest second-order practitioner, when she says *On the very first day …I give them out a list, the top ten tips for … teachers.*[1] While this type of knowledge is specifically mentioned in the interviews with the beginning second-order practitioners, most particularly Jean and Amanda, it is less obvious in the interviews with the more experienced second-order practitioners. This indicates that, at some point in their development as teacher educators, the focus of the reflection-on-action changed, leading to the development of a different kind of knowledge.

The teacher educators generated their second-order knowledge of teaching through reflection on and articulation of their first-order teaching practices and also second-order knowledge developed from observation of others' first-order teaching practices and subsequent reflection on and articulation of these. Clare described how she acted as a conduit for sharing student teachers' practices with each other as she travelled from school to school while Donald shared the *work of others [experienced teachers]* and research that he and Stephen had conducted with schools and with teachers in order to *introduce students [student teachers] to this work.* The move from articulation of context-specific craft knowledge to universally applicable craft knowledge requires the teacher educator to engage with his/her own craft knowledge in a different way. In this instance, there is an imperative to go beyond a narrative, i.e. the telling of the story, into a more analytical or reflective process. The teacher educator had to distil from the narrative those actions that are context-specific and articulate the decision-making process behind them. This requires an ability to be reflective about one's own practice within a larger context than that in which the experience occurred. It is also dependent on exposure to influences and ways of thinking that are wider than the current experience of the teacher educator.

Developing second-order knowledge was assisted by other processes in which the teacher educator engaged, namely, reading and ongoing study. The type of educational literature that teacher educators read related to their roles, as well as their career stage. Stephen and Donald read the more formal literature of the foundation

[1] Sections that are in italics are direct quotes from the interviews with the case study subjects.

disciplines, e.g. Philosophy of Education, Educational Psychology, Sociology of Education and History of Education, as well as research pertaining to teaching and learning, while Clare and Amanda read books that were specifically about practices of teaching and learning. John's reading was eclectic, spanning topics about subject-specific teaching and general educational principles, while Jean did not mention any specific texts that she had consulted, referencing instead conversations with others as her main source of information.

Further professional development occurred when the teacher educator engaged in publishing the results of their deliberations through engaging in research and academic writing. The processes involved in both researching and writing are also processes for intrapersonal learning and Stephen, Donald and John engaged in these processes, although not always in their role as teacher educators. All three have written about teaching and learning in Irish schools, either on a subject-specific theme (Donald and John) or on more general matters (Stephen and Donald). In addition, Stephen had written and published extensively in his foundation discipline. All three had written as a result of engaging in research for their Ph.D. studies (Stephen and John), in research projects (Stephen and Donald) and/or in CPD work with teachers (Stephen, Donald and John). Three teacher educators had not engaged in professional writing, namely, Clare, Amanda and Jean. This can be understood in a couple of ways. Firstly, their respective roles in ITE (supervisor or subject-specific methodology lecturer) did not require them to research or publish about their practices. The second reason for this may be that teaching was embedded in their professional identities but that they had little experience of writing for publication (Knowles and Cole 1995).

Writing within one's area was a significant professional development step since it allowed the teacher educator to articulate, in a more permanent way, the stances and understandings that he/she has developed through the processes of reflection, reading and analysis. Writing served not only to clarify one's own position but also allowed the author to share that position with the wider community and to become 'knowledge producers' as well as 'knowledge consumers' (Cochran-Smith and Lytle 1999). The absence of this process potentially restricts the teacher educator to a role as 'knowledge consumer' and also retains his/her knowledge as local and transient.

13.4.2 The Local Community

While the processes described earlier played a significant role in the professional development of the teacher educator, they do not represent the entire story. The nature of the work, teaching student teachers on an ITE programme, requires interactions with others, and it is in these interactions that the second overarching group of processes, namely, interpersonal processes, is found.

