John Chi-Kin Lee
Christopher Day   *Editors*

Quality and Change in Teacher Education

Western and Chinese Perspectives

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Chapter 1
Western and Chinese Perspectives on Quality and Change in Teacher Education

John Chi-Kin Lee and Christopher Day

1.1 Background and Rationale of the Book

Raising teacher quality and reforming teacher education has earned considerable attention, but the link between teaching quality and teacher education will always be complex. This complexity is because teaching quality may hinge on myriad different perspectives ranging from emphasis on teachers' competence, qualification, and credentials to teachers' cognitive resources (i.e., teachers' knowledge, skills and attitudes), as well as teachers' performance in actual practice and effects on student learning outcomes post qualification (Wang et al. 2011, pp. 331–333). In this book, the term "teacher education" is used to refer to both pre-service/initial and in-service teacher education.

Approaches to pre-service teacher education are diverse, and an examination of the various practices in different countries indicate teacher education "as 'apprenticeship,' 'training,' and 'discipline'" (Reid 2011, p. 308) or highlights "the basic knowledge and skills approach," "the skilled artisan approach," and "the professional standards approach" (Reid and O'Donoghue 2004, pp. 561–562). The extent to which teacher education institutions and external agencies heed the importance of teacher knowledge through a mandated teacher education curriculum or external examination for teacher education graduates and teachers, the importance of practical skills through apprenticeship and school-based teacher education versus the importance of specified standards for accreditation of teacher education programs,

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and where teacher education occurs also reveals different insightful concepts and good practices. Within these differences lies a call to revisit inquiry-based teacher education (Reid and O'Donoghue 2004) and the meaning of practice with increased attention on "the study of teaching as a practice" (Reid 2011, p. 293) in the discourse of teacher education. Bates and Townsend's (2007, pp. 732) comment that the strategies advocated in teacher education "are largely couched in terms of standardization, accountability and control that diminish the space for appropriate responses to an increasing anarchy of culture…[and] that without appropriate attention to cultural issues concerned with the meaning of people's lives, motivation and attention become problematic and alienation becomes a likely outcome" remains a key factor in attracting and retaining high-quality teachers. Imig and Imig (2007, p. 99) remarked that the elusive concept of quality in teacher education requires addressing several basic questions such as "[W]hat is high quality in teacher education? What is high quality in teacher educators? What is the expert knowledge that teacher educators need to demonstrate to gain necessary credibility for their efforts?… [and] What is it that we want the graduates of our programs to know, to believe and to be able to do?" These questions on quality relate to the methods by which teacher professionalism is viewed. Niemi et al. (2012, p. 1) remark that: "Whilst the value of high-quality education systems and high-quality teachers is acknowledged in all knowledge-based societies, realizing this ideal has at best been problematic, with the gap between policy rhetoric and the reality of education settings often being unbridgeable… Similarly, the overarching issue of teacher competence remains a fundamental concern, not least due to the degree of complexity attached to the art of teaching and the fact that in some countries a competence-based agenda has proved reductionist." Such a reductionism became widespread as policy makers seek to establish direct cause-and-effect links between quality of teachers, teaching, learning, learners, and measurable attainment, which is contrary to all research findings.

In a review of documents (dated from 2002 to 2006) conducted by Bills et al. (2008, pp. 1–2) focused on the relationship between the organization, management, and framework for initial teacher education (ITE) and its quality, and found the status of the United Kingdom (UK), United States (US), and Australia to be as follows:

- Forging effective cooperation between schools and the provider is conducive to the quality of ITE. All ITE partnerships need to comply with firm requirements in the UK. However, considerable variation in terms of connections and innovativeness for partnerships was observed among schools and providers in Australia and the US.
- Notwithstanding a general consensus on the purpose of quality assurance (QA), great differences are noted in their approaches to implementation. In the US, providers tend to prescribe their own rationale, whereas in the UK, clarity and rigor are highlighted along with a certain level of freedom for the prescription of rationale and methods.

- In the US, NCATE guidelines exert a strong influence on providing teacher education. The provider's self-designed conceptual framework also reflects a core measure of quality. In some countries, such as the United Kingdom, limited emphasis is given on the regulatory framework and official discourse of teacher education.

In the case of the US, two main methods are available for joining the teaching profession: entering different types of pre-service programs or entering an alternative or emergency path into teaching with only a few weeks of training (Darling-Hammond 2012, p. 132). Although two main forms of teacher education may enhance innovation and diversity in program offerings, the "early-entry" alternative pathway tends to endorse the role of teacher as a technician and jeopardize the autonomy of teachers (Zeichner 2013, p. 11). Insufficient investment in university teacher education is also a problem (p. 13).

Several common features of pre-service programs in the US have been found to produce quality graduates (Darling-Hammond 2006, 2012, pp. 135–136). These features include sharing the notion of good teaching across courses and practicum with coherent learning experiences; setting well-defined standards; establishing a core curriculum; arranging at least 30 weeks of extended clinical experiences; adopting various methods, including case methods, performance assessments, teacher research, and portfolio evaluation; utilizing strategies to help student-teachers examine their own beliefs and understand other people's experiences; and forging school- and university-based partnerships. The Teacher Education Accreditation Council (n.d.) proposed principles and standards for teacher education programs that entail the principles of "evidence of candidate learning," "evidence of faculty learning and inquiry," and "evidence of institutional commitment and capacity for program quality."

In 2011, Secretary Arne Duncan of the US Department of Education stated that "in 2010, states identified only 37 low-performing teacher preparation programs at over 1,400 institutions of higher education… People rightly expect that teacher certification or licensure should be based on a demonstration of effectiveness. Unfortunately, that's not the case today…We seek to create more accountability in teacher preparation programs, better prepare teachers for the classroom, boost student learning, and foster systems of continuous improvement. Unlike today's teacher preparation system, we want to reward good programs, improve the middle, and transform or eliminate consistently low-performing programs" (Duncan 2011, para. 24 and para. 30). The review conducted by the National Council on Teacher Quality (NCTQ) on teacher preparation programs determined that less than 10 % of rated programs scored three stars or more, and only four (all secondary programs) scored the highest rating of four stars. High-performing countries admitted students from the top third, but approximately over a quarter of programs admitted students from the top half. In addition, 7 % of programs could ensure placement of their student-teachers with "uniformly strong experiences" (Greenberg et al. 2014, p. 2).

The situation in England (though interestingly not Scotland, Wales, or Northern Ireland) is similar in that increasing pre-service work takes place in schools either

through 'School Direct,' in which schools themselves receive applications from would-be teachers, or 'Teach First,' the English version of 'Teach for America' through which highly qualified graduates are provided with 6 weeks of training before working in schools, usually for a 2/3 year period before taking up posts in business or other professions. Schools themselves lead these programs with support from universities. In the expansion of "school-led" or "school-centered" initial teacher training (ITT), allocation of teacher education places is now made only to ITT providers with "good" or "outstanding" Ofsted ratings, to help increase of outstanding graduates to teach in disadvantaged schools and encouragement of members of former armed forces to become teachers after teacher training (Government of the United Kingdom 2014 updated).

Other European countries experience calls for shifting from quality assurance (QA) to quality culture, which is situated in the context of having different tensions, including the tension between external and internal QA procedures, that between QA at the national level and standards at international levels, and the tension between regulation and professional autonomy (Niemi et al. 2012, p. 9).

Iwata (2013) identified three types of quality assurance of teacher education, which include direct control for new teachers (e.g., Taiwan, China), management plan, standards or curriculum models for pre-service teacher education programs (e.g., Japan, China), and control or accreditation for teacher education providers (e.g., US, Korea). In the Asia-Pacific region, the International Reading Association (2008, pp. 4–8) report for the United Nations Organization for Education, Science, and Culture (UNESCO) emphasized issues, such as fragmented relationships among teacher education providers, diversified education vision, effect of new curriculum reform and objectives on changes in teacher education, problems of deploying and retaining teachers, current minimal teacher education standards, and providing diversified, quality, and specialized teacher roles. The report also recommended that increased attention should be focused on inclusive education, preschool teachers, and adult education specialists; the role of professional associations in teacher education; research in teaching and teacher education; enhancement of teacher quality in the private education sector; and the establishment of an Asia-Pacific approach to teacher education under the backdrop of post-colonialism.

The International Alliance of Leading Education Institutes commissioned a report entitled, "Transforming Teacher Education: Redefined Professionals for 21st Century Schools" and among the key recommendations included the development of new designs for teacher education, with "closer integration of academic knowledge, pedagogical skills, and praxis" and "strong broad-based partnerships" (Gopinathan et al. 2008, p. 10 and p. 12). In 2011, the international summit on the teaching profession was held, and for England, the government policy tended to be "tight on knowledge, loose on school context, and tight on measurement" (Asia Society Partnership for Global Learning 2011, p. 14).

Nurturing school leaders received increased attention, and a new program, known as Future Leaders, which seeks to identify and prepare outstanding teachers for leadership roles has been created. The summit proposed that the quality and rigor of teacher education programs has to be raised and "a more robust evidence

base for teaching and learning, including preparing teachers to participate in research on best practices and student outcomes" has to be created (Asia Society Partnership for Global Learning 2011, p. 27). In China, an era of post *Shifan* exists, and comprehensive universities and colleges are becoming increasingly involved in providing teacher education programs. The Department of Teacher Education at the Ministry of Education has gradually strengthened its role from enacting regulations to monitoring the quality of teacher education using the enactment and application of professional standards (Zhu and Han 2006). In Hong Kong, a "concurrent model" of teacher education (e.g., Bachelor's degree in Education, or equivalent degree) program is available, as well as a "consecutive model" (e.g., Postgraduate Certificate/Diploma in Education on top of a university undergraduate degree usually with an academic major) (Lai and Grossman 2008; Lee 2013, p. 174). In Taiwan and China, prospective teachers are also required to pass the governmental examination and obtain teachers' certificate after they have completed teacher education programs in universities (Iwata 2013).

In Queensland, Australia, a review on teacher education and school induction recommended 18 benchmarks to judge the quality of education and training of student teachers. Some examples of these benchmarks include all students being required to enroll in one or more subjects that will equip them to deal with students with special needs; every university offering pre-service teacher education is required to engage in a clinical partnership with one or several schools; and staff in partner schools are expected to be exemplary teachers with special training (Caldwell and Sutton 2010, pp. iv–v). The New Zealand Ministry of Education (updated 6 Nov 2013) announced the enhancement of initial teacher education through the launch of a small number of exemplary postgraduate programs at the Masters level, which are characterized by emphasis on "cultural responsiveness" and "equitable outcomes" for students, "an integrated and collaborative approach" between the universities and the schools, and capacity building for "teacher educators/mentors/coaches" (New Zealand Ministry of Education, updated 6 Nov 2013).

Ingersoll's (2007, p. 12) comparative study of teacher preparation and qualifications in seven countries (US, Korea, China, Hong Kong, Singapore, Thailand, and Japan) suggests three possible sources of the problem of "underqualified teachers: pre-employment requirements and standards, inability of the teaching force to meet existing requirements and standards, and mismatch between teachers and their expertise (mis-assignment or out-of-field teaching). These problems have generated calls not only for reforms of teacher education and entry requirements, but also for restructuring and reculturing of the school organization as well as the occupational contexts of teachers.

Darling-Hammond and Lieberman (2012a, pp. 167–168) analyze examples of teacher education across Finland, Singapore, the Netherlands, the UK, Hong Kong, Canada, Australia, and the USA. They identify good practices for enhancing teacher learning and learning that include the following:

- Programs in Finland and Singapore highlight the importance of recruitment of highly able candidates into quality programs, together with incentives of competitive salaries and financial subsidies for study.
- Programs in Finland, the Netherlands, and parts of the US highlight the bridge between theory and practice through the design of special coursework and the integration of clinical work in settings including the "training schools."
- US, Australia, Hong Kong, the Netherlands, and Singapore stress the adoption of professional teaching standards.
- US and Australia underscore the use and exploration (in case of Australia) of teacher performance assessments that could connect student-teacher competence and improvement.
- Singapore, Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, and parts of the US stress the establishment of induction models that support beginning teachers.
- Singapore, Australia, and Canada emphasize professional development that enables teacher learning within and across schools and universities;
- Singapore and the UK prioritize the creation of career ladders that allow teachers to focus on teaching, mentoring, curriculum development and leadership.
- Ontario, Canada emphasize profession- and system-wide capacity building, which encourages and recognizes sharing of research findings and good practices as well as enables professional leadership by expert teachers and principals.

Notwithstanding the seemingly increasing global convergence of views of a good teacher in the twenty-first century and similar directions of teacher education program design and delivery, which are all influenced by accountability, performance, value-addedness and marketization, national and local responses of teacher education to these global influences are apparent, as Paine (2013, p. 137) explained:

> As U.S. teacher education programs feel pressed by state legislatures or by national accrediting organizations to provide accounts of the impact of their education for their future teachers, we see this pressure. As historically "normal" institutions in China now are in competition for students with universities who were historically "comprehensive", we see a different version of this pressure. Yet as this example suggests, even the so-called global process of marketization works itself in unique ways within each context.

Recently published handbooks and books related to teacher education illustrate these trends. Among such handbooks include the *Handbook of Teacher Education*: *Globalization, Standards and Professionalism in Times of Change* (Townsend and Bates 2007) and the *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*: *Enduring Questions in Changing Contexts* (Cochran-Smith et al. 2008). In the first handbook, several sections deal with the following issue categories: "globalization and diversity", "standards and accountability", "teacher preparation"; "teacher induction"; "continuous development of teachers"; "the reflective practitioner", and "the impact of technology" (Townsend and Bates 2007, pp. v–viii). The latter handbook is divided into several major parts that cover: "the aims and intentions of teacher education"; "teacher qualities (including his/her knowledge, skills and commitments)", "settings and contexts where teachers should be taught"; "teacher recruitment and

retention"; "issues of diversity and authority in teacher education"; "research"; and "teacher learning in teacher education" (Cochran-Smith et al. 2008, pp. v–xvi).

The *Cultural-Historical Perspectives on Teacher Education and Development* highlights the Western perspectives (UK, US, and Europe) and analyzes how the sociocultural and cultural-historical activity theory contributes to teacher education. The book also discusses the intentions of initial (pre-service) teacher education and continuing professional development and examines the role of universities and higher education personnel in teacher education and development (Ellis et al. 2010). Another book, *Studying Diversity in Teacher Education* (Ball and Tyson 2011), highlights and integrates both research on diversity and research on diversity in teacher education. The most recent published book, *Teacher Education around the World*: *Changing Policies and Practices* (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012b), focuses on teacher education policies and practices in eight countries that are doing well internationally – Finland, Singapore, the Netherlands, the UK, Hong Kong, Canada, Australia, and the USA. This book covers issues ranging from the preparation, induction, support and assessment of new teachers, to teacher retention, professional knowledge of teachers, and continuing professional development, as well as curriculum change and teacher education policies. Although the book analyzes common themes across the eight countries, it did not touch on related issues of quality and management of change in teacher education; neither did it include examples in China. A recent co-edited book, *Preparing Teachers for the 21st Century* (Zhu and Zeichner 2013), captures the views of Western and Chinese scholars on teacher education research, practice, and policy. However, books on teacher education in the Asia-Pacific region do not appear to discuss in any depth what a 'good' teacher is or how teachers may become and sustain such 'goodness' however defined, over a career during which they are likely to experience considerable changes in policy and societal norms, values, and expectations.

Considering this backdrop, this book will address three questions.

1. What are the historical contexts, policies, and practices of teacher education? What does teacher education look like in different countries (US, Chinese communities (China, Hong Kong and Taiwan), UK, and Australia)?
2. What effects do the new reforms on teacher education have on: (a) Curriculum; (b) Teaching; (c) Assessment?
3. Where did the "quality" issue of teacher education come from? What issues arose in the implementation of change in teacher education related to cultural and values issues, partnership, special needs of students as well as scholarship and professional development of teacher educators?

1.2 Synopsis of Chapters

The book consists of three parts. The first part contains six chapters. These chapters highlight the contexts, status, and issues of quality in societies such as the US, England, Australia, and the Greater China region.

In Chap. 2, Christopher Day outlines the context of reform and accountability, which requires quality teachers with strong moral purpose for quality teaching. He then suggests the imperative of cultivating resilience for effective teachers who possess characteristics of self-efficacy, academic optimism, emotional energy, trust and hope, and motivation and moral purpose from the perspectives of continuing professional development based on the metaphors of "retooling," "remodeling," "revitalizing," and "re-imagining" as propounded by Sach (2011). Such emphasis highlights policies of teacher selection, recruitment, and retention. Lee and Song in Chap. 3 examine the status, issues, and prospects of teacher education in the Greater China region, which is influenced on one hand by the Confucian cultural heritage and on the other hand by educational and curriculum reforms. The elements of character and moral conduct appear to have been highlighted in the selection and cultivation of teacher candidates in societies such as Taiwan and Singapore. Recently, a call for standards in the professional ethics and moral conduct for teachers has been made in Mainland China, as exemplified by the issuance of "Opinions [on] Establishing a Long-term Mechanism to Build [Sound] Teacher Conduct in Primary and Secondary Schools" (关于建立健全中小学师德建设长效机制的意见) by the Ministry of Education in 2013.

Examples of innovative curriculum, teaching, and assessment practices of teacher education in Hong Kong, Mainland China, and Taiwan are available. These examples range from teacher induction, teacher research groups, and lesson preparation group in schools in China to the development of outcomes-based learning approaches, use of portfolios in Hong Kong, and the use of ICT and university-school partnerships in Taiwan. Robert Bullough, Jr. in Chap. 4 analyzes the status and quality of teacher education in the US with a move toward uniformity and standardization. He also addresses the tensions between neo-liberal ideology and functional professionalism related to the model of medical education. He explains that a trend of marketization and academic capitalism as well as a decline in professionalism are apparent under the influence of neo-liberal thoughts. Progress of professional development schools that exemplify partnerships between teacher education programs and school is also notable. Such partnerships entail the achievement of five standards: learning community, accountability, collaboration, diversity, and equity as well as structures, resources and role. Nonetheless, although disputes on teacher education exist, the findings from the teacher survey of the National Center for Education Information indicate that teachers had positive perceptions of the value of teacher education to teaching quality.