13.4.3 One-to-One Interactions

The one-to-one processes occur as face-to-face interactions, allowing learning to take place through both verbal and non-verbal communication. One process, namely, induction meetings within the department and university, was described by Donald, Amanda and Jean in their interviews as functional in nature, concerned with issues such as the completion of supervision forms, feedback from assignments and module structure. It is an explicit learning process with a definite purpose and one within which both parties are conversant with the expected outcomes. This echoes an induction pattern described by Murray (2008) that focuses on the needs of the department rather than on the needs of the new teacher educator.

A different kind of learning process occurred during the formal conversations between the student teacher and the teacher educator. In this instance, the teacher educator's learning was prompted through conversation with and feedback from the student teacher. This process is usually a prompt for engagement in a further learning process, a conversation with a colleague and/or an intrapersonal one through reflection and analysis. In their interviews, Donald, Amanda and Jean described critical incidents with student teachers who contradicted them, misunderstood them or would not accept their feedback. In each of these instances, these teacher educators changed their way of interacting with student teachers as a result of the incident. Donald describes the feedback from a student teacher as *people read those messages in different ways*, and Amanda notes that…*you might say one thing to them and…they won't accept it,* both indicating that the underlying intention behind a comment may be understood differently by the student teacher. In each of these instances, the critical incidents revealed to them a different perception of their actions than that which was intended, causing them to re-evaluate and adjust the way in which they interacted with the student teacher. This developmental stage required openness on the part of the second-order practitioner to enter into conversation with the student teacher and to be receptive to alternative perspectives.

The underlying assumptions of the teacher educator in relation to teaching teachers were also revealed in the teaching strategy employed by the subject-specific methodology lecturer. These lecturers were more likely to model second-level classroom teaching during their seminars, particularly if they were simultaneously operating as both first-order and second-order practitioners. Such strategies were observed in John's video and were described by Jean in her interview. In this instance, the second-order practitioner has not had to take too many steps from their craft knowledge position. Modelling the classroom is a version of 'telling' but is pedagogically stronger and develops due to the questions, feedback and interactions that occur during the seminars between the lecturer and the student teachers. This is the process described by Williams and Ritter (2010) as the move from being a provider of knowledge to a provoker of learning, in this instance, provoking learning for the teacher educator. The interaction with and feedback from the student teachers acted as a trigger for reflection and for a deeper understanding of the teaching process, one that not only influenced the teacher educator's work as a second-order

practitioner but also impacted on his/her continuing work as a first-order practitioner as both were still teaching in the post-primary sector.

13.4.4 Professional Conversations

Many of the conversations described by the case study subjects took place over coffee, during tea breaks, in offices, on walks, over the telephone and in the staff room and are analogous to the 'corridor conversations' described in the literature (Wood and Borg 2010). Stephen's conversations with the Professor of Education took place during walks around the campus, while Donald would drop into Stephen's office for a chat. Amanda sought out Clare for advice when they met at the supervisors' meetings, and Clare's one-to-one conversations with other teacher educators allowed her to both seek and give advice. Although some of these conversations did not happen on a face-to-face basis, i.e. over the telephone, the relationship that allowed for such conversations was developed through face-to-face interaction.

Conversations with members of the education community beyond the department happened at meetings and conferences and through use of emails and telephones. These conversations focused on initial teacher education, such as the conversations between Jean and her contemporaries in other education departments; on how to teach the subject, as illustrated by John's conversations with experienced teachers in his role as CPD coordinator; and on a wider conversation about education, exemplified by Stephen's conversations about educational practices with his correspondence community, the international group of teacher educators with whom he corresponds on a regular basis. These conversations served to broaden and deepen the understanding of the teacher educator through exposure to other ways of thinking about the same idea, whether these other ways were of a contrary view or of a similar view but of a more developed nature. However, only those who were on permanent contracts (Stephen and Donald) had attended national/international education conferences.

13.4.5 Group Meetings

The monthly supervision meetings provided opportunities for this group of teacher educators to learn from each other through sharing their practice with each other. This group process was a particularly important one for Amanda because it provided her with the opportunity to *check in and talk about different things and different issues* in an environment that was familiar to her and where she *could understand what was going on, the issues, talking about education…and that made me feel at home.* This group process is predicated on a common role, i.e. the supervision of student teachers, and has a shared statement about teaching, in the form of the departmental appraisal guide which also provides the framework for the common

Table 13.2 Learning communities, locations and access

	Stable learning communities	Transient learning communities
Located locally	Supervisors of practical teaching module (contract staff)	Subject-specific methodology lecturers with each other (contract staff)
	Staff of the ITE programme (contract staff and permanent staff)	Supervisors of practical teaching module with individual student teachers (contract staff and permanent staff)
	Subject-specific methodology lecturers with student teachers (contract staff)	
Located globally	Correspondence communities (permanent staff)	Teacher education conferences (permanent staff)
	Literature in the field (contract staff and permanent staff)	International community of teacher educators (permanent staff)

assessment process. Because the supervisors work within a common framework, there is a shared language that allows for conversations about practice to take place within a shared understanding. This is analogous to the 'teaching team' described by Murray (2008) in relation to work-based learning (Table 13.2).

13.5 Discussion

The teacher educator employs a variety of strategies to learn his/her craft. In some instances, the process is a solitary one, while in others the learning takes place in a community setting. These learning communities operate at either a local or a global level and are either stable or transient. The table below shows the communities and the locations and also indicates which categories of teacher educators from the sample group access them.

Each community plays a particular role in the professional development of the teacher educator, from induction into the norms of the department to developing an understanding of ITE and engagement with the broader agenda pertaining to teacher education in a global context. The nature of the teacher educator's role (supervisor, lecturer, contract, permanent) is a key determinant of the degree to which the teacher educator became involved in these communities, as are monetary constraints, time constraints or lack of knowledge about how to access these professional development opportunities. The existence of these communities and their potential for the professional development of the student teacher are not always made clear to the teacher educator, particularly those who are new and/or are part-time. It may not occur to the teacher educators to seek out or create such communities for themselves. Even when they know about the existence of such communities, they do not know the gateways to access them.

Participation in a local community provides the teacher educators with an opportunity to explore the discipline of education within a specific local context. Within

this community, a tacit knowledge of the system forms the basis for much of the conversation. The idea that 'teacher educators know schools' is an unspoken basic principle of this grouping and can provide the opportunity for discussion of paradigmatic assumptions about schooling, teaching and learning and, indeed, the purpose of education. These paradigmatic assumptions, if unspoken and unexamined, constrain the professional development of the teacher educator since they limit the frame of reference that is used to understand the world in which they work. It is important that outside influences are available to the teacher educator as part of his/her own professional development. Murray (2008) concludes that, in the induction of new teacher educators in HEIs in England,

> …provision should include an outward focus which incorporates the many and contested discourses, values and practices of teacher education as a field within the wider higher education sector. Care should be taken to ensure that provision for work-based learning does not generate only 'local' or parochial knowledge of teacher education, limited in its understanding of the broader social and moral purposes of higher education-based teacher education. (Murray 2008: 131)

As mentioned earlier, access to such opportunities is dependent on the nature of the teacher educator's contractual role within the university. Analysis of the data shows that those teacher educators who were employed on a part-time basis did not have access to funding opportunities that allowed them to attend educational conferences, either nationally or internationally. This contrasted with the experience of both Stephen and Donald who saw conference attendance as a natural part of their role, as an opportunity for professional development and as a place where their correspondence communities developed and expanded.

The research shows that the move from the articulation of craft knowledge as a result of solitary engagement in reflection-on-action for teacher educators in this study is generally prompted by external forces. These forces can be either formal structures such as monthly meetings of supervisors or biannual meetings of the academic staff of the ITE programme, or informal events, usually critical incidents that occur in the course of the teacher educator's work. These serve to highlight for the individual teacher educator discrepancies in both their thinking process and their knowledge base.