In Chap. 5, David Imig, Donna Wiseman, Angela Wiseman, and Scott Imig raise fundamental and policy challenging questions on the duration of programs, the advantage between school-based programs and university campus-based programs, relative emphasis between subject matter knowledge, socio-cultural theory, and appropriate pedagogy, modes of instruction, models of classroom management as well as issues of training versus educating future teachers and shaping the personal values and disposition of future teachers as regards high-quality teacher education in the US context. They identify two 'camps' of contenders, one group known as "traditionalists" or "professionalists" who support extended and clinic-based uni-

versity campus-based programs, and another group known as "reformers" which refers to those who utilize neoliberal ideas and highlight performance, value-addedness of students, practitioner knowledge, and responsibility. Although the traditionalists and reformer paradigms are concerned with the need to raise quality, they differ in their assumptions and approaches to teacher education. The authors conclude by exploring the common ground of student learning probably agreed upon by both camps and raising the definition and measurement of student learning which may be defined narrowly as subject matter knowledge or broadly as whole child development.

In Chap. 6, Anne Jasman examines from the Western perspective on the quality of initial teacher education policies and practices in Australia and England by looking at the past, present, and beyond. She argues that initial teacher education in universities has been marginalized in Australia, England, and the US. Governments have been calling for raised entry qualifications, refined and re-defined curriculum specifications, pedagogy and assessment requirements, and increased central government control through accreditation, thereby reducing the importance of theory and rejuvenating the importance of apprenticeship model in initial teacher education. For future development, she speculates that different scenarios may range from status quo scenarios of "continued bureaucratic school system and extended market model" to re-schooling scenarios of "teachers as social carers and knowledge workers" and de-schooling scenarios of "schools being dissatisfied and dying and teachers being outflowing and collapsed."

In Chap. 7, Brian Caldwell depicts the need in the Australian context, for an alignment of policies and practices in teacher education among stakeholders, including universities, governments, and institutions in the public and private sectors. He analyzes critical issues of student selection, graduate employment, professional standards, partnerships, and policy milieu and leadership, many of which appear to be outside the control of teacher education providers.

The second part focuses on innovative curriculum, teaching, and assessment practices of teacher education that range from field experience, assessment of graduates, e-portfolios, and reflective journal writing (Cochran-Smith 2003; Meeus et al. 2009).

In Chap. 8, May Cheng and John Lee discuss different modes of field experience (FE) in teacher education programs by citing examples from both the West and the East. The spectrum from around the world cover a faculty-led FE in a university-based teacher education program to a totally school-led school-based FE, as well as integrating university-based courses with FE components in a school setting. To enhance the quality of FE, they propose three aspects that need to be addressed, namely, engaging student-teachers as active learners, providing professional development opportunities for mentor teachers, and reinforcing school–university partnerships. To boost the learning of student-teachers during FE itself, three approaches are suggested: using assessment to facilitate student-teachers' reflective thinking; engaging student-teachers in reflective activities and in different contexts of FE such as cultural immersion or FE in a non-school setting; and integrating computer technology with FE and university coursework.

In Chap. 9, Diane Mayer, Andrea Allard, Julianne Moss, and Mary Dixon discuss the initial teacher education and assessment of graduates in Australia. They refer to the experiences of Deakin Authentic Teacher Assessment in preparing quality beginning teachers in which a pre-service teacher is required to submit a structured portfolio with five components: contexts for learning; planning teaching and assessment; teaching students and supporting learning; assessing student learning; and reflecting on teaching and learning. This approach has potential, they suggest, of empowering and facilitating dialogue among pre-service teachers, teacher educators, and school mentors.

In Chap. 10, Cher Ping Lim, John Chi-Kin Lee and Nan Jia examine the use of e-portfolio in pre-service teacher education and identify the benefits. These benefits include bridging the gap between theory and practice, engaging in dialogue with peers, mentor teachers and university supervisors, undertaking reflections on their teaching and learning practices, planning their own professional learning journeys and sharing their practices and resources. However, challenges may be encountered because of the lack of constructive reflections in teachers, lack of clear roles among participating parties, and lacking of motivation on the part of pre-service teachers in building up their own e-portfolios. With improvement in communication and practicum arrangement, the e-portfolio could be used in a sustainable manner for lifelong learning (Meeus et al. 2009).

In Chap. 11, Cheryl J. Craig, Yali Zou and Gayle Curtis emphasize UNESCO (2010)'s mission of learning how to live and learning how to be in a globalized world. They focus on the formal China Study Abroad program in teacher education by illustrating the reflective journaling of pre-service teachers as an informal approach to learning a culture. They examine journal writing from six strands: reflection, writing as a way of knowing, journal writing, travel study abroad, culture, and narrative exemplars. Through analysis of the reflective journal writings of students, they find seven overarching themes, including "bearing witness to experiences, naming intercultural connection, examining value conflicts, developing intercultural empathy, engaging in cultural healing, experiencing identity shifts, and cultivating agentive selves".

In Chap. 12, Reyes Quezada and Paula Cordeiro discuss internationalization in teacher education in the US and in a globalized context to cultivate culturally competent and globally proficient professionals through international study. They examine innovative student teaching and teaching abroad programs and educator exchange programs. In particular, they highlight the School of Leadership and Education Sciences of the University of San Diego as one of the successful endeavors.

The third part highlights the issues of managing change in teacher education, as illustrated by examples from different parts of the world. The chapters focus upon pedagogical approaches, partnership building between higher education and schools (Zeichner 2010), teachers' professional accountability and activism, scholarship in teacher education, enhancement of teaching as a moral practice, and addressing the needs and diversity of students.

Despite the trend of integrating pre-service teacher education into comprehensive universities with increased responsibilities vested in schools in most Western countries, a tradition of "university of education" still exists in several parts of Europe and Asia, including Mainland China, Taiwan, Japan, and Korea. No absolute dichotomy is notable between teacher education in the East and West, as highlighted by Ruth Hayhoe in Chap. 13. In the chapter, she explores quality in teacher education from a Confucian perspective and examines the experiences of normal schools and normal universities in France, America, Britain, Japan, and China from a socio-historical perspective. She argues that the normal university model in China might be understood as a hybrid that blends curricular features of Western and Chinese higher education and resonates with the Confucian pedagogy. John Goodlad (1994) argues that reforms in teacher education should be accompanied by improvements in schooling. He further suggests that exemplary schools could nurture exemplary teachers through symbiotic university-school partnerships.

In Chap. 14, Qing Gu discusses the importance of fostering partnerships between higher education and under-performing schools for the dual purposes of capacity building and school improvement in England. Through a case study of the Nottingham University Samworth Academy (NUSA) as a type of "research school" under the context of school-university partnership, the findings revealed the significance of managing tensions arising from cultural differences between two parties, enhancing social capital, establishing structures for sustainability, and building trust. This type of management raises questions on the role of university and Faculty of Education as a Professional School in contributing to local schools and communities, as well as to teacher development through partnership endeavors (Lee et al. 2004; Lee and Shiu 2008).

In Chap. 15, Judyth Sachs suggests that teachers could play an activist role in sharing their views to change the forms and content of teaching standards and ascertaining that their practices are transparent and accountable under the effect of testing regime, compliance, and bureaucratic regulations. She identifies two approaches to standards: the regulatory standards, in line with contractual accountability, which focuses on a technical approach to teaching, and performance and developmental standards, which is in line with responsive accountability, student-centered approaches to teaching and learning, and a view of professionals as learners. She proposes that for the alignment between accountability, standards, and activism, the move should be made towards responsive accountability with an emphasis on development, individual and collective responsibility, and trust and self-regulation developed by teachers and managed by the teaching profession.

In Chap. 16, John Loughran discusses the professional knowledge of teaching and its importance to scholarship in teacher education. He first asserts that teaching is problematic and complex and that professional learning could be enhanced by researching current practices. He calls for teacher educators to "create conditions for learning about teaching, in which the competing learning agendas are: (i) able to be recognized, managed, and negotiated; (ii) model how, as an expert pedagogue, those challenges are managed and responded to in action; and (iii) use the shared pedagogic experiences of students of teaching and teacher educators together as the

site for inquiry, development and refinement of knowledge *and* practice of teaching, scholarship of teacher education genuinely stands out".

In Chap. 17, Deborah Schussler and Peter Murrell, Jr. highlight quality teaching as a moral practice. Similar to many other authors in this book, they also point to the tension between cultivating students' academic development and fulfilling the requirements of accountability-driven curriculum, as well as the mismatch between compliance and compassion. Against this backdrop, they advocate the importance of cultivating practical wisdom that both entails moral will and moral skill, as well as building the capacity of discernment on the part of teacher.

In Chap. 18, Paul Cooper explores the connections between teacher education, teaching students with diverse needs, and social-emotional education. He also discusses the challenges for teacher education arising from the implementation of inclusive education by drawing examples from Hong Kong and England. Teacher education, he suggests, has a role to play in cultivating and equipping teachers to foster welcoming, cohesive, and egalitarian communities where students are valued as individuals who can learn the power of social and educational engagement.

In the final chapter, Miriam Ben-Peretz and Tali Aderet-German use Israel as a case to discuss teacher education processes as being subject to the interaction of three sets of agencies or forces: global and local influences, relationships between the past and the future, and the influence of societal contexts. Similar to other authors in this book, they identify a common trend toward increased uniformity and homogeneity in teacher education programs across different countries. They suggest that additional local elements be incorporated into teacher education programs and that increased importance be attached to the responsibilities of teacher educators as scholars entrusted with ensuring the highest quality of education.

1.3   Conclusion

The globalized context of educational and curriculum reforms calls for a shift in paradigms of learning and teaching, as well as a realization of quality teaching in schools and classrooms, teacher education institutions, and educators and programs accompanied by regimes of accountability, professional demands, and high societal expectations to produce or cultivate quality teachers with strong professional or occupational competences (Townsend 2011). Arguing with the policy logic that methods must be found to raise standards can be difficult. Teacher education is tasked with reforming its programs and operations, as well as confronting challenges, including the difficulties in enhancing teachers' occupational competence because of contextual influences, limited knowledge base of teaching and teacher education, and the detachment of many universities from the field of practice in schools. A range of different approaches for reforming teacher education have been forwarded, including emphasis on effectiveness through "managing by results," attention given to innovation and choice through "encouraging competition," promotion of integration by "embedding training in schooling," and emphasis on

continuous improvement of teacher education by "improving incumbent practice" (Sykes et al. 2010, p. 469). However, no one approach or combination of approaches appears to fully satisfy the aspirations for high-quality teachers and teaching, as well as the expectations for continuing improvement in student progress and achievement held by governments.

As shown in the chapters in this book, influential measures with regard to teacher education have been suggested across various parts of the world. Such measures include control of quality of teacher candidates into teacher education programs; quality assurance, monitoring, and accreditation of teacher education programs; enhancement of teacher education programs to master's level; licensure examinations for prospective teachers; and professional standards of teaching to be achieved by new and currently serving teachers. School involvement as initial teacher training providers has also been suggested to provide teacher education courses or experiences. Reforms are also evident in the development of different modes of field experience, the use of technology and e-portfolios in teacher education, and the use of reflective writing to enhance pre-service teachers' reflective capabilities. Nonetheless, many challenges remain unresolved, including conducting rigourous studies on the associations between teacher education, quality of teachers and teaching, and student progress and achievement.

Certainly, teacher educators cannot and should not be held entirely responsible for the quality of teachers over a career. They can only plant the seeds, establish "habits of the mind," and ensure that new teachers are equipped with the qualities, values, knowledge, and practical classroom skills that will enable them to teach. Developing quality is the responsibility of teachers themselves as professionals who, to sustain their professionalism, must continue to learn. Quality is also a responsibility of their school principals who must encourage and monitor the effects of teaching through the structures and cultures they create and work with over time, and of governments who establish the benchmarks for success. Day (2013, p. 35) reminds us that teacher educator researchers need to develop new mindsets for linking understanding of teachers, teaching, learning, and the work of teacher educators with student learning in schools. He concludes, as do we, by issuing a challenge to all teacher educators:

> The challenge, then, for all teacher educators today, is to send out into schools teachers who know themselves, who are aware of the challenges they are yet to face and equipped to respond to them, who are determined and have the capacities always to teach to their best, regardless of circumstances (Day 2013, p. 35).

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Part I
Quality in Teacher Education

Chapter 2
Teachers and the Quality of Education: Why Resilience Counts Most in Testing Times

Christopher Day

2.1   Introduction

Over the last 20 years, schools in all countries have been subject to a plethora of government reforms. All of these have been designed primarily for three purposes: (i) to devolve the responsibility of governing schools from central government to the municipalities and schools themselves. Such devolution has been accompanied, however, by increased emphasis upon and accountabilities for raising standards of pupil progress and achievement as defined by central government; (ii) to re-align teacher pre-service education from what has been perceived to be an over-reliance on theory to a greater reliance upon learning through experience of school-based practice; and (iii) to provide an increased focus on equity in order to 'narrow' or 'close' the gap in achievement between pupils between from socio-economically disadvantaged communities and those from more socio-economically advantaged communities. Whilst the pace of change varies between countries, the direction is the same and is promoted through, for example, the increasing globally influential work of OECD (2005a). It is not the purpose of this chapter to analyse the reforms themselves, to support or oppose them. Academics continue to provide research results which do both! Rather, the chapter will focus upon the lives of teachers whose work takes place in the contexts of such persisting reform contexts. It will suggest that teaching itself is both intellectual and emotional work which is characterised by risk, uncertainty and vulnerability; and that reform intensive environments of externally generated change demands, may be seen as creating additional needs for

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reserves of individual and organizational resilience rather than necessarily resulting in teachers, even those teachers who are the most vocationally oriented and who have the greatest commitment to their work, becoming 'victims'. To respond positively in principled ways, to bring their 'best selves' to their work as professionals in order to meet and mediate these challenges, 'everyday resilience' (Day 2012; Day and Gu 2014), founded on a strong sense of moral purpose, is needed.

2.2 The Nature of Resilience

It is a truism that over a lifetime, most workers, regardless of the particularity of their work context, role or status, will need at one time or another, for shorter or longer periods, or as an everyday feature of their work processes, to call upon reserves of physical, psychological or emotional energy if they are to carry out their work to the best of their ability. Schools and classrooms, especially, are demanding of energy of these kinds, partly because not every student chooses to be there and partly because successful teaching and learning requires cognitive, social and emotional investment by both teachers and students.

'Resilience' has its origins in child development research, where it is seen as a capacity to recover from adverse events. More recently, interest has grown in the capacity of adults to be resilient over a career, in different contexts and in times of change. Outside education, there is still a focus on resilience, which is defined as the ability to overcome extreme trauma or adversity, e.g. war, famine, and serious physical or psychological damage. The developing literature on resilience bears parallels with the stress prevention and reduction for more forward-looking and positive approaches. Rather than asking: 'How can we prevent stress and mental/emotional ill-health?' the questions it raises are: 'How can we foster resilience?', 'What type of training, support, work environment, culture and leadership and management practices will facilitate its development?'. The consideration of these questions in a national ESRC interdisciplinary seminar series in England (University of Nottingham 2010) suggested that, like young children, teachers' resilience lies in the contexts and the relationships in which they develop as professionals and not simply in the their personal attributes (http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/education/research/crsc/researchprojects/teachersandresilience/index.aspx).

Evidence presented during that series suggested that employers in general tend to underestimate the extent of psychological ill-health amongst their staff. For example, psychological ill-health, whether work-related or not, is estimated to cost UK employers approximately £25 billion per annum. This equates, on average, to £1000 per employee. A small organisation with 50 staff (for example, an average sized primary school) might, then, lose around £50,000 a year. This figure includes sickness absence and replacement costs, but also the reduced productivity of staff who attend work but who are unwell, a phenomenon known as 'presenteeism'. The Sainsbury Centre for Mental Health's report in the UK in 2007 estimated that 'presenteeism' accounted for at least 1.5 times as much lost working time as absenteeism.

Although precise figures for the education sector are not available, it is not unreasonable to assume that the extent of 'presenteeism' there may be as considerable as it is for the workforce as a whole: a substantial number of teachers may be attending work whilst not well. Over time this suggests that they will not be able to teach to their best.

A key strand of the seminar series was the presentation and examination from psychological, sociological and policy perspectives of national and international research knowledge of the work and lives of teachers. Taken together, these showed that whilst many teachers enter the profession with a sense of vocation and with a passion to give their best to the learning and growth of their pupils, for some, these become diminished with the passage of time, changing external and internal working conditions and contexts and unanticipated personal events. They may lose their sense of purpose, well-being and commitment which are so intimately connected with their positive sense of professional identity and which enable them to draw upon, deploy and manage the inherently dynamic emotionally vulnerable contexts in which they teach and in which their pupils learn. In a survey among teachers in schools in England, carried out by the Teacher Support Network (2008), for example, teachers reported the damaging impact of these symptoms on their work performance. Issues were, in rank order; excessive workload (associated with work-life balance); rapid pace of change; pupil behaviour; bullying by managers; and lack of career progression. A more recent survey by the National Union of Teachers (2012) reported similar findings, with the addition of 'aggression from pupils and parents'.

2.3 Everyday Resilience: More than an Individual Trait or Attribute

Over the last decade, although statistics continue to suggest that teaching is one of the most stressful professions in the twenty first century (HSE 2000, 2011; PricewaterhouseCoopers 2001; Nash 2005) and that it has experienced relatively higher turnover compared to many other professions (Ingersoll and Smith 2003; Ingersoll and Perda 2011), there is also consistent evidence which shows that many teachers in the profession have managed to weather the often unpredictable 'storms' of school and classroom life (Patterson and Kelleher 2005) and sustain their commitment to make a difference to the learning lives of their students over a professional life span (e.g. OECD 2005b; Day et al. 2007a). In this 'over time' sense, resilience is not a quality that is fixed.

One of the conclusions of the ESRC Seminar Series was that the more traditional, psychologically derived notions that resilience is, 'the ability to bounce back in adverse circumstances' do not lend themselves to the work of teachers. Resilience is not a quality that is innate. Rather, it is a construct that is relative, developmental and dynamic. Resilience, in this sense, is more than the ability to 'cope', which

suggests that it is only a means of survival. Rather, having a capacity for resilience suggests the ability to 'manage' challenging events and situations in a positive way, such that 'bouncing back' means to overcome. A range of research suggests that resilient capacities can be built and achieved through the establishment of caring and attentive educational settings in which school leaders and teachers promote positive and high expectations, positive learning environments, and participate in building and sustaining collegial social communities, and supportive peer relationships. Without such organisational support, bringing a passionate, competent and resilient self to teaching effectively every day of every week of every school term and year can be eroded. Without building and sustaining the capacity for resilience over time, then, it is unlikely that teachers will be able to teach to their best.