Through the enforced dissonance and the employment of an enquiry model of practicum supervision, the supervisors become informal researchers of their own practice. This type of research is neither systematic nor programmatic but the process of reflecting on their practice acts as a prompt towards reading the literature in the area. In addition, discussing their reflections with others develops and refines their own knowledge of teaching and learning for use in the supervision process.

As time goes on, however, this second-order knowledge will either continue to be refreshed or will become a routine procedure. What had been strange is now commonplace and can be articulated, which can potentially result in a return to 'telling'. But it is a different kind of telling. The teacher educator tells the student teacher about such routinised procedures as organising the whiteboard, setting out a seating plan, learning the names, lining the pupils before entry into the classroom

and calling the register. Separate to these things, a different kind of second-order knowledge emerges, one that is best learned through discussion about experience. The difference is that the experience under discussion is that of the student teacher rather than that of the second-order practitioner.

Munby and Russell (1994) describe this as the authority of experience and distinguish it from the authority of reason and the authority of position. The authority of experience is connected to Schön's (1983) knowledge-in-action and is therefore of a non-propositional kind. Within the process of teaching about classroom teaching, the supervisor utilises the student teacher's experiences within the classroom as prompts for discussion and reflection. Questions are posed that probe the thinking of the student teacher so as to make it explicit to him/her. Alternatives are co-constructed as the supervisor brings his/her own authority of experience to the discussion, not as an authority of position but rather as a framework that guides the questions and the discussions. Within this model, the supervisor recognises that the student teacher has much to contribute to the process and that he/she may have a rationale for practice that is different but no less valid to that of the supervisor.

So how did the supervisor on the practical teaching module learn to do this? In the first instance, the data shows a predisposition towards a process of co-learning and openness to more than one 'truth'. These predispositions were evident in the narratives from their own school and college experiences and were naturally enacted as they became necessary. Stephen describes this as a move from being a *dutiful learner*, and Donald refers to it as learning to consider things from *multiple perspectives*. Since these experiences happened for all six case study subjects before they began as teachers, it is very likely that this disposition was in operation in their classrooms and continued into their work as teacher educators. As teachers themselves, enquiry was a natural condition within their classrooms, and this transferred to their work as supervisors of teaching practice. Additionally, converting their own craft knowledge into a teachable form of knowledge required them to engage in a verbalisation of their own 'authority of experience', to develop their own propositional knowledge as a result of reflection on this knowledge and, as such, may validate the use of 'authority of experience' as a legitimate teaching strategy.

In conclusion, the chapter identifies the different processes employed by teacher educators in their professional development from the perspectives of six teacher educators. It further situates these processes within identified local, national and global communities of teacher educators and describes the gateways for entry to those communities. The use of multiple-case studies, designed to employ both literal and theoretical replication models, brings rigour to the research findings, as do the multiple triangulation strategies contained within the research design. The chapter highlights the previously under-researched area of the induction and professional development of part-time teacher educators, particularly important in light of a growing international trend towards the casualisation of academic staff. While the results of the research are specific to the site of the research, the use of both replication and theoretical models within the case study design strengthens the potential generalisation of the findings.

These findings have multilevel implications for teacher education policy. Firstly, they inform policy makers at departmental, institutional and national levels of the need for specific induction and professional development for teacher educators, particularly those who occupy part-time positions. This induction into the workplace should also be complemented by a professional induction that introduces new teacher educators into the local and global communities of teacher education. It also needs to assist new pre-service teacher educators in developing their practical knowledge of how to teach into a knowledge of teaching how to teach. The development of a document for pre-service teacher educators describing the skills, knowledge, attitudes and integrated professional capabilities that are both desirable and necessary for the work of teacher education would serve to develop the identity of the pre-service teacher educator but would also contribute to the international development of pedagogy for and of teacher education. For those in teacher education, the chapter serves to raise the consciousness and deepen the understanding of experienced teacher educators about their own professional development. It is also a useful source of information for beginning teacher educators, allowing them to identify what they need to know and be able to do and where and how they can best learn these things. Most importantly, it illustrates the need for a map that identifies professional development opportunities, particularly for part-time staff. Many have already taken these steps from post-primary teaching towards ITE; the paths already exist. It is time for those who know the terrain to erect signposts towards these well-trodden paths.