The seminar series concluded that to teach to one's best over time requires '**everyday resilience**'. This is more than the ability to manage the different anticipated and unanticipated change scenarios which teachers experience, more than coping or surviving. It is being able to continue to have the capacity and capability to be sufficiently resilient, to have the desire and the energy as well as the knowledge and strong moral purpose to be able to teach to their best. The capacity to be resilient in mind and action is likely to fluctuate according to personal, workplace, policy challenges and pupil behaviour; and the emotional and intellectual commitment and ability of individuals to manage the situations in which such fluctuations occur is likely to vary. The process of teaching, learning and leading requires those who are engaged in them to exercise resilience on an everyday basis, to have a resolute persistence and commitment and to be supported in these by strong core values. This research informed, more positive view of teachers' capacities for resilience is associated with teacher quality and may be considered to be of use in inform policies of selection, recruitment and retention. The key messages from the research seminar series were that:

- Teaching at its best is emotionally as well as intellectually demanding work and demands 'everyday' resilience
- Resilience is more than an individual trait. It is a capacity which may be influenced positively and negatively through interactions with external forces (e.g. national policy changes), and between people within particular organisational contexts
- Teachers need the capacity to be resilient. This can be built and sustained
- Levels of work related stress, anxiety and depression are higher within education than within many other occupational groups
- Rather than focussing upon managing stress, a more productive approach would be to focus upon fostering and sustaining resilience
- Teachers' capacity for resilience can to be actively nurtured through initial training and managed through different phases of their professional lives
- School leaders have a particular responsibility to foster and nurture teachers' capacities and capabilities to exercise everyday resilience in order to ensure that they are able, through who they are and what they do, always to teach to their best

- Because government has a particular responsibility in relation to teaching standards, it needs to establish national policy environments which acknowledge the importance of resilience to high quality teaching
- Recent international research into the work and lives of school leaders who sustain success (Moos et al. 2011) also supports these broader understandings, demonstrating that whilst the concept of resilience elaborated in the discipline of psychology helps clarify the personal characteristics of trait-resilient people, it seems not to have addressed in any substantive way how the capacity of the resilient in different sets of positive and negative circumstances, whether these be connected to personal or professional factors, can be enhanced or inhibited by the nature of the external and internal environments in which we work, the people with whom we work, the strength or our beliefs or aspirations and our moral/ethical purposes. Support for this more positive perspective can be found also in Fredrickson's (2004) theory of positive emotions. She suggests that, 'throughout experiences of positive emotions…people transform themselves, becoming more creative, knowledgeable, resilient, socially integrated and healthy (Fredrickson 2004; 1369); that, 'the personal resources accrued during states of positive emotions are durable, [outlasting] the transient emotional states that led to the acquisition (Fredrickson 2004: 1372). In other words, they serve as resources which assist people in managing adversity.

2.4 Professional Identity and Emotions

Research into resilience as a contributor to novice teacher success, commitment and retention in North America also suggests a relationship 'between resilience and…personal efficacy and emotional competence' (Tait 2008: 57), and the author provides a useful summary table (Table 2.1).

Yet empirical psychosocial research has revealed that capacities for resilience are not only bound to factors such as personal efficacy and emotional intelligence or determined by individual histories. There is, also, an increasing recognition that the often unpredictable nature of teaching and learning and the uncertain contexts in which they take place demands 'everyday resilience'. Processes of teaching, learning and leading require those who are engaged in them to have a resolute everyday persistence and commitment, which is much more than the ability to bounce back in adverse circumstances. The capacity to be resilient is, therefore, an important factor in teaching and teacher effectiveness over time and can be developed. It cannot be regarded as only a personal trait.

Researchers have observed that over a career span teachers' may lose heart as a result of (i) tensions in relations with pupils and parents; (ii) excessive externally imposed initiatives and reforms; (iii) increases in bureaucracy; and (iv) negative images of teaching in the media (Smithers and Robinson 2003).

Table 2.1 Indicators of resilience, personal efficacy, and emotional intelligence

Resilience	Personal efficacy	Emotional intelligence
Able to show positive adaption in the face of adversity	Sees tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than threats	Confronts failure with optimism
Able to rebound	Able to rebound	Able to handle stress
Flexible	Willing to try different methods	Adaptable
Able to make and maintain supportive relationships	Benefits from social persuasion and support	Builds bonds
Reflective	Reflective	Reflective
Has problem-solving skills	Open to new ideas/methods	Negotiates solutions
Able to plan	Able to plan	Shares plan
Seeks help	Asks for help when needed	Seeks feedback and support
Able to act independently	Self-monitoring/regulating	Self-regulating/motivating
Has goals	Sets challenging goals	Sets goals
Persistent	Persistent	Persistent
Takes risks	Takes risks	Demonstrates initiative
Optimistic	Predicts capability	Optimistic
Grotberg (1997), Reivic and Shatte (2002), and Benard (2004)	Bandura (1997) and Tschannen-Moran and Wolfold Hoy (2001)	Goleman (1995), Keirstead (1999), and Cherniss (2000)

Tait (2008:61)

> Strong identification with the teaching fades over time. It seems that the initial enthusiasm for teaching cannot, unfortunately, be maintained over the years. More experienced teachers' regret, on a systematic basis, that the professional image of teaching has deteriorated over the course of their career… (Müller et al. 2009: 591)

Teachers' commitment and resilience are mediated by their capacities and capabilities to advance their pupils' learning successfully and the kinds and quality of the support they receive in managing different 'scenarios' in which they live and work and by their needs and concerns. It follows that school leaders (i) need to be aware of these 'scenarios' and 'phases' if they are to plan for CPD which is relevant and effective; that (ii) CPD will need to represent a range of learning and development opportunities; and (iii) that CPD interventions must 'target' both instrumental needs and those designed to support teachers' commitment and resilience. The VITAE research (Day et al. 2007a, b) found that teachers' work and lives spanned six professional life phases and that each had its own challenges to their commitment and resilience.

Several educational researchers (Nias 1989, 1996; Hargreaves 1994; Sumsion 2002; Zembylas 2003; Schutz and Zembylas 2009; Day and Lee 2011, among others) have noted that teacher identities are constructed not only from technical but also emotional aspects of self and role. They are the link between the social structures in which teachers work and the ways they act:

> Emotion is a necessary link between social structures and social actor. The connection is never mechanical because emotions are normally not compelling but inclining. But without the emotions category, accounts of situated actions would be fragmentary and incomplete. Emotion is provoked by circumstance and is experienced as transformation of dispositions to act. It is through the subject's active exchange with others that emotional experience is both stimulated in the actor and orienting of their conduct. Emotion is directly implicated in the actor's transformation of their circumstances, as well as the circumstances' transformation of the actor's disposition to act. (Barbalet 2002:4)

Teachers are likely to experience a range of sometimes contrasting emotions in the pursuit and as a consequence of their work (Møller 2005). Thus it is not surprising that, because of their emotional investments, they can experience vulnerabilities when control of long-held principles and practices is challenged by policy changes or new expectations for standards, when their moral integrity is questioned, or when trust and respect from parents, the public and their teachers is eroded (Day and Gu 2014; Scribner et al. 2011).

Teachers in different phases of their professional lives are likely to face distinctively different includes, tensions, professional and personal concerns (Day and Gu 2010). Although the ways in which they build and sustain their vocation, commitment and resilience are complex and continuous, their capacity to do so may also fluctuate depending upon the effects of a combination of workplace-based and personal influences and also their cognitive and emotional capacities to manage these influences. In analyzing what kept 73 % of the 300 VITAE teachers committed in the profession (Day et al. 2007a), resilience emerged as an intellectually and emotionally important concept which touched the heart of the quality retention issue. By linking the concept of resilience with the multi-layered relational contexts of teachers' work and lives, we were able to explore in greater depth how establishing connections with colleagues and students produces collective intellectual and emotional capital for their job fulfilment and commitment; and to identify the critical role of school leaders in creating conditions for the seeds of trust, openness, collegiality and collective responsibility to grow and flourish on their school site. Resilience in this relational sense is the culmination of collective and collaborative endeavours.

The nature of identity itself is the subject of ongoing debate. Previous large scale mixed methods research (Day et al. 2007a, b) suggests that it is a composite consisting of interactions among personal, professional and situational dimensions (Day et al. 2007a, b) each of which is subject to different scenarios:

1. *Professional* dimension: This reflects social and policy expectations of what a good teacher is and the educational ideals of the teacher. It is open to the influence of long-term policy and social trends as to what constitutes a good teacher, classroom practitioner, etc. It could have a number of competing and conflicting elements such as local or national policy, continuing professional development (CPD), workload, roles and responsibilities, etc.
2. *Situated or socially located* dimension: within a specified school, department or classroom. The situated dimension is located in a specific school and context and is affected by local conditions (i.e. pupil behavior, demographics, level of socio-economic disadvantage), demographics, leadership, support and feedback. It is

affected by pupils, support and feedback loops from teachers' immediate working context, and is connected to long-term identity.

3. *Personal dimension*: The personal dimension is located in life outside school and is linked to family and social roles. This dimension of identity could involve various competing elements such as being a father, son, partner, etc. Feedback comes from family and friends, and they often become sources of tension as the individual's sense of identity can become out of step.

   The research (Day et al. 2007a, b) found that teachers experienced tensions within and between these three dimensions at any given time and that each dimension of identity was subject to influence from a number of positive and negative scenarios. The strength of teachers' commitment, job satisfaction, well-being, self-efficacy and vulnerability, agency and resilience, and perceptions of effectiveness was affected but not necessarily determined by these scenarios. Although the influence from each of these was mediated by teachers' strong sense of vocation/moral purposes/values and the interaction between these and their working environment, where any one (or more) of these scenarios, was dominant, thus requiring more emotional, intellectual and even physical energy from the teachers, their capacity to manage the other dimensions over time became more limited. The greater the dominance of the influence of one or more scenario over the others, the more the relative stability of existing identities was challenged. Because managing such new (or persisting) instabilities and tensions required additional time and emotional energy, this challenged teachers' sense of commitment, job satisfaction, well-being, agency and effectiveness.

4. Instabilities, whether of a personal, professional or situated nature or a combination of these, and especially in their early years of teaching, are likely to create stresses in the emotional fabric of teachers' sense of identity. They need to be resilient and to be supported emotionally during these periods in order that these may be managed in ways that build or sustain positive identities and existing effectiveness. Such support, however, should not be confined only to novice teachers. Contexts of persisting reform may challenge the educational beliefs, values and practices of teachers in all career phases. Existing identities may become what MacLure (1993: 312) long ago described as "a continuing site of struggle."

Schools need to pay attention to personal, workplace and socio-cultural and policy factors which may influence teachers' sense of professional identity. These factors may also influence their intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Intrinsic* motivation has been defined as:

> …doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable…an inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore and to learn. (Ryan and Deci 2000a: 55 and 2000b: 70, cited in Muller et al. 2009: 578)

In contrast, *extrinsic* motivation:

> …regulates behaviour, 'in order to attain a separable outcome'. (Ryan and Deci 2000b: 71, cited in Muller et al., op. cit: 578)

Whilst these interact at different times and in different ways, it is the former – *intrinsic* motivation – which characterises teachers who have a strong sense of vocation or 'calling. It is these teachers who are likely to be resilient in ways which others may not. However, even their resilience, born out of and strengthened by their high levels of commitment, is unlikely to be inexhaustible. It will be enhanced or diminished by the quality of their working environment, the relative autonomy with which they are trusted to organise and conduct their work in classrooms, the support they receive from school leaders and colleagues, the culture of the department and school, and the success which their pupils achieve.

A recent review of the psychological literature on teachers' professional identity found that it was composed of six elements: values, commitment, self-efficacy, emotions, knowledge and beliefs, and micro-politics (Hong 2010: 1531); that, whilst erosion in each of these was a factor, *emotional burnout* was the key cause of drop out; and that conditions of work in individual schools actively influenced the decision to study or to leave:

> Unfulfilled commitment, lack of efficacy, unsupportive administrators, and beliefs emphasising teachers' heavy responsibilities were contributing factors for emotional burnout. (Hong 2010: 1539)

In a later qualitative study of seven teachers who stayed and seven who left teaching during their first 5 years, using the same psychological lenses, Hong (2012) found that whilst both groups experienced similar challenges (classroom management and effective delivery of lessons), 'leavers showed weaker self-efficacy beliefs than stayers, who tended to get more support and help from school administrators' (2012: 417). Hong concluded that, 'The stayers and leavers showed different resilient attitudes and responses to challenging situations'. It is worth referring to this conclusion in detail, since it provides insights into the ways in which teachers' psychological constructs (values, beliefs, self-efficacy, commitment, emotions) influence and are influenced by their working environments, and the extent to which different teachers are able to manage (or not manage) such dynamic interactions:

> When leavers faced the challenges of managing the classroom and handling students' misbehaviours, they often experienced diminished self-efficacy beliefs, attributed the difficulty to their own personality of characteristics and experienced emotional burnout. However, under the same challenging situation, stayers could still maintain strong self-efficacy beliefs with the help and support of administrators. Additionally, they strategically set emotional lines or boundaries between themselves and students, so that they would not take negative events personally or get burned out. Regarding content-specific beliefs, leavers held the belief that they were heavily responsible for students' learning, not realising students' own role and effort in the learning process. (Hong 2012: 431)

Table 2.2 identifies three key motivators which attract teachers to the professional initially – job characteristics, working conditions and professional image – and shows how these may become degraded over time, causing their capacity for resilience to be depleted. The final column on the right shows how five 'key determinants' can 'leverage' the motivation of teachers over the course of their careers: task system; leadership system; reward system; social system; and professional development system.

Table 2.2 Transversal issues to attract, develop and retain teachers' commitment and motivation

Transversal issues	Motivations for entering teaching	Motivations for leaving teaching	Motivational inducement systems involved
Job characteristics	Little job routine	Increasing work load (e.g. increasing diversity of tasks, more administrative work)	Task system (e.g. job definition, job description)
	Working in a social network providing various human contacts (students, colleagues, parents)	Increasing number of meetings	Leadership system (e.g. change implementation)
	An evolving and demanding job	Dissatisfaction with content and the way that institutional reforms have been implemented	Professional development system (e.g. enhancement of teacher's competencies)
	Transmission of knowledge to young people	Too more effort going into disciplining rather than into teaching students	Task system (e.g. evolution of teacher's responsibilities and professional activities)
		Student behaviour	Social system (e.g. perception of teacher's role in society)
Working conditions	Autonomy in pedagogical choices and activities	Lack of autonomy and flexibility	Task system (e.g. structures and processes to carry out professional activities)
	Autonomy in performing teaching activities	Lack of hierarchical support	Professional development system (e.g. opportunities to acquire skills and knowledge)
		Lack of flexibility	Leadership system (e.g. guidance and support to carry out professional activities)
			Social system (e.g. teamwork and feedback procedures)
			Reward system (e.g. pay and working conditions)
Professional image	Identification with teaching profession	Degradation of teaching profession's image	Task system (e.g. vision creation and mission development)
			Social system (e.g. shared vision and set of norms)

Müller et al. (2009: 592)

Roosmarijn and her colleagues (2014, in press), use four 'resiliency-related' theories from outside the educational sector in exploring teacher and school resilience:

1. *Resilience engineering*: 'variability in performance is normal and…the challenge is to cope with this variability in a flexible, robust and mindful way';
2. *Organisational mindfulness*: 'mindful engagement is built around the principles of anticipation and the principles of containment';
3. *Human resource management*: 'If we want to enhance resilience, we…need transformational leaders and employees that want to align their personal goals with the organisational goals;
4. *Resilience as a social system*; 'If we want to enhance resilience, we can either focus on diminishing risk factors (employee internal and external stressors)…or enhance resources like supportive networks, problem solving ability, appraisal and harmony (protective factors).

They suggest that, taken together, these theories point to the need to use multilevel approaches in building resilience capacities and that these approaches – anticipating, monitoring, responding and learning – are needed for individuals, teams and schools to develop resilience.

In the context of a consideration of capacity building for resilience and its constituent components of self-efficacy, optimism, emotional energy, trust and motivation, it is worth briefly examining four metaphors of continuing professional learning and development identified by Judyth Sachs (2011). The first two are oriented towards 'training', the third and fourth towards teacher learning:

1. *CPD as retooling*. This is seen as the dominant training model, based upon a 'practical' competency view of teaching in which ideas, knowledge and techniques learned can be immediately applied to the classroom. It represents, 'a skill-based, technocratic view of teaching' (Kennedy 2005: 237) and, 'is likely to promote a limited conception of teaching and being a teacher' (Day 1999: 139).
2. *CPD as remodelling*. This is seen by Sachs as being, 'more concerned with modifying existing practices to ensure that teachers are compliant with government change agendas…[it]…reinforces the idea of the teacher as the uncritical consumer of knowledge and operating at the level of improving specific skills as these relate to immediate classroom practice' (2011: 5)
3. *CPD as revitalising*. Here the focus is upon teacher renewal, providing opportunities for teachers to reflect upon why they came into teaching in the first place, examining beliefs and practices, perhaps through professional development networks, or participation in practice-based inquiries.
4. *CPD as re-imagining*. This represents what Sachs calls, 'a transformative view of teacher professionalism' (2011: 7) which acknowledges the complexities of being a teacher. It seeks to develop in teachers their own, 'critical and transformative capacities' (2011: 7). Here, teachers may participate in collaborative

activities in collegial environments which, 'support open minded inquiry, reflection…they support teachers in validating their knowledge and building on it' (2011: 8)

Whilst there have been many studies which have focused on particular internal and external aspects of teachers' work and lives, school systems, school leadership, national policies and their consequences, there have been a few which attempt to provide a holistic view of what constitutes the conditions for and practices of building and sustaining teachers' capacity to teach to their best. A focus upon maintaining and renewing their sense of positive professional identity and individual and collective moral purpose, efficacy, competency and commitment would do much, also, to contribute not only to their physical retention but also to the quality of their work: what I have called elsewhere, '**quality retention**' (Day et al. 2009). As Johnson and her colleagues (2005) have argued, the physical retention of teachers 'in and of itself, is not a worthy goal':

> Students are not served well when a district retains teachers without regard to quality. Little can be achieved (and much might be lost) when a district succeeds in reducing teachers turnover if some of those teachers are incompetent, mediocre, disengaged, or burnt out. Instead, student learning is the goal, and schools must seek to retain teachers who demonstrate that they are skilled and effective in the classroom, are commited to student learning, and are ready and able to contribute to the improvement of their school. (Johnson et al. 2005: 2)

2.5 How Resilient Leaders Can Contribute to Resilient Teachers

Resilience can be fostered or diminished through the social environment of the school (for example, leadership interventions in establishing and nurturing structures and cultures). Recent European research on the impact of psychosocial hazards on teachers at their workplace (ETUCE 2011) found that, 'a higher job satisfaction is presumed to decrease the chances of stress' (ETUCE 2011: 19) among teachers. Moreover, and perhaps not surprisingly, the same research found that the factors that had the strongest impact upon job satisfaction were 'trust and fairness' in the workplace, followed by 'sense of community', 'meaning of work', resources and 'work privacy conflict' (i.e. compatibilities or incompatibilities of working and private lives).