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Chapter 14
Afterword

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14.1 Policy Changes, Power Relations and Insiders in Teacher Education

The effects of the many recent policy changes on teacher education have been considerable, as the various chapters of this book and many other analyses of the field indicate (see, e.g. Furlong, Cochran-Smith and Brennan 2011; Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Kosnik, Beck and Goodwin 2016). These effects have been compounded because such policies often involve 'reform' efforts centred around instrumental and managerialist practices (Trippestad, Swennen and Werler 2017). This means that, as Davey (2013: 1) identifies , these 'reforms' have:

> impacted globally on teacher education pedagogies and modes of teaching delivery, shifting occupational roles and priorities, reviving arguments of what constitutes the core business of the academy and increasing calls for a critical re-examination of the goals and purposes of teacher education.

In Chap. 1 we described how one of the aims of this book was to analyse the diverse ways in which these policy changes played out and are lived by insider groups. As Davey suggests, from the perspectives of those insiders – the teacher educators, mentors and student teachers – whose experiences are reported in this book, these changes have certainly brought very significant alterations within the Higher Education Institutions in which they work and on the teacher education programmes in which they teach and learn. In Ireland, for example, as Maeve Furlong

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and Catherine O'Brien state in Chap. 4, there have been challenges to the traditions, organisation and location of teacher education and questions raised about its economic sustainability and effectiveness. The resulting amalgamation of teacher education departments across very different types of Higher Education Institutions has created an unprecedented time of upheaval in the history of Irish education. In England, as Chaps. 10 and 12 both report, the marketisation of teacher education, together with the creation of regulatory structures, inspection regimes and quasi-governmental monitoring organisations, has changed all aspects of the field, making it a more a practice-focused, school-led and – fundamentally – more instrumental enterprise.

The many other policy changes detailed in this book have also brought identity shifts for teacher educators and pronounced shifts in professional practices. In the contexts of the Netherlands and Australia, as Simone White and Corinne Van Velzen and colleagues, respectively, detail (Chaps. 3 and 11 in this volume), policy changes mean that the boundaries around membership of the occupational group of teacher educators have altered to give more emphasis to the work of mentors and school-based practitioners; these 'new' teacher educators are often adopting hybrid roles as both teachers and teacher educators. In such contexts then, the traditional work of teacher educators has been split across Higher Education and school sites, displacing long-established and widely understood constructions of what it means to be a 'teacher' or a 'teacher educator'. Broadly similar boundary changes and displacements can be seen in Chap. 12 by Gerry Czerniawski et al. about the emerging generation of school-based teacher educators in England.

For some insiders in teacher education, there have been other types of shifts in professional identities and roles, epistemologies and practices. Marit Ulvik and Kari Smith in Chap. 9, for example, identify that, as all teacher education programmes in Norway move towards master's level, teacher educators in universities and colleges there face challenges to their traditional knowledge bases and, in some cases, the need to either upgrade their qualifications to doctoral level or to acquire more classroom experience. Teacher educators in Ireland face some similar academic pressures as universities and colleges of education merge to create new institutional forms; this change often means they are asked to teach longer and more academically rigorous programmes. In Chap. 10, research by Jean Murray and colleagues shows changes in the teacher educator identities, forms of knowledge and skills which student teachers in England privilege and value during their pre-service programmes. Here experiential knowledge of school teaching is perceived to be highly valued capital for teacher educators and mentors; and other types of knowledge, particularly those gained through research or scholarship, are often overlooked, marginalised or delegitimised. In other national contexts, policy changes have also redefined the nature of knowledge in the field, sometimes reducing the spaces for critique and debates about alternative ways of learning to be a teacher and to practise as a teacher educator or mentor.