It is clear that there is no magic formula by which teachers can achieve success. However, almost all research internationally points to the key role of school leaders who, it is claimed, are second only to teachers in their ability to influence pupil progress and attainment (Leithwood et al. 2006). The same literature claims with authority that whereas teachers influence pupils directly through their work in classrooms, principals do so indirectly through the structures, environments and cultures which they promote and the quality and range of learning and development oppor-

tunities for teachers which they ensure and in which they participate (Robinson et al. 2009). Thus, whilst there is a current (one could almost say relentless) policy focus upon so-called 'instructional leadership' or 'leadership for learning' (Hallinger 2010), effective, successful leaders always accompany this with an equally strong focus upon the quality of the teaching and learning environment, whole-school vision, setting directions, redesigning organisational structures, and developing and sustaining the capacities of teachers to teach to their best through comprehensive and differentiated professional learning and development opportunities.

However, school leadership, like classroom teaching, is a complex process and managing complexity is, in itself, inherently stressful. It is stressful because it involves influencing others in order that they might strive to improve and thrive in different ways; and improvement involves change. Successful school leaders know that there are associations between the quality of classroom teaching and the quality of student learning and achievement. They know, also, that classroom teachers work to influence a range of students who themselves may or may not wish to learn and may or may not wish to learn in the way their teachers wish them to learn. The efforts to influence student learning, which teachers who are teaching to their best must make daily, are considerable, and in order for them to grow and sustain their passion, expertise and success, they themselves will need support. Like students, they may be in different phases of their professional learning lives and demonstrate different levels of competence and commitment (Day et al. 2007a, b).

If the capacity for resilience is indeed the outcome of a dynamic process of interaction within and between individual biographies and their past and present sociocultural contexts, it follows that a key role of leaders is to foster the individual and collective capacity-building of resilience. For example, teachers may respond positively or negatively in the presence of challenging circumstances, and this will depend on the quality of organisational or colleague leadership as well as the strength of their own commitment. Extended collaborations, for example, need to be managed in order to avoid their potential for 'collaborative inertia' (Huxham and Vangen 2005:13).

2.6 Beyond Survival: Sustaining Resilience

Over the years, the evidence from my own and a range of research internationally on outstanding teachers, outstanding leaders and outstanding schools in changing social, cultural and political landscapes of education nationally and internationally has led me to observe that, regardless of age, experience, gender or school context, teachers and schools *can* change the worlds of their pupils and that many of them *do*! They are not simply survivors but commited and competent professionals and organisations that are proud of being at the centre of a profession which is charged with making a difference to the learning, lives and achievement of all children and young people, They have what Hargreaves and Fullan (2012: 3) call 'professional capital'. This is a composite of 'social', 'human' and 'decisional' capital.

The capacity for resilience is especially important in building and sustaining the ability and willingness to exercise, 'decisional' capital defined as:

> The capital that professionals acquire and accumulate through structured and unstructured experience, practice and reflection-capital that allows them to make wise judgements in circumstances where there is no fixed rule or piece of incontroversible evidence to guide them. (Hargreaves and Fullan 2012: 93–4)

Hargreaves and Fullan point to the power of decisional capital in allowing teachers to make 'wise' judgements. However, when the nature of applying wisdom to circumstances where there is no 'fixed rule' or 'piece of incontrovertible evidence' to guide them, is examined more closely, it is reasonable to suggest that to exercise wisdom requires, among other preconditions (e.g. discernment, knowledge) the efficacy, motivation, job fulfilment and commitment which are integral parts of resilience.

Whilst these are essential attributes, in themselves they are not enough. Poor teachers may be resilient. They may survive without changing, without improving. Resilience without moral purpose, without a willingness to be self-reflective and learn in order to change in order to continue to improve is not enough. Resilience, then, cannot be considered in isolation from these and other constructs of academic optimism, trust and hope, trust and moral purpose.

2.7   Academic Optimism

Academic optimism in teachers has been defined as a teacher's individual and collective beliefs, 'that they can teach effectively, their students can learn and parents will support them so that the teacher can press hard for learning' (Beard et al. 2010). It includes, 'cognitive, affective and behavioural components of optimism merging into a single integrated construct' (Beard et al. 2010: 1142) and is associated with relation and organizational trust (Bryk and Schneider 2002; Seashore-Louis 2007) nurtured, built and spread by successful headteachers. Whilst it follows that academic optimism is a necessary constituent for success for teachers, it is not unreasonable to argue that academic optimism is a characteristic that is common to all successful heads also. Indeed, Beard et al. (2010) also associate academic optimism with 'enabling' school cultures, defined by Hoy and Miskel (2005) as hierarchies that help rather than hinder, and systems of rules and regulations that guide problem-solving rather than punish failure.

2.8   Trust

The Oxford English Dictionary defines trust as 'confidence in or reliance on some quality or attribute of a person or thing'. Trust is, then, associated also with, 'the quality of being trustworthy, fidelity, reliability and loyalty' (www.oecd.com). In other words, trust and trustworthiness are in a reciprocal relationship. It is claimed

that 'a presumption of trust rather than a presumption of mistrust helps individuals and organisations to flourish' (Seldon 2009: preface):

> As role models, leaders across society must meet two key criteria of trustworthiness; behave ethically and be technically proficient. The power of leaders to build or destroy trust is vast. Without honesty and competence, suspicion will grow. (Seldon 2009: 26)

Trust is an individual, relational and organizational concept, and its presence and repeated enactment are as vital to successful school improvement as any expression of values, attributes and the decisions that heads may make. Research has suggested that trust both determines organizational performance and is a product of organizational performance (Bryk and Schneider 2004; Seashore-Louis 2007; Day et al. 2011).

Trust with organisations cannot, however, be unconditional:

> Discerning the proper level of trust requires wisdom and discernment on the part of the educational leader. Optimal trust is produced, measured and conditional. (Tschannen-Moran 2004: 57)

2.9 Hope

Successful teaching is, by definition, a journey of hope based upon a set of ideals. Arguably, it is our ideals that sustain us through difficult times and changing personnel and professional environments. They are an essential part of resilience:

> Having hope means that one will not give in to overwhelming anxiety…Indeed, people who are hopeful evidence less depression than others as they maneuver through life in pursuit of their goals, are less anxious in general, and have fewer emotional distresses. (Goleman 1995: 87)

The evidence from research is that resilient teachers who sustain success in student learning and achievement are always beacons of hope in their schools and communities.

2.10 Moral Purpose

Resilience is an essential but insufficient indicator of teacher success. A sense of individual and collective moral purpose is key to sustaining values of care, broad educative purposes and a belief that every student can achieve. Poor teachers may be resilient. They may survive without changing, without improving. Resilience without moral purpose, without a willingness to be self-reflective and learn in order to change in order to continue to improve is not enough. Resilience, then, cannot be considered in isolation from these and other constructs of commitment, competence, agency, vocation, individual and collective academic optimism, trust and hope.

2.11   Conclusion

Attracting, developing, retaining and renewing effective teachers are issues of global concern (OECD 2005b). 'Effective teachers' are those who have academic optimism, hope, trust and a strong sense of moral purpose, as well as the necessary knowledge and competencies to engage pupils, cause them to learn and achieve to the limits of their potential and beyond and invoke in them a love of learning. Yet to fulfil this definition of effectiveness, teachers themselves need to be highly motivated, for:

> …what leads an individual to start a type of behaviour, to direct it towards specific objectives and to support it both intensely and persistently is explained by needs, values and motives which have to be satisfied. (Muller et al. 2009: 577)

Understanding how the relationship between resilience and effectiveness in teachers is critical. Given the likely associations between resilience and teaching quality, it is all the more surprising, therefore, to find that the capacity and capability to exercise resilience in schools has been largely ignored by governments, headteachers and researchers in the past who have preferred instead to focus upon problems of teacher stress, burnout and retention. Which parent, for example, would want their child to be taught by a teacher who was unable to do so because their motivation, moral purpose, sense of job fulfilment, commitment and capacity to be resilient, had become eroded over time?

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Chapter 3
Teacher Education in the Greater China Region: Status, Issues and Prospects

John Chi-Kin Lee and Huan Song

3.1 Introduction

The Greater China region has a long tradition influenced by the Confucian cultural heritage that highly respects teachers as "learned scholars" and "moral figures" [*renshi*] (Wang and Fwu 2007, p. 178; Wang 2012, p. 666). Since the early twenty-first century, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China (PRC), Mainland China and Taiwan have undergone curriculum and teaching reforms associated with "learning to learn" and quality-oriented education, respectively. The school curriculum reform in Hong Kong has included a greater emphasis on helping students to learn, promoting school-based curriculum development and pedagogical changes in classrooms through four main key tasks, such as reading to learn, information technology (IT) for interactive learning, moral and civic education and project learning (Curriculum Development Council 2001, p. 14). The government has likewise encouraged teacher educators to conduct research and development projects designed to inform curriculum policy and practice in schools, to share successful experiences of school-based curriculum development with colleagues in the school sector and to strengthen pre-service and in-service programmes in learning areas and assessment for learning of students and lifelong learning for teachers (Curriculum Development Council 2001, p. 117; Ng et al. 2013).

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The *Guidelines for Curriculum Reform of Basic Education* (Experimental Draft) defined the six goals of the curriculum reform in Mainland China as follows (MOE in the People's Republic of China 2001; Yin and Lee 2012, pp. 2–3):

- To change the emphasis in curricula from simply effecting knowledge transmission to accentuating the process of learning;
- To change the discipline-centred structure of curriculum and ensure its integration with and adaptability to the different needs of students in different regions;
- To renew the "difficult, complicated, prejudiced and outdated" curriculum content and make the curricula more relevant to student, to the society and the advancement of technology;
- To change the stress of teaching practices and implementation of curriculum from rote learning and drill to inquiry ability and active learning;
- To change the emphasis of assessment from selection purpose to the usage of assessment to evaluate the improvement of schools, students and teachers; and
- To change the centralised curriculum system to a three-level system that consists of nationwide, local and school curriculum to make the curricula adaptable to local contexts and various schools.

The document likewise specified that teacher education institutions and higher education organizations should adjust the objectives, allocation of professional programmes and curriculum structure, as well as reform the teaching methods. The 9-year integrated curriculum was fully implemented in Taiwan in 2002, which aimed to "develop humanistic attitudes, enhance integration ability, cultivate democratic literacy, foster indigenous awareness and global perspective, and build up the capacity for lifelong learning" (MOE, R.O.C (Taiwan) 2006; Peng et al. 2011, pp. 51–52).

Issues regarding curriculum implementation remain despite the remarkable achievements and positive effects of teaching reforms. These issues include curriculum implementation, teacher development and student learning. Concurrently, worldwide attention on the issue of raising teacher quality and reforming teacher education (TE) has increased. In the case of TE in Mainland China, normal schools, teacher colleges and normal universities form a hierarchical TE system in the era of *Shifan*. Meanwhile, in the post-*Shifan* era, roughly 70 % of teacher preparation is conducted by teacher institutions of higher education, whereas approximately 30 % is organized by more comprehensive universities and colleges through schools of education by providing TE programmes (Shi and Englert 2008, p. 356). Reforms towards different models of "teacher cultivation" have been implemented in response to economic globalization and international trends. The first model, "three plus one" (i.e., 3 years of discipline-related courses and a year of professional/education courses), is designed for 4-year universities and colleges. The second model, "two plus one plus one" (i.e., 2 years of science or liberal arts discipline-related courses, a year of specialized discipline courses and another year of professional/education courses), is designed for 4-year institutions of undergraduate education. The third model, "two plus two" (i.e., 2 years of general education in science/liberal arts discipline-related courses and 2 years of specialized discipline courses or

professional/education courses), is designed for some universities, such as Sichuan Normal University and Ningbo University. The fourth type of model, "four plus X", is for students who have finished a 4-year degree programme and wish to obtain additional credits in teacher education at the same tertiary institutions with a possible award of "double-diploma/degree" (Shi and Englert 2008, pp. 355–356). In Hong Kong, government-run colleges of education used to offer 2- and 3-year full-time sub-degree level programmes (Teachers' Certificate or Certificate of Education), as well as a consecutive model in which the Faculties/Department of Education of universities provided Postgraduate Certificate of/Diploma in Education (PGCE/ PGDE) programmes known as the "three plus one" model (Lai and Grossman 2008). The university structure has been reformed from 3 to 4 years (including the intake of students from the old and new senior secondary systems), and the upgrading and amalgamation of the colleges of education into the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd) have been undertaken in 1994; thus, "four plus one" and "five-year" BEd and/or double-degree model have become the prevailing TE models under the 4-year university regime (Lee 2013, pp. 174–175).

In Taiwan, amendments of the Teacher Education Law in 1994 allowed all public and private universities to offer TE programmes. Teachers were previously trained by normal universities in the past but the current system allows many other universities to engage in teacher preparation. Education universities primarily provide 4-year TE programmes for primary school and kindergarten teachers, whereas normal and other universities tend to offer TE programmes for secondary school teachers. Students completing TE programmes still need to pass a qualification examination administered by the MOE in Taiwan, to qualify as a teacher (Chou and Ching 2012). A concurrent training model is adopted in which a student takes a 26-credit education curriculum in the teacher certificate programme for secondary teachers while he/she works on a specific academic or professional field of study (e.g., arts and science) towards a degree (Wang 2012, p. 661). The primary TE programme, with a total of 40 credit points, contains 10 credit points in practicum and teaching materials and teaching strategies (Cai 2011, p. 101). The practicum has been reduced from 1 year to approximately half a year. The introduction of the 9-year integrated curriculum has emphasized the English proficiency and information literacy of primary school teachers. These teachers, who usually teach all subjects in one class, may be unable to cope with the professional demands because the TE curriculum only offers subject teaching methodology courses as electives (Yeh and Huang 2012). In 2002, however, the MOE in Taiwan introduced a requirement of annotating specialized subject areas for future elementary TE programmes (MOE, R.O.C (Taiwan) 2011).

Several comments have indicated the need to clarify and discuss the elusive meanings of TE quality and the quality of teacher educators, as well as the expected qualities of graduates of TE programmes and the role of schools and teachers in teacher preparation and professional development (Ball and Tyson 2011; Bates and Townsend 2007; Bills et al. 2008; Caldwell and Sutton 2010; Cochran-Smith et al. 2008; Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Imig and Imig 2007; Townsend 2011; Townsend and Bates 2007). This chapter, which attempts to bridge curriculum reform and TE, is divided into several sections. First, the notions of "quality" of

curriculum reforms and TE and their contexts of change in Hong Kong, Mainland China and Taiwan are discussed (e.g., Chou 2009; Wang and Liou 2003). Second, the insights and experiences drawn from curriculum reforms in Hong Kong, Mainland China and Taiwan are consolidated, and their implications for enhancing TE are explored. Third, examples of innovative curricula, teaching and assessment practices of TE from Hong Kong, Mainland China and elsewhere are highlighted. Finally, the future directions of promoting quality in curriculum reforms and TE are proposed.

3.1.1   Notions of the "Quality" of Curriculum Reforms and Teacher Education and Their Contexts of Change in Hong Kong, Mainland China, Taiwan and International Perspectives

In the PRC, the document "*Outline of China's national plan for medium and long-term education reform and development* (*2010–2020*)" published by the State Council, the People's Republic of China (2010, p. 8) highlighted that "Our outlook on education development should be centered on quality improvement, and great importance should be attached to the connotative development of education… Efforts to put together a contingent of qualified teachers should be stepped up, and teachers' overall quality enhanced". Chapter 17 ("Strengthening Building of the Teachers' Contingent") emphasized the promotion of professional ethics and enhancement of professional (academic and pedagogical) efficiency among teachers (The State Council, People's Republic of China 2010, pp. 35–36). Moreover, the Department of Teacher Education at the MOE in the People's Republic of China has gradually shifted its role from enacting regulations to monitoring the TE quality through professional standards (Zhu and Han 2006).

TE quality is related to three main aspects, namely, the high quality of TE institutions exemplified by a system of key universities managed by MOE in the People's Republic of China and province-level institutions; the high quality of the operational aspects of TE, such as admission scores or intake of students in TE programmes, accreditation of teaching practice sites and professional standards and examinations of teacher qualifications; and the high quality of teacher educator teams comprising a coaching/guidance team of teacher educators with high qualifications (PhDs), rich teaching experience and strong partnerships with schools and expert/exemplary teachers (The Center for Teacher Education Research of Beijing Normal University 2012, pp. 30–31). In the near future, MOE in the People's Republic of China will be tasked with building up a TE quality assurance system, which includes teacher professional standard, TE curriculum standard, TE institution certification standard and TE quality evaluation standard. The management of TE by MOE in the People's Republic of China will consequently move from direct control to indirect leading through the lever of standards (MOE, the People's Republic of China 2014).

The implementation of the policy of free education for normal students is further strengthened, whose aim is to attract outstanding students to join the teaching profession and teach in the less developed areas of Mainland China, as well as the national-level training scheme of elementary and secondary teachers (Beijing Normal University 2011).

The MOE in Taiwan (2014.06.04) has amended the Teacher Education Act several times since 2001. As stated in Article 2:

> Teacher education shall emphasize developing teaching competencies and a spirit of professionalism, thus strengthening understanding of democracy and the rule of law, as well as life and moral development.

TE courses, including but not limited to pedagogical subjects, subjects in general education and those in special domain knowledge are provided to enhance teacher proficiency. Likewise, knowledge and capabilities in teaching and moral aspect are emphasized in TE programmes (Hong et al. 2008, p. 4). Moreover, teachers were previously trained mostly by normal universities with 4 or 5 years of training (Wang 2012). Li et al. (2009, pp. 11–13) reported that the TE policy in Taiwan was shaped by the beliefs and values of "nationalism", "pluralism" and "professionalism", as well as the teacher images of "role modeling of excellent teachers", "promoting theories, imparting knowledge, and answering queries", and "heritage and innovation". Nonetheless, formulating professional standards of teachers to provide yardsticks for TE policy and curriculum development may need to be considered. Sun (2011) proposed the move towards a standards-based TE policy, which made a reference to the following the "NCATE professional standards for the accreditation of teacher preparation institutions" (2008, pp. 12–13):

Standard 1: Candidate Knowledge, Skills and Professional Dispositions
Standard 2: Assessment System and Unit Evaluation
Standard 3: Field Experiences and Clinical Practice
Standard 4: Diversity
Standard 5: Faculty Qualifications, Performance and Development
Standard 6: Unit Governance and Resources

Several universities in Taiwan currently offer TE programmes that nurture well-rounded teachers (Wang 2012, pp. 667–668). The allowance of students of non-education degree students to pursue a teaching qualification, while providing a wide choice in teacher selection and coupled with declining birth rates, has caused the problem of "teachers without regular jobs, vagabond teachers, or just simply displaced teachers' (Su 2012, p. 3). Different from the situation in Hong Kong where TE includes teacher certification, TE in Taiwan includes two separate components of pre-service TE and teacher certification. The MOE in Taiwan announced in 2002 the amended Teacher Cultivation Act (MOE, R.O.C (Taiwan) 2012b, n.d.). Moreover, since 2006, the Teacher Training Annual Statistics has been published, which could be viewed as an "assessment mechanism that provides complete data on the supply and demand of teacher training by reviewing the teacher–training conditions from the previous year in terms of statistics based on a teacher's age, district, and subject specialization' (Chou and Ching 2012, p. 164).

3.1.2 Curriculum and Teaching Reforms in Hong Kong, Mainland China and Taiwan: Lessons Learned

Cheung and Wong (2011) examined curriculum and teaching reforms in Hong Kong and reported that the primary schools had increased the implementation rate of project learning from only 20 % before the initiation of the curriculum reform to more than 60 % in 2006–2007. For reading to learn as one of the key tasks, the secondary schools had increased the implementation rate from less than 20 % in 2001–2002 to more than 60 % in 2006–2007. Notably, moral and civic education had the smallest increase among the four tasks, amounting to approximately 21 % for primary schools and approximately 10 % for secondary schools (Cheung and Wong 2011, p. 461; Lee 2011).

Ni and her team (2011) investigated the effect of curriculum reform on Maths teaching and learning in China. They followed two groups of primary mathematics teachers and their students; one of the groups took part in the reform implementation for several years and another group used the traditional curriculum approach. They reported that reform teachers "used more learning tasks with higher cognitive demands. The teachers in the reform classrooms asked more questions that required students to describe procedures leading to their answers and the students in the reform classrooms raised more questions in learning mathematics" (p. 100, p. 118). Nonetheless, they indicated the challenge to create "a more open and more interactive discourse for student participation and communication' because both groups did not significantly differ in the means of classroom discourse (p. 120).

Based on another survey of the principals and teachers in Taiwan, Wang (2010) argued that most of the respondents recognized the effectiveness of the implementation of curriculum integration and cooperative teaching. However, the respondent attitudes towards the implementation of the school-based curriculum and textbook selection were relatively pessimistic.

3.1.3 Implications for and Reform of Teacher Education in Mainland China, Taiwan and Hong Kong

To some extent, the relatively high social status of teachers in Taiwan has attracted students of high quality to enroll in TE programmes (Wang 2012). Moreover, compared to the United States, the United Kingdom and Asian counterparts such as Hong Kong and Singapore, the criterion of "character and moral conduct" was emphasized in the selection of candidates enrolling in TE programmes in Taiwan (Wang and Fu 2007, p. 177). A study of the perceived competency disparity between pre-service TE and in-service teaching requirements in Taiwan revealed a significant difference in core standards (including domain-general and domain-specific knowledge) and core disposition (such as personality traits and value systems), as well as a disparity between domain-specific knowledge and domain-general

knowledge (for example, proactive thinking skills, risk management ability and leadership). Least difference was noted in domain-specific knowledge (e.g. English) as well as long-term planning ability and practical knowledge related to values system. Pre-service TE programmes could give more attention to enhancing "mental capabilities, interpersonal skills, and management abilities" (Hong et al. 2008, p. 15). Another recent study revealed that pre-service college students in TE programmes had better social competencies as shown by relatively high scores on communication, interpersonal skills and diversity, as well as adaptive ability and career commitment, compared to their non-pre-service counterparts. These positive outcomes might be related to the selection criteria adopted by TE programmes, which also consider the psychological aptitude, personality traits and social and interpersonal skills of applicants (Wang 2012). With regard to curriculum reform, National Taichung University of Education launched a 6-year articulated, professional Master degree programme that provided 60 government-supported student quotas with guaranteed employment in 2013 with the intention of recruiting future teachers with both passion for teaching and academic capability. Prospective students joining this professional Master programme are required to undertake 40 credits of education courses and 26 credits for each of the English and counseling courses, as well as to pass the basic competency tests of Chinese Language, Mathematics, Nature and Social Studies (Yu 2013). To train primary school teachers, a partnership among central and local governments, teacher training colleges/universities and local schools has recently been advocated (MOE, R.O.C (Taiwan) 2012a, p. 43). Tsai and Cheng (2008, pp. 81–82) proposed that such partnership, or TE strategic alliance, could serve as the future TE paradigm in which the governments could help refine TE policy through feedback and advice from universities/colleges and schools and aid in establishing a professional development school system; the universities/colleges play the role of "regional teaching resources centre' and facilitate the collaboration between governments and schools; and the schools form close partnerships with universities/colleges in teacher preparation, mentorship for pre-service teachers and conducting educational research and curriculum development.

Zhong (2008) cited that research on teachers, children, learning, practices and instructional materials in Mainland China has lagged behind. He referred to the meaning of "teacher professional literacy" and Japanese scholars' image of a professionally literate teacher who could act with a global perspective and survive in a changing society using problem-solving and interpersonal skills (pp. 52–53). He advocated the TE curriculum to be transformed and break away from the three "old disciplines" (i.e., education, psychology and teaching methodology), as well as to give more emphasis to "practical knowledge" (through case study, special thematic study, experience sharing and action research), "professional self-discipline" (autonomously decide on what and how to teach) and "teacher community" (in a suitable site and with team support) (p. 54). Han (2011) echoed the reform from three "old disciplines" to four types of TE curricula (i.e., educational theories, educational skills, educational practices and teacher development) with two categories of curriculum structure (general education and subject education curricula). Possibilities of offering master-degree level TE programmes ("four plus X" model)

exist, as well as the implementation of other models, such as the "one plus three" model (general/integrated curriculum for primary schools) and the "2.5 plus 1.5" model (subject curriculum and some teaching tasks of integrated curriculum in junior secondary schools).

Zhan (2008) collected views from in-service English teachers in Baoding, China to provide opinions on the design of a new pre-service English TE programme. The findings revealed five major weaknesses (pp. 66–67), namely, "strong focus on students as English majors" (specialized in subject training), "neglecting students as student-teachers", "neglecting students as individual learners", "lack of sufficient practicum" and "ineffectual lecturing model".

Based on the previously described study of Ni et al. (2011), TE programmes and institutions may consider the ways of changing the teacher–student communication and interaction. Nonetheless, changes are never easy due to the centralized curriculum system and the strong influence of the school district on school and teacher performance, as well as the long tradition of TE programmes. Zhu (2010) conducted a case study on teacher educators' professional development in a particular normal university under the backdrop of national curriculum reform in Mainland China. The findings revealed that the reform of basic education curriculum in China did not generate significant changes to the TE curriculum. The teacher educators' professional practices had not been changed to embrace the new curriculum of basic education. This situation may be partly attributed to the lack of TE curriculum autonomy because the majority (110 of the 150 credit courses) of the TE programmes in that normal university is compulsory in the state and the university (p. 381). For pre-service TE programmes, the university stipulates fundamental courses comprising politics, foreign language and physical education and traditional educational theory as a core course, which do not match the orientation of the basic education curriculum reform (p. 382). With regard to teacher educators in China, the research aspect of their work is more emphasized than teaching and nurturing student-teachers, which is a similar practice in several universities around the world. Moreover, the case study revealed that some teacher educators continued to adopt traditional lecturing in their course delivery and had little opportunities for the interaction and reflection of student-teachers. Zhu (2010, p. 388) suggested TE reform, which "emphasize[s] the value of teaching and lifelong learning, and construct[s] a more humane academic arrangement and evaluation system for teacher educators". Introducing a narrative enquiry approach to TE and development in Mainland China may potentially address this issue. Taking an example of English as a foreign language, Xu and Connelly (2009) argued that "Chinese EFL teacher educators and developers [are] to think of their teaching as a transaction with other persons; not an action upon other persons" (p. 225) and "foreign language teacher educators and developers need to focus on teacher narratives of experience, drawing on them as a key resource in foreign language teacher education" (p. 226).

Song (2010) conducted a Delphi-based scenario study to explore the future of TE curriculum design in Mainland China. One of the scenarios is the LEADER model with a systems-thinking framework and characteristics such as "liberal", "engaging",

"applicable", "dialogical", "emancipatory" and "reflective" (p. 111). Some of the findings supported the LEADER model and pointed that "not only is a paradigm shift from disciplinary thinking to systems thinking necessary, but also that the application of ICTs in teacher education (and thus in the entire school system)…is a must if the country desires to become (one of the) human capital development leaders among global knowledge and innovation economies" (Harkins 2007, p. 1; Song 2010, p. 116).

TE reform could not be isolated from the discussion of education and curriculum reforms in the vast country of China, where educational inequality and significant rural–urban and inland/western–coastal/eastern disparities in the levels of economic and educational development exist. Chapter 17 in the document, "*Outline of China's national plan for medium and long-term education reform and development* (*2010–2020*)" published by the State Council of the People's Republic of China, highlights that "Standards shall be gradually unified for the size of the teaching faculty of primary and middle schools in both urban and rural areas with preferential standards adopted for schools in remote and border areas" and "Urban primary and middle school teachers should, in principle, have worked for at least 1 year in rural schools or schools with disadvantaged teaching facilities and faculty before they can apply for senior titles and positions" (The State Council, the People's Republic of China 2010, p. 38). Policies have been implemented in several provinces, such as Xinjiang, Shanxi and Inner Mongolia, to facilitate the support of university students and postgraduate students for teaching in rural areas and organize student-teachers to act as substitute teachers, thereby allowing the original teachers to participate in professional training (Department of Teacher Education, MOE, the People's Republic of China 2012).

Chen and Hu (2011) investigated teacher quality in western rural China and indicated the need to consider raising the teacher qualification from senior high school level or below to postsecondary level and above), as well as enhancing the relevance of teacher training to the reality of the rural areas, upgrading teacher certification standards and establishing a compensatory subsidy system for teachers. Entrenched issues likewise exist regarding the TE system in China, such as student admission requirements, integration of preparation and training and licensure, which deserve further deliberation and reform (Zhu 2009).

In the case of Hong Kong, Chapter 2 ("Enhancing the Quality of Teacher Education") in the report of the review group on the development blueprint of HKIEd (UGC 2009) discussed the significant TE issues. Calls have been made for teaching and learning strategies based on educational research (evidence-based practice) (p. 18), quality control, accreditation, standards and assessment (p. 19), possible linkage between pre-service curricula and continuous professional development and in-service education (pp. 20–21), coping process of teachers towards multiculturalism and multilingualism (p. 21) and use of information and communication technology and the development of education software (p. 22). Chau and Forrester (2010, p. 64) argued that "the ITE [initial teacher education] "craft model" involves self-development through reflection, and testing Theory by Practice – endeavors which are essentially personal". Although Chau and Forrester offered

support for the current *laissez faire* approach to teacher induction and development, they proposed from the alternative perspectives of professional formation and community of practice the need to consider additional funding for formal school-based mentoring on the one hand, and the facilitation of the use of freedom of beginning teachers in boosting their professional identity in schools, on the other hand.

3.1.4 Examples of Innovative Curriculum, Teaching and Assessment Practices of Teacher Education from Hong Kong, Mainland China, Taiwan and Elsewhere

One issue that has generated attention in China is the way that schools and school districts reform to facilitate the professional development of teachers, especially novice/beginning teachers. In "Transforming teacher education: Redefined professionals for 21st century schools" (Gopinathan et al. 2008), teacher induction in Shanghai has been cited as an exemplary TE practice (pp. 62–65), in which schools provide formal and contract mentoring (at least 2 h a week) for new, probationary teachers. School districts likewise provide at least 30 h/period in a year training for the first two of the three areas, namely, "education and professional ethics", "education and teaching theory and education" and "teaching practical skills" (Gopinathan et al. 2008, pp. 62–65). The mentor and novice teachers work in pairs and engage in weekly observations of one to two classes; the mentor needs to keep a record of the growth of novice teachers (Paine et al. 2003, pp. 29–32). Another exemplary practice is the use of team work as a means of professional development for teachers. Teaching Research Groups (TRGs) and Lesson Preparation Groups in most schools are an established tradition in Mainland China, which provide an important platform for socializing new teachers into a professional learning community and engage all teachers in continuous professional learning through small-scale school-based research/enquiry, lesson analysis and professional dialogue (Gopinathan et al. 2008, p. 72). In contrast, TE experience related to practical knowledge or teaching research for student-teachers is inadequate. Several attempts have been undertaken recently to introduce the optional course of an enquiry-oriented programme for normal college students (e.g., Luo and Xie 2011, p. 42). The implementation of this enquiry-oriented programme primarily consists of four parts, namely, talks on research methodology case analysis of practical teaching research, implementation of teaching enquiry through action research and display of research outcomes emphasizing the sharing of results. This action research process of identifying problem, enquiring about problem, planning actions, implementing actions and reinforcing reflection is relatively similar to the 4-P (Problem clarification, Planning, Programme Action and Progress evaluation) approach to the instructional improvement that we have introduced in several Hong Kong schools (Lee 2011; Lee et al. 2011; Lee 2012). At HKIEd, "Learning Studies" has been incorporated in BEd

programmes, and it has been applied for instructional study and improvement in local schools (Tang and Leung 2012).

The MOE in the People's Republic of China (2011) announced the release of the document, *Teacher Education Curriculum Standard* (*trial*), in 2011. The basic rationale is "cultivating people" (viewing teachers as facilitators of student development), "practice-oriented" (viewing teachers as reflective practitioners) and "lifelong learning" (seeing teachers as lifelong learners). For the objectives and structure of pre-service TE programme, the objective domains are "teacher belief and responsibility", "educational knowledge and competence" and "educational practice and experience". The 4-year degree TE curriculum (32 credit points) comprises the following six learning areas: child development and learning; foundations of primary education, primary subjects education and activity guidance; vocational ethics and professional development; psychological health and moral education; and educational practices (18 weeks).

Outcomes-based learning (OBL) has been promoted in local universities, including HKIEd (Ng et al. 2013). For instance, Wang (2011) adopted an OBL adaptation framework to develop a set of Programme Intended Learning Outcomes and Intended Learning Outcomes, together with the alignment of teaching and assessment strategies with learning outcomes for the Bachelor of Education (English Language) Programme at HKIEd.

Using portfolios for learning, assessment and professional development in higher education and TE has become increasingly popular (Klenowski et al. 2006; Meeus et al. 2009). TE experimentations have been conducted in Hong Kong. For instance, Fung (2006) used portfolio assessment in an in-service TE course that included the following mandatory items (p. 2): "a lesson plan; a worksheet for pupils; evidence of the use of information technology in teaching; a video of a lesson with reflective notes; a short report on a case related to classroom management; and a short essay about their views on portfolio assessment based on their experience". Student perceptions show that portfolio development facilitated their reflection and improvement (p. 5). At the Chinese University of Hong Kong, a blog-based teaching portfolio known as Platforms for Language Teacher Education (PLaTE) was developed in a pre-service TE programme for the following purposes (Tang 2009, p. 90): "construction and integration of work, knowledge, skills and identity; establishing personal profile through documenting their teaching philosophy, lesson plans, self-developed instructional materials, recorded lessons, abridged classroom-based research report, reflections, etc.; and sharing, discussion and making comments". Courses that piloted the use of the Blackboard 9 e-portfolio system for students to upload their video clips, assignments and capture "parts of their reflections or other evidences to justify their claims of 'improvement'" were available at the HKIEd (Shroff et al. 2011, p. 605).

Colleagues in Taiwan Normal University have adopted the MAGDAIRE model (abbreviated from Modeled Analysis, Guided Development, Articulated Implementation, and Reflected Evaluation) in a science TE course to build up the ICT capacity for teaching of pre-service teachers (Chang et al. 2012). Another example is the web site denominated as "Technology Enhanced & Assisted

Curriculum Headquarter (TEACH)", which is based on three principles of enhancing peripheral participation, strengthening cognitive apprenticeship and forming special interest groups online being established for pre-service science teachers (Lin et al. 2011, p. 103). A transformational model of integrating technology and peer coaching for developing technological pedagogical and content knowledge (TPACK) with components of "Comprehension, Observation, Practice and Reflection" (COPR) was likewise developed for pre-service science teachers (Jang and Chen 2010, p. 556). Good examples of university–school partnerships in fostering a professional learning community are available as well, in which university professors and school teachers collaborate to enhance the quality of instruction, which in turn positively affects student learning outcomes (Chang and Wu 2012). For pre-service TE, professional development peer groups have been formed, in which student-teachers participate in peer observation, group dialogue and discussion. Moreover, under the advice and mentoring support of experienced teachers, student-teachers are facilitated to become active and reflective thinkers (Guu 2012).

A paramount issue in the TE field is identifying a process of bridging theory and practice (e.g., Zeichner 2010). From the perspective and experience of the Netherlands, Korthagen (2010) proposed new pedagogical reform by adopting a "realistic approach" to TE. This approach is exemplified by "one to one" element, in which student-teachers talk to and study one high school student in a 1-h session once a week for 8 weeks; they are engaged in the ALACT (action, looking back on the action, awareness of essential aspects, creating alternative methods of action and trial) model of action, data-based reflection and theory-based enquiry. Student-teachers likewise form pairs and benefit from peer-supported learning and a "community of learners" (p. 415).