That these changes to identities and knowledge are profound and often interrelated within a particular context is not surprising, given that we know professional identities are developed in response to socio-cultural values and the discourses,

practices and norms within an occupational group. And the research of Becher (1989) (later updated in Becher and Trowler (2002)) shows that there are distinctive patterns between forms and organisation of knowledge, learning cultures and academic identities in any field or discipline. These distinctive patterns give particular shapes to activities within that field. In Becher and Trowler's (2002) terms, teacher educators and mentors are the professional and academic 'tribes' inhabiting teacher education, and the precise 'territories' they inhabit are found within the programmes on which they teach, the roles they undertake in their employing institutions and the knowledge and values they impart to their students (Becher 1989: 5).

It is then not surprising that aspects of teacher education and the ways in which teacher knowledge, practices and identities are understood and deployed by practitioners have changed very considerably in all the contexts represented in this book. In response to these shifts, there has been considerable 'internal soul-searching and self-questioning about teacher education's and teacher educators' place in the world' (Davey 2013: 16). In some contexts, this debate amongst insiders has tipped over into professional pessimism and even paralysis. Again, these attitudes may not seem surprising given the depth and impact of the changes some teacher education systems; some educators, including many of those whose voices are heard in this book, now perceive that they have been marginalised and have experienced challenges and changes to established ways of working which are often uncomfortable and disconcerting. We understand and empathise with these perspectives and indeed have experienced similar feelings in our own professional lives, but we would question how useful overly pessimistic attitudes are in debates about ensuring the best possible education for our future teachers.

Hearteningly, the findings of the studies in this book indicate several more positive ways forward for the insiders in teacher education – whether they are student or serving teachers, mentors or teacher educators. Our starting point for this cautious optimism is to reconsider our understanding of how policy change occurs. To recap, as we discussed in Chap. 1, whilst many such changes may seem to have been imposed on teacher education – in seemingly straightforward ways – by policymakers and outside stakeholders, in reality, complex and diffuse power relations within the field mean that policy is rarely implemented without the accompaniment of complex professional and social processes of accommodation and assimilation. Contestation, struggle and resistance are also integrally involved in implementation since as Foucault (1990: 23) identifies, 'where there is power, there is resistance'. Adopting this way of understanding power relations, and particularly how the multiple 'capillaries of power' operate within institutions and programmes, enables us to see policy reform, as essentially mediated by key stakeholders in the field. Very significant parts of any policy change are then lived and played out by and between the insider groups most closely involved in the field.

Emphasising the capillaries of power also enables us to see insiders as active and sometimes powerful participants in – or resisters of – change and not just as oppressed and essentially passive implementers. This centrality of insiders in the mediation of policy change – and the subsequent shifts in their identities, practices and knowledge – means that the underlying cultural values, educational principles

and pedagogical convictions of those most directly involved in the teaching and learning ongoing in teacher education are key to the actual implementation of policy change at the micro and meso levels of the field (Cochran-Smith 2003; Davey 2013; Furlong et al. 2000).

As we have already stated, this is not to deny the undoubtedly adverse impact of many so-called policy 'reforms' on teacher education, but it is to assert the complexity of power relations in the field. This is important because, as the studies in this book indicate, many of the ways in which policy changes, even those which seem adverse or destructive on first sight, have led – over time – to the creation of new spaces where autonomy and agency can still be exercised by insiders and different and innovative forms of pedagogy, research and knowledge have consequently evolved. Retaining a strong sense of professional agency is key here; as Paivi Hokka and colleagues outline in Chap. 2, professional agency is shown and deployed when professionals and/or the communities within which they work 'make choices, take stances, and have an influence on their work and/or professional identities'. From this perspective then, professional agency is closely intertwined with educators' changing professional identities, competencies, knowledge and experience, but it is always realised within the socio-cultural conditions existing in the field at the time. Because of this, the exercise of professional agency therefore offers potential for the transformation of work, practices and cultures.