Another topic of recent development is related to the evaluation and assessment of TE outcomes (Cochran-Smith 2003). In California, the Performance Assessment by California Teachers has been developed, which involved a portfolio based on a Planning, Instruction, Assessment, and Reflection model and embedded with a "teaching event" ranging from "a description of their teaching context, including students and content; a set of lesson plans from the segment of instruction; one or two videotapes of instruction during the unit; samples of student work during the unit; and written reflections on instructions and student learning during the unit" (Darling-Hammond et al. 2010, p. 382).

3.1.4.1 Future Directions for Promoting Quality in Curriculum Reforms and Teacher Education

Zhu (2009) proposed a reconstruction of the TE system in Mainland China. One of his major suggestions is to reconstruct a Chinese tripartite school system, teaching research office and a TE institution for teaching practicum student-teachers. He suggested that if the teaching research officers could be recruited or appointed as mentors for student-teachers, then these pre-service teachers could learn about teaching practices from school teachers and teaching research officers, as well as familiarize

themselves with the teaching research activities in which they will actively engage in the future as ordinary teachers.

The application of IT has been an important agenda in school and TE, which has implications for teacher knowledge or certification requirements, TE curriculum, learning and teaching processes, and the social organization of teaching and learning (Shi and Englert 2008, pp. 353–354).

Another emerging issue of attention is TE for inclusive or special education in Mainland China. The existing approach to integrate disabled children into a general education setting has been characterized by "learning in a regular classroom" (LRC; *sui ban jiu du*) since the 1980s but mainly limited with three sorts of disabilities, namely, hearing impairment, visual impairment, and intellectual disability. China is a vast developing country with a large number of children with disabilities and special needs; however, it faces the problem of shortage of qualified teachers for teaching disabled students in rural areas; moreover, teachers lack competence and training in catering for student diversity, individualized education and differentiating instruction (Yu et al. 2011, p. 362). Pre-service teacher preparation program could be integrated with in-service teacher education. At the pre-service stage, the required special/inclusive education courses are provided and practical skills are highlighted with teaching practice in special schools or general schools. At the stage of new teacher practice, new teachers and mentors work in pairs with the support of individualized plans. Finally, at the in-service stage, flexible and various projects are provided, and collaboration with professors in research is encouraged (p. 365).

Based on the literature review and personal observations, several directions for the future development of pre-service and in-service TE in the Greater China region are described as follows (adapted from Lee 2009; Lee 2013, p. 184).

- TE programmes could focus on the selection of applicants with good academic and psychological qualities, together with the appropriate nurturing of teachers with core standards and core dispositions.
- TE programmes could enhance the self-efficacy of pre-service teachers, particularly in classroom management and be attentative to student diversity, as well as their communication and interaction skills, such that they significantly derive emotional satisfaction from successful academic and social emotional student learning. Equipping teachers with subject matter and diversified instructional strategies and increasing opportunities for teacher development through various activities (i.e., peer observation, action research and learning) are imperative as well.
- Additional partnerships with schools could be established, which involve the mutual collaboration to supervise teachers as mentors and/or teacher leaders and TE tutors acting as teacher educators and/or school improvement consultants, as well as officials from government who offer policy and resources support for TE. More efforts could be given to nurturing capable and experienced teachers to become mentors and models for novice teachers. The government, TE institutions, and school sponsoring bodies may likewise consider working together to formalize the induction of beginning teachers.

- Stress and emotional management and stress training activities could be undertaken to assist teachers in developing habits of work-life balance and increase their hardiness.

In addition to the preceding suggestions, preparing globally competent teachers as a new TE direction has been advocated (Longview Foundation 2008; Zhao 2010, p. 427); this approach has the following characteristics: "knowledge of the international dimensions of their subject matter and a range of global issues"; "pedagogical skills to teach their students to analyze primary sources from around the world, appreciate multiple points of view, and recognize stereotyping"; and "a commitment to assisting students to become responsible citizens both of the world and of their own communities". The teachers in the Greater China region in the globalization age deserve our consideration in developing means of improving our teacher education programmes. Incorporating unique socio-cultural contexts could enhance the global perspective of the pre-service and in-service teachers.

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Chapter 4
Status and Quality of Teacher Education in the US: Neoliberal and Professional Tensions

Robert V. Bullough Jr.

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the status and quality of teacher education in the US. For various reasons, not the least among them being that there is no coherent system of teacher education in the US, this is far from a simple task. Five sections follow: (1) A broad overview of teaching and teacher education in the US, underscoring some of the complexity that makes description difficult and noting a few of the pressing issues. (2) An exploration of two broad and contending patterns of reform follow that represent quite different visions of teacher education: The first flows from business and draws on a neoliberal ideology that embraces markets and competition as essential elements for program improvement; the second seeks a robust professionalism of the sort that is thought to characterize medical education. (3) A discussion of professional development schools (PDSs) as means for strengthening the clinical components of teacher education and narrowing the gap separating schools and university programs. (4) A current tug-of-war between the states and the Federal government over control of teacher education licensure and accreditation is described. (5) A presentation of findings from a large survey study conducted by the National Center for Education Information (Feistritzer 2011) that reveals teachers' views of teacher education, an important but often neglected indicator of both the status and quality of teacher education in the US. A conclusion follows.

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4.2   The Context and Pressing Issues

4.2.1   Context

Difficulties describing teacher education in the US arise for several reasons. The scale of education and teacher education in the US is a major source of complexity and program diversity. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), public school systems employ about 3.4 million full-time-equivalent teachers who educate about 50 million children in about 100,000 schools (including more than 5000 charter schools) at a cost of nearly $600 billion per year. There are roughly 1400 institutions of various kinds, size, and quality, supporting teacher certification programs, some public, some private, a growing number for profit. Numerous alternative teacher education programs are available: some on-line; some requiring very little of their students, as little as a 5 week summer orientation to teaching offered prior to becoming a teacher of record; some drawing on university-based coursework; most designed as means for staffing urban and rural schools facing critical teacher shortages, particularly in math, science and special education. Adding to the muddle, what differentiates a traditional teacher education program and an alternative certification program is unclear, in fact, many alternative programs are closely connected to universities (National Research Council 2010).

Unlike schooling in many nations, the US has a long tradition of local control of teacher education, despite persistent Federal government-sponsored efforts to centralize it–a second source of difficulty encountered when describing teacher education (Tobin 2012). While Federal policies and associated financial incentives influence state policy makers, teacher licensure is governed by the 50 states. Considerable variation exists in state policies even including the length of time required to move from provisional to professional licensure. There is no national curriculum, although with Federal encouragement 45 states are moving in the direction of establishing a "common core" of content area standards, a development that has sparked considerable controversy (Loveless 2012/2013). State program approval has long been required, but accreditation has been primarily voluntary, although this too appears to be changing (Coupland 2011).

An additional source of difficulty is the ambiguous status of teacher education within higher education. Historically teacher education in the US portrays a field with an accompanying set of problems that has seldom enjoyed a secure place within higher education. Moving from rather ad hoc efforts of the nineteenth century through the development of normal (teacher training) schools, then teachers colleges, and finally morphing into regional universities as educational aspirations of Americans rose, teacher education has struggled and continues to struggle for recognition and standing (Fraser 2007; Lucas 1999). Believing teachers are born not made, not a few academics and policy makers have been and remain unconvinced that the problems of teacher education are legitimate, deserving of the attention of the academy like the problems addressed in schools of law, medicine and even nursing. As Talbert and McLaughlin (1996) noted, "Academics have [long] debated

whether teaching is a profession or a semi-profession, whether it is an art, a craft or a science" (p. 129). To critics, the implication seems clear: Semi-professions and crafts do not belong in the university. As a result, even strong teacher education programs frequently have difficulty gaining recognition and respect within their own colleges and universities, even as teacher educators aspire to be part of academic institutional cultures and traditions, which themselves vary dramatically. Teacher education within a research intensive university is quite different from programs in small liberal arts colleges.

Questing after a science of education long has been a central teacher education strategy for gaining status and recognition within higher education, but doubts persist about the value of the questions addressed and quality of teacher education research since most studies are local and therefore limited (National Research Council 2002, 2010). Questions about the proper relationship between teacher education programs and schools and debates over the kinds and quality of field experiences needed to support beginning teacher learning have been and still are lively and sometimes contentious. One result is that staffing patterns vary dramatically across teacher education programs and are complex and ever shifting, often involving, in addition to university-based educators and graduate students, large numbers of various kinds of clinical faculty charged with the time consuming task that dominates field-intensive practices of "relationship maintenance" (Ellis et al. 2013, p. 270). Differences in responsibilities between university-based and field-based teacher educators often are sources of misunderstanding and tension (Bullough et al. 1997).

Additionally, elementary and secondary teacher education programs differ significantly in length and focus, as do graduate and undergraduate licensure programs. Secondary teachers typically graduate in the disciplines they will be teaching, and these programs often are housed in academic departments with support offered by schools or departments of education. Elementary education students enroll in various configurations of courses connected to teaching across all the various school subject areas, generally located within teacher education programs but sometimes also within academic departments.

4.2.2 Issues

Over the past two decades student demographics within the US have changed dramatically and are still changing, making teaching much more demanding. "Although there are many challenges that complicate teachers' work, the diversity of the 21st century classroom is a central one" (NRC 2010, p. 19) According to US Census data, for example, about 12 million school-age children speak a language other than English at home. Minority students comprise 42 % of public school enrollment and that number is growing. One in four children is Hispanic. In the Western US the number of minority students has outnumbered non-Hispanic whites since 2003.

In 2011, nearly 11 million school-age children were in families living in poverty and thus qualified for free lunch (National Center for Education Statistics 2013, p. 26) (NCES). Moreover, a growing percentage of children are attending high-poverty schools, now 12 % (p. 80). Finally, while gaps in student academic achievement have closed somewhat despite changing demographics, with promising improvements especially among Hispanic students, they remain insistent. Here it is worth noting that in a re-analysis of the PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) data for 2009, Carnoy and Rothstein wrote: "US disadvantaged students' scores increased substantially in both reading and math compared with the scores of disadvantaged students in many comparison countries, and especially compared with those in some countries [held] up as models for the United States" (Economic Policy Institute 2013, n.p.).

Challenges of workforce composition and turnover exacerbate the issues caused by shifting demographics and economic recession. Of the teacher workforce 85 % are white, and although progress has been made, recruitment of a more diverse population of teachers has proven very difficult. Comparatively few high academically talented students are drawn to teaching, a source of considerable concern among the critics of teacher education who press for increases in academic admission standards, even as this aim clashes with the intention of achieving greater diversity among teachers (National Council on Teacher Quality 2013). Levels of teacher experience are declining, especially as large numbers of teachers are retiring and being replaced by much younger teachers. "The proportion of public school teachers who have five or fewer years of teaching experience increased from 18 percent in 2005 to 26 percent in 2011" (Feistritzer 2011, p. 10). Fewer men are entering teaching: In 1986, 31 % of the teaching workforce was male; in 2011 that number had declined to 16 %.

Generally, teaching in the US has become less attractive as a vocation; and teacher satisfaction levels have fallen to a 25 year low (Metlife 2013, p. 6) even as expectations for teachers continue to rise. Among 2007–2008 college graduates, 75 % did not even consider teaching as a career; and a growing percentage of teachers, currently about 40 % of new hires, come through one or another alternative preparation program (Feistritzer 2011, p. 21). Frequently, teaching is thought of as a temporary career. In 2011, 104,000 students completed bachelor degrees in elementary education, representing a slight decline since 2000 despite a 38 % increase in degrees awarded (NCES 2013, p. 173). Of students who graduate in education, about 65 % actually teach, representing 10.5 % of college graduates (US Department of Education 2012, Table 1.1). Teacher turnover, already high, is increasing. According the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF 2010), for various reasons about 46 % of teachers now leave their classrooms within the first 5 years of teaching, and the most challenging schools have the highest teacher turnover. Such schools face a constant struggle to close a teacher quality gap.

4.3   Market Economy vs. Teaching Professionals

4.3.1   Market Economy

Following release of *A Nation at Risk* (1983) by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE) and culminating in 2001 with the passage of the No Child Left Behind Legislation that tied Federal funding of education to states' compliance with a set of wide-ranging requirements, the conversations about schooling and the expectations of teachers have fundamentally changed. With NCLB came an intense and narrow focus on standardized student testing as proof of learning (and of teacher quality), an expectation of ever rising test scores and standards, and support of aggressive accountability measures for rewarding and punishing schools and teachers – a trend that is spilling out into higher education. Education discourse is now dominated by human capital theory and neoliberalism. Though they linger, wider historical purposes associated with education in a democracy have mostly been set aside in favor of a narrowed and narrowing conception of schooling as primarily a "servant of the economy" (Barrett 2009, p. 1019). As stated in *A Nation at Risk*:

> History is not kind to idlers… We live among determined, well-educated, and strongly motivated competitors. We compete with them for international standing and markets, not only with products but also with the ideas of our laboratories and neighborhood workshops. America's position in the world may once have been reasonably secure with only a few exceptionally well-trained men and women. It is no longer. (NCEE 1983, p. 6)

Education has become a major tool in what might be thought of as perpetual global economic warfare.

4.3.2   Teaching Professionals

Educators, including teacher educators, responded to the challenge that followed publication of *A Nation at Risk* and many equally critical reports on teaching and teacher education by articulating an agenda for and then working to achieve greater professionalism within teacher education (Carnegie Forum 1986; Holmes Group 1986, 1990). Such professionalism was understood to be tightly linked to issues of equity and social justice. Central to this task was articulating a set of professional standards and strengthening program accreditation. In 1992 the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), supported by the Council of Chief State School Officers, released its report, "Model Standards for Beginning Teacher Licensing, Assessment and Development: A Resource for State Dialogue," that included a set of ten standards addressing the knowledge, dispositions, and abilities thought essential to quality teaching across content areas. Generated by educators, these standards and their subsequent revisions quickly became central to teacher education program design, development and accreditation. In addition to

clarifying program purposes, the professional agenda has come to emphasize "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 linking theory and practice, and closer, proactive relationships with schools that serve diverse learners effectively and develop and model good teaching" (Darling-Hammond 2006, p. 1).

4.3.3   Neoliberal Reform

Outside of education, a neoliberal reform agenda formed that found strong support within the Federal government and from powerful business and corporate interests. Predictably this second reform agenda has come to dominate and reshape the first, which remains but in an increasingly defensive and vulnerable position. Indeed, as Tobin (2012) asserted, "education professionals, who were once primary forces in national debates about certification…have become secondary players in the conversation" (p. 485). Additionally, "[N]eoliberalism argues that free markets, unfettered by government regulation, will solve social, economic, and political problems and that government regulation exacerbates or even causes problems, such as schools' failure to educate some children" (Weiner 2007, p. 275). Politically a nonpartisan and global worldview and effort within education, neoliberalism centers on building competition among providers and the privatization of public services, including schooling, deregulation and devolution of control and oversight of schooling, emphasis on standardized tests for judging academic achievement and teacher quality, and weakening of teacher unions to lower resistance to changing traditional pay scales and reward systems. Ultimately, the aim is to make the individual teacher and teacher educator the unit of competition and reward, an aim supported by development and use of value-added research methods that presumably enable the accurate measurement for ranking of individual performance. Thus, within education the cause of neoliberalism is the proletarianization of teaching and teacher education (Ellis et al. 2013).

Under neoliberal assumptions teaching and teacher education have come to be seen as important markets for exploitation, an opportunity increasingly embraced by universities that form corporate partnerships to design and sell education products and services. Offering seductive rewards, academic capitalism thrives on university campuses (Ellis et al. 2013) and weakens professionalism by, among other consequences, changing the nature of program control and shifting the location of decision making away from teacher educators toward corporations that employ a few educators as paid consultants. Pearson Education, Inc., for example, a huge international corporation with headquarters in London, seeks to set a national standard by administering and evaluating the edTPA, a portfolio-based assessment of beginning teacher readiness for certification. Developed with the involvement of teacher education institutions in 23 states, edTPA is wholly owned by Stanford University. Pearson, which offers a range of supporting services and products for sale, including

its own ePortfolio System, will be paid by candidates for assessment of edTPA port-folios. Pearson is poised to take over teacher certification in New York as early as 2014. Pearson also administers the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards assessments, despite its having been developed with funding of the US Department of Education. Candidates pay an assessment fee of $2500, including a nonrefundable initial $500 fee. Ironically, edTPA is portrayed as essential to achiev-ing professionalism within teacher education, despite growing concern: "given restrictions on access to portfolio materials and the subcontracting of scoring to a distant corporate entity, the quality and extent of teacher educator participation in the process has emerged as a controversial issue" (Cochran-Smith et al. 2013, 16).

Largely uncontested, neoliberalism has lead to formation of a wide range of charter schools, publicly funded schools freed from many government regulations, including teacher certification, tenure and student testing, and encouraged the pro-liferation of pathways into teaching, including "early entry programs" (Lahann and Reagan 2011, p. 9). Typically alternative certification involves "field-based training programs that allow individuals to enter the classroom after a short introductory program and complete certification requirements while working as the teacher of record" (Evans 2010, p. 184). Charters compete with public schools for student enrollment, just as alternative certification programs compete with traditional university-based teacher education programs. University-based teacher education faces a significant competitive disadvantage in program costs and in number of requirements, many imposed by external accrediting agencies. The range of teacher education options is broad: "Teach for America has a 'missionary' type approach; Edison offers a private-for-profit alternative, and school districts with state support fill specific local needs… The most questionable [alternative certification] programs are internet-based, operated through organizations such as the University of Phoenix, and are not accredited" (Evans 2010, p. 188).

Prominent among early entry programs is Teach for America (TFA), a "non-profit organization designed to recruit recent college graduates to commit two years to teach in understaffed urban and rural schools across the country" (Lahann and Regan 2011, p. 7). "TFA subscribes to the belief that not only does public education benefit from deregulating market reforms and collaboration between the private and public sectors, but that they are essential to its reform" (p. 17). While embracing neoliberal ideology, TFA seeks to eliminate inequality through building a "movement" supported by a core of leaders who, after serving their 2 years as teachers, will "fight educational inequality" (p. 16). Thus, as Lahann and Reagan (2011) posit, TFA represents a blend of neoliberalism with progressive liberal aims, forming what they describe as "progressive neoliberalism" – a sort of neolib-eralism with a social conscience. The result, however, is a further weakening of teacher education's professional aspirations and a softening of its moral claim as a champion of children and of education in service to greater public goods. In the neoliberal triumph of corporate economic interests, ultimately training wins out over education.

4.4   Response: Professional Development Schools

Advancing professional development schools (PDSs) has been a key component of the professional agenda of teacher education since publication of *A Nation at Risk* (Rutter 2011). As an idea the PDS has deep roots in historical progressive teacher education traditions, including university lab or demonstration schools (Teitel 1999). With support of the Holmes Group (1990), the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) and the National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER) with it's commitment to the "simultaneous renewal" of teacher education and public schooling (Goodlad 1994), and other organizations, and later with foundation support, teacher education eagerly embraced the concept of the PDS. A "movement" formed (Neapolitan and Levine 2011, p. 319) that "spread like wildfire" (Teitel 1999, p. 6). By 1998, about half of the nation's teacher education institutions were affiliated with over 600 PDSs (Abdal-Haqq 1998). Questions arose, however, about just what a PDS was and what distinguished a PDS from any other school willing to provide clinical experiences to beginning teachers. Reviewing the landscape, Goodlad concluded that much of the early activity and many of the reports of success tended to be of "paradise envisioned, not gained" (Goodlad 1994, p. 218).

4.4.1   Standards for Professional Development Schools

Hoping to make sense of the movement and provide needed direction, between 1995 and 2001, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) conducted a study and field-tested a set of standards and assessments for PDSs. In 2001 the standards were released. NCATE concluded that: "Professional development schools are innovative institutions formed through partnerships between professional education programs and P-12 schools. Their mission is professional preparation of candidates, faculty development, inquiry directed at the improvement of practice, and enhanced student learning" (NCATE 2001, p. 1). Five standards along with indicators of quality were identified:

1. *Learning community*: "PDS partners share a common vision of teaching and learning grounded in research and practitioner knowledge" (p. 9).
2. *Accountability and quality assurance*: "PDS partners collaboratively develop assessments, collect information, and use results to systematically examine their practices and establish outcome goals for all P-12 students, candidates, faculty, and other professionals" (p. 11).
3. *Collaboration*: "PDS partners and partner institutions systematically move from independent to interdependent practice by committing themselves and committing to each other to engage in joint work focused on implementing the PDS mission" (p. 13).
4. *Diversity and equity*: "PDS partners ensure that the polices and practices of the PDS partner institutions result in equitable learning outcomes for all PDS participants. PDS partners include diverse participants and diverse learning communities for PDS work" (p. 14).

5. *Structures*, *resources*, *and role*: "Partner institutions ensure that structures, programs, and resource decisions support the partnership's mission. They create new roles and modify existing roles for P-12 students, candidates, faculty, and other professionals, to achieve the PDS mission" (p. 15).

In 2010, NCATE offered strong support of PDSs and of partnership in teacher education when it released a report on improving clinical practice in teacher education built around ten "design principles." The report advised, "All teacher preparation programs and districts have to start thinking about teacher preparation as a responsibility they share, working together. Only when preparation programs become deeply engaged with schools will their clinical preparation become truly robust" (NCATE 2010, p. 3).

4.4.2 National Organizations for PDSs

NNER partnerships, which support professional development schools and include representatives of schools of education, university arts and science faculties, and public school teachers and school and district administrators, are united by commitment to an agenda for furthering education in a democracy and to a set of four "moral dimensions of schooling," a mission statement.

> [P]rovide access to knowledge for all children ('equity and excellence'); educate the young for thoughtful participation in a social and political democracy ('enculturation'); base teaching on knowledge of the subjects taught, established principles of learning, and sensitivity to the unique potential of learners ('nurturing pedagogy'); [and] take responsibility for improving the conditions for learning in P-12 schools, institutions of higher education and communities. ('stewardship')" (NNER 2007; see Goodlad et al. 2004).

NNER partnerships bring together representatives of public schools, university arts and science faculties, and education faculties in annual conferences and in a variety of venues to support study and conversation. Currently 21 partnerships participate in the NNER, some large, covering entire states, and some comparatively small – all adhering to and pushing forward network commitments on various fronts.

In addition to ongoing meetings sponsored by the NNER and the Holmes Group (later Holmes Partnership), the PDS movement was further advanced by the founding of the National Association for Professional Development Schools (NAPDS) in 2004. Included among the association's 5000 members are representatives from 160 colleges and universities, located in every state (Bruce Field, personal communication, 29 July, 2013). Growing rapidly, the NAPDS, like the NNER, sponsors a peer-reviewed journal to support research and to extend conversation across programs. NAPDS participants are united by a set of "nine required essentials of a PDS" which include, among others, the following:

- "A comprehensive mission that is broader in its outreach and scope than the mission of any partner and that furthers the education profession and its responsibility to advance equity within schools and, by potential extension, the broader community" (Essential 1)
- "A structure that allows all participants a forum for ongoing governance, reflection, and collaboration" (Essential 7)

- "Work by college/university faculty and P-12 faculty in formal roles across institutional settings" (Essential 8)
- "Dedicated and shared resources and formal rewards and recognition structures" (Essential 9) (NAPDS 2008).

West Virginia offers a state appropriation to support PDSs while the states of Louisiana and Maryland have mandated PDSs statewide, although in Maryland the mandate is unfunded.

4.4.3 Examples of Effective Partnerships

Partnerships are large and small. All are complex. In the Western US, the Brigham Young University Public School partnership is very large, involving 5 school districts, 197 schools and 173,226 public school students. Partnership governance is shared among the participating school districts and the McKay school of education. Funding responsibilities also are shared, although most resources come from the university. Significant resources support a variety of partnership activities including (1) a center of pedagogy (CITES, the Center for the Improvement of Teacher Education and Schooling), (2) on-going district study groups (an Associates Program) that include university personnel from education, arts and sciences along with teachers and school administrators reading about and discussing issues related to simultaneous renewal of their programs, (3) inservice education in the arts, studies in mathematics and reading, conferences, and a range of additional initiatives including subject-area endorsement programs.

In the Midwest, the PDS program at Emporia State University in Kansas works closely with 35 elementary schools and is 100 % field-based, with on-site teacher educators who coordinate program activities; collaborate with mentors, administrators and district personal; and supervise teaching interns. Highly trained mentors are actively involved coaching beginning teachers and supporting their induction into teaching. On-site seminars on teaching are offered and opportunities given for interns to work closely with teachers who are subject area specialists to build an enriched curriculum. PDSs also are sites supporting faculty research.

On the US East Coast, some PDSs with only modest internal institutional support thrive in part because of faculty dedication. A former normal school and a small regional university, Salisbury University, partners with 34 schools in seven counties, where site coordinators, liaisons and university faculty work closely together to offer a field intensive program emphasizing experiential learning. This program and the one at Brigham Young University have been honored as "exemplary" by the NAPDS.

Within PDSs the professional aspirations of teachers and teacher educators are much in evidence, even as they grapple with constraints imposed by one mandate or another. Although research is hampered by the complexity of the issues involved and the volume of variables, on the whole PDSs have been shown to have a positive impact on teacher learning. Reviewing this literature and recognizing its limitations,

especially that all programs that claim to be PDSs do not adhere to either NCATE standards or the NAPDS "Essentials" and that there is tremendous variability, Castle and Reilly (2011) concluded that the evidence indicates that teacher candidates who participate in PDSs

- "are more effective at instruction, planning, motivation/management, and assessment" "are more student focused"
- "feel more confident in their knowledge and skills"
- "are more prepared for the real complex world of teaching and schooling"
- "are more prepared to teach diverse students and are more likely to teach in urban schools when the program stresses urban education"
- "feel more satisfied with their overall preparation"
- "have higher retention rates"
- "move further along the continuum of teacher development"
- "are more professional in collaboration, inquiry, leadership, identity, and dispositions" (pp. 364–365).

These are impressive claims, tempered somewhat by realization that the research is rather limited and that the time demands associated with working within a PDS can be and often are overwhelming particularly for those teacher educators who have research responsibilities (Bullough et al. 1999).

4.5 Certification and Accreditation: Tidying and Tightening

By law states control both teacher certification and accreditation. State legislatures determine what forms of certification and of program accreditation are required for a teacher to be allowed to teach within a given state.

4.5.1 Federal Incentives

Despite the tradition of local control in education, there are signs of a growing standardization of teacher education tied to Federal incentives such as the Race to the Top, a $4.35 billion "competitive grant program designed to encourage and reward States that are creating the conditions for education innovation and reform" (US Department of Education 2009, p. 2). Race to the Top was initiated at a time of severe economic recession, a period of severely strained financing for education. To win the "Race," states submitted grant proposals that had to meet stringent selection criteria, which included (1) "Improving teacher and principal effectiveness based on performance," (2) "Improving the effectiveness of teacher and principal preparation programs," and (3) "Providing effective support to teachers and principals" (ibid., p. 3). Neoliberal ideals informed the guidelines about how best to achieve these aims. Only four states did not apply; some of the others scrambled to apply, legislatively changing long established education policies in order to enter the Race. Standardized testing and value-added measures for determining teacher quality were prominent

in the winning proposals. Conformity to a neoliberal reform agenda was central to success, and the stakes were high: Tennessee was awarded $400 million; Ohio, $400 million; Florida, $700 million; New York; $700 million, among other winners.

4.5.2   Teacher Certification

Concern about problems of licensure portability across states, the apparent unevenness in teacher education program quality, the assumed unreasonableness of excluding individuals from teaching because they lacked certification, and a desire for quality assurances have encouraged and justified development of national certification programs. The American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE), for example, was launched in 2001 with an initial $5 million grant from the US Department of Education, part of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) reform initiative. Two years later a second grant was awarded, this one for $35 million. A non-profit organization, ABCTE describes itself as a quick and inexpensive alternative to university-based teacher education. For admission to candidacy, the ABCTE requires a bachelor's degree, a background check, and a fee of $1995 for testing. Working on-line candidates take a set of examinations to demonstrate their pedagogical-content and subject-area knowledge. There are no other requirements; the program is the tests. Ten state legislatures have approved ABCTE certification.

Additionally, greater program uniformity has been encouraged by use across the nation of common teacher exams, like the Praxis tests developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS). Praxis II, which involves a series of subject area tests, is used by 29 states, and the results count as evidence for meeting the teacher quality requirement of NCLB. As noted above, developers of the edTPA have national ambitions.

4.5.3   Program Accreditation

While these are important centralizing influences, none is of more consequence than the merger of NCATE, founded in 1954, and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) founded in 1997 to form the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). TEAC was designed as a direct challenge to NCATE, and its topdown model of accreditation. Growing rapidly, TEAC built an accountancy model of accreditation that involved supported development followed by auditing of institutional Inquiry Briefs: self-studies focused on program aims (Muray 2010). Both organizations gained recognition by the US Department of Education, and some institutions sought dual accreditation. In total, NCATE accredited over half of the existing teacher education programs, while by 2013 TEAC had

accredited 173 programs. Merger of the two accrediting agencies promises greater standardization.

As the sole national accrediting agency, fearing that if "bold action" is not taken now "states will move on, leaving accreditation on the sidelines" (CAEP 2013, p. 10), CAEP claims it is "poised to raise the bar" in teacher education. "CAEP will serve as a model accreditor with rigorous standards, demanding sound evidence and establishing a platform to drive continuous improvement and innovation" (p. 5). The intent is to "develop accreditation standards for all preparation programs that are based on evidence, continuous improvement, innovation, and sound clinical practice" (p. 9). The new standards are introduced with a vision of educator preparation in an "ideal world":

> [E]ducator preparation accreditation would draw its evidentiary data from a wide array of sources that have different qualitative characteristics from many of those currently available… There would be comparable experiences in preparation that providers as well as employers, state agencies, and policymakers agree are essential. There would be similar requirements across states for courses, experiences and for judgments about effective preparation and that are accepted as gateways to preparation programs, or employment, or promotion. (pp. 13–14)

Lamenting that there are "few close approximations of such an ideal system" (p. 14), CAEP goes on to argue for the standardization of educator preparation programs including (1) "specific and common cut-scores across states" on teacher examinations (p. 18), (2) GPAs of 3.0 with a "group average performance in the top third of those who pass a nationally normed admissions assessment such as the ACT, SAT or GRE" (p. 22), and (3) use of the "edTPA test [or] Renaissance, Teacher Work Samples" (p. 26). Despite serious flaws (Cochran-Smith et al. 2013), CAEP also urges use of "value-added modeling" to demonstrate program impact on student performance (CAEP 2013, p. 27, p. 32). Impact on standardized student tests scores of individual teachers and of graduates of teacher education programs is thought to be best evidence despite strong teacher opposition (Feistritzer 2011, p. 40, 45). Additionally CAEP will require annual reports to monitor programs and seek development of a "national information base" of the sort proposed by the NRC (2010) that will "enable CAEP to report on the progress of continuous improvement not just for an individual provider but for education preparation across all accredited providers" (CAEP 2013, p. 33). In the past, the majority of states required NCATE or TEAC accreditation; the aim now is for all to embrace CAEP.

4.6 Teacher Perceptions

Harsh critics of teacher education abound, but perhaps surprising to some the conclusions from a random survey study of K-12 teachers conducted by the National Center for Education Information (Feistritzer 2011), practicing teachers usually are not among them.

> Teachers are generally satisfied with their preparation programs. About a quarter (24 percent) of all teachers say their preparation program was 'Excellent'. Forty-one percent rated their program as 'Very Good'', and another 24 percent said it was 'Good'. Only 1 percent of all teachers rated their preparation program 'Poor'' (p. 24).

Moreover, "Teachers with 1–5 years of experience gave their program the highest ratings, with a third (34 percent) saying their program was 'Excellent' and 43 percent rating it as 'Very Good'" (ibid). Remarkably, 88 % of the teachers say they would recommend their teacher preparation programs to others interested in becoming teachers. Of the teachers most likely to recommend their preparation programs to others were those who had 5 or fewer years of teaching experience, at 92 %. Those *least* likely to recommend their preparation programs were those teachers with 25 or more years of experience, at 80 %. These figures suggest there has been significant improvement in teacher education quality over the years. Traditional route teachers, those who graduated from university-based teacher education programs, were slightly more likely to recommend their program than alternatively prepared teachers.

The survey required that teachers rate the effectiveness of "15 aspects of their teacher preparation programs" (p. 30). "Very Effective" ratings were assigned to the following: "Discussions with fellow teachers" (75 %); "Actual teaching part of the program" (66 %); "Practical experiences of instructors" (50 %); "Assistance provided by mentors at the school" (44 %); "Assistance provided by instructors" (37 %); "Knowledge and backgrounds of instructors" (36 %); "Education courses taken after beginning teaching" (34 %); "Learning materials provided by instructors" (31 %); and "Lectures/learning sessions with experts in particular areas of teaching" (27 %).

When asked what measurements should be used to determine teacher qualification, 91 % of teachers thought successfully completing a teacher preparation program and administrator evaluations that included classroom observations were good measures. This figure represents an increase of 2 % over the 2005 NCEI survey results. Teachers also supported the value of state certification (87 %), being evaluated by peers through classroom observation (81 %), the importance of teaching experience (75 %) and tests of subject matter proficiency (69 %). Most of the surveyed teachers thought using student scores on standardized achievement tests to determine teacher quality was a bad idea (55 %). Fifty-five percent of the teachers supported the idea that passing a "national proficiency exam for entry into teaching similar to the Bar Exam for lawyers or the CPA exam for accountants" (p. 42) would strengthen teaching as a profession and there was wide support (77 %) for career ladders. Virtually all the teachers wanted more participation in decision making (98 %) and 78 % (a rise of 6 % since the 2005 survey) desired greater autonomy when teaching, both ambitions running counter to current directions in school reform.

Reviewing the survey findings shows that teachers do not speak with a single voice about many issues, and there is evidence of changing views since earlier NCEI surveys. However, the results demonstrate there is strong and consistent support of the value of teacher education to quality teaching among teachers.

4.7   Conclusion

Studying certification trends in the US since World War II, Tobin (2012) paints a complex picture of powerful interests working to reshape teacher education. She concluded:

> The current policy environment in the United States involves several seemingly contradictory components and adversarial actors, including federal legislation that sets standards for teacher qualifications but allows states to make the final decisions about how to define those standards; states choosing to use the same testing companies to design their independent teacher assessments; and the rise of alternative routes to certification, which seem in some ways to circumvent the very requirements of the federal legislation that support them. (p. 497)

The contradictions Tobin notes arise out of the tensions between the neoliberal ambitions of teacher education critics and the professional aspirations of many teachers and teacher educators. Traditional views of professionalism are giving way; teacher educators have lost much of their control over teacher education, hence the claim of proletarianisation.

The US is experiencing both a strong move toward establishing greater uniformity within teacher education, driven by external interests and increasingly embraced by internal interests in teacher education, and a move toward deinstitutionalisation. Ultimately, how the states respond to these contradictory pressures may make a significant difference to the future and quality of teacher education. Perhaps the states will reassert themselves as criticism of the various requirements of NCLB increases, especially the impossibility of ever meeting its original aim that every child would be "proficient" in reading and math by 2014, as well as its overreliance on standardized testing, coupled with widespread and increasing concern with the prolonged incursion of the Federal government into matters of state policy, including in education and teacher education. Excluding teachers and teacher educators from policy discussions about education and teacher education, as has increasingly been the case, is certainly one way of undermining quality. Involving them more fully and meaningfully in such discussions is certainly a key element in building greater understanding of the challenges and opportunities of teacher education as well as to greater quality.

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Chapter 5
What Is High Quality Teacher Education?

David Imig, Donna L. Wiseman, Angela Wiseman, and Scott R. Imig

> ".… that's a really difficult question to answer. We have no scientific evidence that would tell us and there are many different answers to that question. We are confident that we will soon have more definitive answers for you. We are doing everything possible to assure the public that what we are doing meets the highest standards of quality." (A spokesperson for the West Virginia Governor answering a question regarding when polluted water, affecting the lives of 300,000 people, would be safe to drink).