In this book, the two studies on identity change within shifting educational contexts by Maeve O'Brien and Catherine Furlong in Ireland and Anja Swennen and Monique Volman in the Netherlands show identity is about just such agency, power and autonomy; these chapters indicate that where identities change, new opportunities for professional development and learning are also created by and for teacher educators. Gerry Czerniawski et al.'s study shows new and enriching hybrid identities, for both teachers and teacher educators, bringing new senses of agency for mentors in English schools, working in new forms of collaboration with HE-based teacher educators.

Many of the chapters of this book also remind us of how policy changes have created agentic spaces for insiders to develop new forms of pedagogy which aim to enhance student teacher learning experiences. In Chap. 5, for example, Clare Kosnik et al. show the creativity of literacy teacher educators in four countries (Canada, the USA, Australia, and England) as technological change enables them to generate new forms of digital pedagogies with and for their students. Chapter 11 by Corinne Van Velzen and colleagues shows mentors and student teachers in the Netherlands working together to develop innovative pedagogies and practices as they co-teach in the classroom. And in Chap. 7, Clive Beck's response to the multiple and sometimes conflicting demands of curriculum changes in Canada has been to generate reflective, progressive and constructivist approaches to his own pedagogy as a teacher educator.

Autonomy and agency are also exercised by insiders to create learning opportunities for themselves as teachers, leaders and researchers, although, again, the ultimate aims of these efforts are to enhance the quality of student learning. In Marit Ulvik and Kari Smith's study in Chap. 9, for example, Norwegian student teachers'

calls for more 'practical knowledge' in their programmes lead teacher educators to create more collegial ways of working. Here various types of experience and knowledge are 'pooled' or shared across teams of teacher educators, rather than being seen solely as the preserve of an individual practitioner. The importance of communality and of communities of practice for teacher education insiders are also evident in the agentic ways in which the Irish teacher educators in Rose Dolan's study (Chap. 13) create professional learning opportunities for themselves through the considered analysis of their practices. The self-generated modes of professional development here include communal opportunities to transmute knowledge-in-action into knowledge-of-practice (Cochran-Smith and Lytle 1999). Both theoretical constructs and practical knowledge are articulated here in order to raise consciousnesses and deepen the understanding of teacher educators about their practices when teaching student teachers. And in the work of Paivi Hokka and her colleagues in Chap. 2, a group of educational leaders use their professional agency to create new modes of management practices which benefit their colleagues and students. The approaches to change developed are positive and proactive, evolving and enacting new leadership practices in collaborative and non-linear ways whilst ensuring that those practices are congruent with the values and traditions of the institutional context and the academic group.

This book also illustrates how policy changes can accelerate the growth of new forms of research; this, in turn, enables insiders to adopt a more detailed and in-depth analysis of practice. Here self-study research techniques, which enable the articulation, refinement and comprehension of professional practice and include critical and collaborative interactions with other teacher educator researchers, are important. The work of Cheryl Craig in Chap. 6 is notable. Defining her research as 'narrative enquiry' or the experiential study of teachers' experiences, she uses the interpretative tools of 'broadening, burrowing, storying/re-storying and fictionalization' to excavate the meaning of her professional practices, set within the shifting knowledge landscape of teacher education in the USA. Clive Beck's research in Chap. 7 also uses self-study research techniques but this time deploying 'reflective-practice enquiry' (i.e. enquiry involving reflection in and on personal practice with a view to improving that practice) to explore and develop new forms of pedagogy.

Using conventional interpretative research techniques, studies like those of Anja Swennen and Monique Volman and Maeve O'Brien and Catherine Furlong, where analyses of identity change are set against detailed historical and contemporary contexts, are very helpful in understanding the evolution of teacher education and teacher educators as an occupational group over time. The use of case studies as a research method in Chaps. 8, 10 and 13 indicates the power of this method for enabling endogenous or 'insider' researchers to produce what Trowler (2011: 2) calls 'thick description of lived realities, of the hermeneutics of everyday life'. And the use of interviews as a data collection tool in several studies, including those by Clare Kosnik et al. and Gerry Czerniawski et al., underlines the importance of this evolving technique for capturing and illuminating the detailed perspectives of research subjects in teacher education.

14.2 Moving Forward

Read together with Chap. 1 and the brief analysis of ongoing policy changes in teacher education presented there, this chapter acknowledges that many of those changes have had adverse, uncomfortable or unwelcome effects, leading to senses of pessimism from insiders. But we have indicated that, as the studies in this book indicate, some of these changes may also open up new spaces and opportunities for practice and innovation to the benefit of all who learn and/or teach in the field. Some of these spaces may be small, but they are there at the all-important micro levels of teacher education where the real learning about teaching takes place.

In the early 2000s Marilyn Cochran-Smith wrote a series of articles (see, e.g. Cochran-Smith 2003, 2005) in which she expounded her vision of teacher educators as 'linch pins' and key change agents in teacher education. Over subsequent years that vision may seem to have been threatened by the sheer pace and volume of policy changes in some national contexts, but we would argue that it is still possible to retain something of the optimism and conviction of Cochran-Smith's vision. We suggest that retaining an understanding of power relations within the field of teacher education as complex, of insiders as central and powerful in implementing and mediating policy change and of professional agency as an invaluable tool in taking advantage of the opportunities for change is vital. It is also vital to keep our focus on the development of forms of teacher education which offer new ways to improve the quality of learning for all students, whether they are beginning or experienced teachers.

The studies in this book raise questions for us about how teacher educators as a key insider group in teacher education might still be able to bring about change in the field, despite the effects of policy changes. How can we better articulate and justify the ways in which we respond to and enact policy changes? How can we 'push back' on what we see as inappropriate or even adverse changes without seeming over-defensive of the status quo? As the knowledge bases and practices of teacher education alter, how can we develop new (perhaps hybrid forms) knowledge for the changing contexts of teacher education in this second decade of the twenty-first century? Where, for example, are the opportunities for generating knowledge in collaborative and co-constructed learning environments in school classrooms and university seminar rooms? How can teacher educators as an occupational group take advantage of new opportunities around the shifting boundaries of inclusion in the occupational group of teacher educators, whether in Higher Education or schools? How can teacher educators and mentors best communicate their extended roles in teacher education and their strategies for offering support and guidance? How can new practices in 'brokering' across the fast-changing sites of teacher education be developed and legitimised? How can we ensure that our professional identities, values and purposes are well understood by student teachers? How might those students help their educators to develop the more participatory pedagogical models which support high-quality and research-informed learning in pre-service?

Many of the studies in this book discuss small-scale, 'pockets' of innovation around individual teacher educators or small communities of practice within universities and schools. A key question here is how can we disseminate such initiatives more effectively and investigate their impact more systematically as part of scaling up to larger initiatives across a whole institution or a system? And, as we continue to research teacher education, a field in which we are often endogenous researchers – whether directly within our own institutions or more broadly in the teacher education system within which we are active players and participants – what modes of research offer us the best and most valid insights into the learning and teaching processes at the centre of our work? How can we always ensure that our research – particularly that conducted with or about our students – is ethical, fully takes account of our positionality and acknowledges any disparities of power between researcher and subjects? And what opportunities might there be undertaking more 'polyocular' research, (Trowler 2011) in which teams of researchers (both 'insiders' and 'outsiders') from different parts of the field of teacher education work together?

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