5.1 Introduction

A pervasive and continuing effort to define high quality teacher education in the US has been embraced by politicians and policy makers, academics and teacher advocates, philanthropic foundations and commercial interests (Imig et al. 2011; Cochran-Smith et al. 2013; Duncan 2009; USED 2011). As a result, every aspect of the enterprise has been scrutinized and major efforts are underway to transform preparation programs. A consistent theme in the transformation process is how to specify, identify, and measure quality. As in the quote from the West Virginia Governor's spokesperson related to safe water, public and private educational

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interests are "doing everything possible to assure the public that what we [the teacher education profession] are doing meets the highest standards of quality."

Conversations about teacher quality are contextualized within perceived shortcomings of US public schools and changing work demands of our society. Data from the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) that surveys 15 year olds in principal industrialized countries indicates that high school students in the US are not competing at expected levels especially in mathematics and science. In addition, there are wide achievement gaps between diverse student groups, such as those between children from low income versus high-income communities. For example, only 8 % of students growing up in poverty will graduate from college by age 24 versus 80 % of students in more affluent areas. In addition, the need for highly skilled, technologically savvy citizens who possess problem solving and analytical skills is growing as the workforce adapts to a more technological and global environment. Increasingly, young people in the US are unable to enter the workforce with the appropriate skills and abilities needed for today's jobs, let alone the jobs of the future. These issues and others have resulted in an urgent examination of our current system of education and how we, as a country, prepare future teachers.

The general consensus is that quality teachers in every classroom would mean improved achievement among all students (Goldhaber 2013; Mead et al. 2012; Darling-Hammond 2010a; Kane and Cantrell 2011; Rockoff et al. 2008). How to get better teachers (and better teaching) is seen as one of the greatest challenges that US education faces. Whether preservice or initial teacher education should be the focus of so much attention when there are so many other factors (extraordinary teacher attrition during the first 5 years of teaching, constrained school budgets, reductions in support personnel, inadequate inservice or continuing education, curtailment of support for advanced degrees for practicing teachers, stagnant teacher salaries, not to mention societal and community based variables) that inhibit the performance of teachers in schools, is a question that is raised but too often ignored.

Multiple educational, political, economic and social groups have attempted to define high quality teacher preparation and to offer better ways of preparing teachers; yet, there is enormous dissatisfaction with the apparent ineffectiveness and lack of persistence by substantial numbers of beginning teachers. What is certain is that an intense debate has arisen and is likely to continue for the coming decade regarding teacher preparation and ways of measuring high quality preparation programs.

US teacher education is already experiencing dramatic changes as a product of this debate and the system of teacher preparation is changing faster than ever before (Grossman and Loeb 2010). There is greater variation in the form of traditional teacher education with the standard undergraduate teaching degree giving way to degree programs that focus on content knowledge and provide 5th year courses or master's degrees. A model that began at the University of Texas Austin (UTeach) is transforming the way that undergraduates are recruited and prepared for teaching mathematics and science. Community colleges in high demand areas of the country are becoming 4-year colleges, often with teacher education and nursing as their signature programs. The most celebrated type of innovative program in the US is

modelled after medical residencies in which candidates in Boston, Chicago, Denver and other locations do post-baccalaureate preparation in 2-year programs that often result in a master's degree and teacher certification (Berry et al. 2008). On-line and for-profit higher education programs now complete with traditional programs and attract large numbers of students. The University of Phoenix, a for-profit institution of higher education, is now the largest provider of beginning teachers in the US and RELAY Graduate School in New York has attracted the most notoriety as a stand-alone teacher preparation program (Kronholz 2012; Zeichner and Sandoval 2013). Congress is also poised to enact The Growing Excellent Achievement Training Academies legislation (the so-called GREAT Act) that would establish an array of new institutes for teacher and school principal preparation and centre teacher education at the local school district level and compete with university based preparation programs (Bennet 2013). The heavy hand of government is evident in many of these actions as new accountability demands are placed on preparation programs and significant costs are incurred in quantifying and measuring all aspects of educator preparation and initial practice (Sawchuk 2014). All are efforts to reach new standards of excellence in the preparation of teachers.

5.1.1   *The Difficulties of Defining High Quality*

Over the course of the past century, there have been repeated efforts to define high quality teacher education in the US. From the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study (Charters and Waples 1929) to the efforts of John Goodlad and the National Network for Educational Renewal (Goodlad 1990), from the seminal work on teacher education done by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (Learned and Bagley 1920) to the efforts of the TEPS Commission on Professional Standards of the National Education Association (1962), from the multi-volume study by the American Council on Education (Bigelow 1946) on the *Improvement of Teacher Education* to the report of the *Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers* (1976), from AACTE's *Educating a Profession* (1976) to the Holmes Group trilogy (1986–1994) and Levine's study of teacher education (2006), from the Ford Foundation's teacher education initiative in Arkansas (Clarke 1952) to the Carnegie Corporation's Teachers for a New Era project (2004), from studies funded by the prestigious National Academy for Education (2012) to the AERA Report on Teacher Education (Cochran-Smith and Zeichner 2005), there have been repeated efforts to both define high quality teacher education and to implement model programs that would exhibit such characteristics.

Other efforts to define high-quality teacher education have come from well-funded study groups and scholars in the field, actions by policy makers and deliberations by panels of researchers. All involved have been guided by different definitions and conceptualizations of high quality. Some see high quality in a variety of input measures having to do with the excellence of the faculty, the quality of

students admitted to the program, library holdings and instructional laboratories, research productivity and grant acquisition, resources and facilities. Others see high quality as reflective of the scores of graduates on exit examinations and in their internship experiences and place a premium on the performance of graduates in Kindergarten through the 12th grade (K-12) classrooms and their persistence in the schools in which they teach. For many, high quality programs are those that are campus-based with face-to-face instruction and supervised clinical experiences while another view of high quality is the expansive array of on-line learning opportunities and clinical practices. Defining program quality, much less measuring high quality teacher preparation, is a challenge facing US teacher educators in a time of increased accountability and greater expectation (Feuer et al. 2013; Zeichner 2012).

Adding to the difficulty of defining and measuring quality are a host of questions about what constitutes high quality. There is uncertainty about the most efficacious ways of preparing new teachers. The recent study by the National Research Council confirmed that there is little evidence that supports any one way of preparing teachers in the US (National Research Council 2010) with little variation in the effectiveness of graduates from one program to the next. Despite such difficulties, many have embraced the work of particular scholars and researchers and sought to describe high quality teacher education using lens offered by those studies. One of the most prominent of such efforts was NCTAF offering a set of basic components of a quality teacher preparation programs and suggesting that programs situated in institutions of higher education must share such features.

Darling-Hammond (2006), in *Powerful Teacher Education*, undertook an expansive study of teacher education for NCTAF that led her to identify seven "common components of powerful teacher education" and to suggest that high quality teacher preparation programs shared the following common features:

- a common, clear vision of good teaching that permeates all course-work and clinical experiences;
- well-defined standards of practice and performance that are used to guide and evaluate coursework and clinical work;
- curriculum that is grounded in knowledge of child and adolescent development, learning, social-contexts, and subject matter pedagogy, taught in the context of practice;
- extended clinical experiences that are carefully developed to support the ideas and practices presented in simultaneous, closely interwoven coursework;
- explicit strategies that help students confront their own deep-seated beliefs and assumptions about learning and students, and learn about the experiences of people different than themselves;
- strong relationships, common knowledge, and shared beliefs link school-and university-based faculty; and,
- case study methods, teacher research, performance assessments, and portfolio evaluation apply learning to real problems of practice. (p. 41)

Even with some agreement about the basic components of high quality programs, there remains a multitude of interpretations about how teacher education programs

are evaluated for quality. The most pervasive and consistent way used to measure high quality is to assess the knowledge and skills of graduates on a variety of assessments of content mastery and pedagogical proficiency (with preparation programs in some states being graded on the basis of such performance.) While such tests have been used since at least the 1920s, there is a continuing dissatisfaction with the tests, with critics questioning whether they truly measure teacher quality. Currently, 49 of the 50 states use a teacher licensure test prepared by either the Education Testing Service (PRAXIS) or the National Evaluation System (now a subsidiary of Pearson Education) to capture candidate knowledge and proficiency. There are ongoing efforts to transform these assessments and to strengthen their capability to predict high quality teaching.

A second way of determining high quality has been to use the system of voluntary professional accreditation to assert that the graduates of a preparation program meet national standards and are qualified to be licensed or certified by the state. Institutional reviews of programs are undertaken on 7-year cycles and composite candidate scores are available on program websites. Limitations in the specialized or professional accreditation system, however, have prompted a significant rewrite of the accreditation standards and procedures and the reinvention of the system to focus more on the efficacy of graduates of such programs. This has resulted in a merger of the two previous accreditation bodies and the creation of the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP), which accredits about half of US teacher preparation programs.

A third way to measure quality has been to garner credibility through various reputational studies of the program and the faculty that teach in such programs. Informants include scholars and practitioners, school leaders and policy makers who ascribe "high quality" to particular programs. *US News & World Report* does an annual ranking of the top 100 Education Graduate Schools and of 10 education specialties that is carefully scrutinized each spring.

A fourth way to measure quality is to provide a more rigorous measure of candidate progress and proficiency during the preparation program. Several colleges and universities are developing a new teacher candidate performance assessment (edTPA) in conjunction with The American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE) and Stanford University. This partnership is developing this assessment, now involving more than 140 teacher preparation providers that are transforming all aspects of their programme. With Pearson Education investments, technology and delivery systems and managerial support, edTPA is expanding rapidly with more and more university based programs using it as an assessment tool that gathers and uses evidence of high quality teaching performance to improve teaching and teacher preparation. These performance assessments require future teachers to document their planning and teaching for a unit of instruction, videotape and analyse their teaching, and collect and evaluate evidence of student learning. All these pieces are assembled and evaluated by highly trained raters who score the materials in a consistent manner against specific criteria that reflect standards of effective practice. These assessments have been found to measure novice teachers' performance and can be used to help them improve their programs.

More recently, attempts to define quality in teacher preparation have focused on demonstrating that candidates improve student scores in either the student teaching or internship experience (e.g., work-sampling) or during the initial years of teaching (PRAXIS III or other measures). This is an extraordinarily complex and controversial way of determining high quality, but seems destined to shape the conversation regarding quality for the foreseeable future (Noell and Burns 2006).

Most teacher education programmes use one or more of these (or other) evaluation strategies to document that their programme is one of high quality. Even so, there is a persistent concern that we lack adequate definitions of quality or means for determining that such quality does exist (Crowe et al. 2013). Questions about high quality teacher education programs abound. Are longer programs better than shorter programs? Are programs based in schools, relying on classroom teachers, better than campus centred preparation programs, relying on university faculty? Are programs focused on subject matter knowledge better than those built on a foundation of socio-cultural theory and appropriate pedagogy? Which modes of instruction should be demonstrated or taught? What models of classroom management should be implemented? Do we train or do we educate future teachers? When and where should clinical practice be highlighted in the program? Should emphasis be placed on the preparation or initial practice – with the ability to affect the learning of K-12 students the most important measure? Should we or can we shape the personal values and dispositions that candidates carry-away from programs? These are among the daunting questions that confront teacher education as we seek to find a pathway to high quality. Getting the right answers to these questions is essential as the demand for high quality teachers and teaching grows.

The complexities of the teacher education endeavour and the seemingly never ending number of participants who want to enter the conversation about what constitutes high quality opens the door for multiple perspectives related to defining high quality teacher preparation. New non-governmental organizations emerge to assess teacher education and to render conclusions about the efficacy of programs while traditional professional organizations introduce new program and candidate assessment models that seek to make more uniform teacher preparation programs in the US. These actions spur changes in preparation programs and make more challenging the work of teacher educators. Old debates about more rigorous or selective admission standards and more ambitious exit standards are revisited, as are debates about whether teacher education should be a baccalaureate or post-baccalaureate experience. Those who would extend programs and centre them in new entities between university and school counter demands for "streamlining" programs, shortening the initial training experience, and making them more "efficient". The role of internships and residencies is reframed and redesigned and alternative preparation is accepted as both an integral part of traditional teacher education and as alternative pathway to teaching (Humphrey and Wechsler 2007; Kronholz 2012; Katz 2013). The widely differing views set the stage for an on-going debate about quality in teacher education and how best to prepare teachers for the future.

5.2   Framing the US Debate on Teacher Quality

The nature of teacher preparation and the quality of teachers is the basis for protracted debate in the US. As with every debate, there are two contending forces. On the one side are those labelled "traditionalists", those who support traditional university-based teacher preparation with robust clinical experiences for future educators. On the other side are so-called "reformers," those who emphasize performance over credentials and show scepticism about conventional licensure and preparation. In essence, we have reformist efforts drawing on neoliberal practices and policies with an agenda of accountability and competition, and a professionalist agenda that is calling for more reliance on effort and rigor and practitioner knowledge and responsibility.

Each side is determined to recast teacher education in their own image using "their" tools to measure the efficacy of programs and to highlight the success of graduate (Sawchuck 2012; Cochran-Smith and Fries 2002). And even though the two camps differ significantly on methods, their emergence in the public discourse on education has prompted a renewed commitment to elevating the quality of teacher education programs in an effort to increase the academic performance of K-12 students. The debate is far-reaching, affecting everything from education policy at the national and state levels, standards development within accreditation bodies, the rise of non-academic non-profit organizations, and program design and delivery at universities. There is the encouragement of private investors to become involved (either using their own capital or through new government funded venture fund initiatives) and greater reliance on private sector entities to develop new protocols and assessments, track candidate progress and challenges, and to provide a range of services. University centred programs have moved from their "cash-cow" status (low cost programs generating revenues for other university priorities) to the status of high-cost programs requiring more and more mentors and clinicians and supervisors to oversee candidate preparation.

Reformers   For the moment, the reformers have coalesced around an agenda that advocates for free market approaches to education, places much more authority in the hands of government, ensures greater conformity across teacher preparation, and insists on assessing the effectiveness of program graduates in their practice and attributing those successes to their preparation program. Their agenda for action includes standards setting, alignment and accountability, data-driven decision making, performance assessment of teachers, value added or "achievement gain" assessments of students, clinically based preparation, the use of modern technologies, and competition between and among all "providers of beginning teachers." Reformers insist on defining quality in terms of raising student achievement scores as measured by various standardized assessments of student performance. Teacher retention and student engagement and school and college readiness are important, they argue, but student performance on school system administered tests is primary.

Traditionalists Traditionalists (also known as professionalists), on the other hand, believe that all learners must acquire the skills and knowledge to succeed in a competitive and fast-changing global society and that teacher education must be "extended" to accommodate such demands. Traditionalists insist on models that require additional resources to prepare teachers to be more effective in teaching diverse learners in a highly technical and media rich society with new, highly sophisticated strategies (Darling-Hammond 2006). They point to new forms of preparation and greater mastery of content and more lengthy and labour intensive models that rely on clinical preparation, internships, induction programs, and teacher residency models. They envision 5 and 6 and even 7 year preparation and induction programs that would reshape the relationships between university preparation programs and school-based professional development and create "seamless transitions" between preparation and practice. Unlike reformers who are supportive of non-conventional and shorter teacher preparation programs, the traditionalists insist that short term or abbreviated teacher preparation programs fail to produce quality teachers and that only through extended and clinically based preparation programs can high quality teachers be prepared.

Each side is determined to recast teacher education in their own image using "their" tools to measure the efficacy of programs and to highlight the success of graduates. And even though the two camps differ significantly on methods, their emergence in the public discourse on education has certainly prompted a renewed commitment to elevating the quality of teacher education programs in an effort to increase the academic performance of our students. The debate is far-reaching, affecting everything from education policy at the national and state levels, standards development within accreditation bodies, the rise of new non-academic non-profit organizations to measure program quality, and program design and delivery at universities.me There is the encouragement of private investors to become involved (either using their own capital or through new government funded venture fund initiatives) and greater reliance on private sector entities to develop new protocols and assessments, track candidate progress and challenges, and to provide a range of services to support beginning teachers (Zeichner and Sandavol 2013).

5.3 The Role of Standards in Defining Quality Teacher Education

Over the course of the past 150 years, standards' setting has taken on added importance as a system of quality control for teacher education has evolved. That system relies on standards derived from "professional judgement," "expert knowledge," "practical wisdom" or "research evidence" and is used to render judgements about program quality. Edelfelt and Raths (1999) describe the long history of standards' writing for teacher education in the US. They cite efforts of early teacher educators in the 1860s who struggled to develop "a code that will define 'best practice'" and

bring alignment to the then evolving system of teacher education. As early as the 1890s, standards were written to set criteria for admission to preparation programs, the conduct of programs, and for "the number of children to be entrusted to a beginning teacher" (Edelfelt and Raths 1999). The system of professional accreditation (specialized accreditation is the technical term) is built on a foundation of these standards that are intended to contribute to an understanding of what is high quality in teacher preparation programs.

In 2011, the joining of the two specialized professional accreditation agencies for educator preparation was finalized, bringing together the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council to form the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). The merger provides an extraordinary opportunity for the profession to define a common set of specific characteristics of high performing and high quality educator preparation programs. The Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP, the outgrowth from this merger) has been established and new national standards have been written to frame accredited preparation programs. The Council has been recognized by the federal government as the exclusive accreditor for the field of teacher education and CAEP is putting a premium on engaging all "providers" (both university based and non-university based programs) in the accreditation process, in raising admission standards (and limiting enrolment to the top-third of high school graduates), in partnerships and collaborations between providers and employers, and insisting that high quality be judged by outcomes and impact on K-12 student learning.

These new standards, established and administered by a so-called non-governmental accreditation agency (CAEP 2013), shape the basic outline of teacher education in the US. It is anticipated that these new standards and the processes used to examine preparation programs will provide a basis for raising the calibre of programs and securing greater recognition and support for all educator preparation. The effort is premised on a belief that more prescriptive standards, emphasizing specific features of knowledge acquisition, and learning to teach and practice in clinical settings, will "raise the bar" and challenge all providers of teacher education.

Subject specific standards for fields of teaching developed by professional societies (like the National Council for Teachers of Mathematics, the International Reading Association, etc.) and used by both the accreditation agency and the states for purposes of "program approval" are undergoing change to align themselves with CAEP and to drive the emerging national (not federal) Common Core State Standards (CCSS) standards for all K-12 students, into teacher preparation. While only about half of new teacher providers (both university-based and alternative) are nationally accredited, all teacher education programs have to be recognized ("approved") by the states in which they are offered. Teacher licensure by the states reinforces reliance on the national standards with private sector developed licensing tests used by almost all states to assess the basic skills, content and pedagogical knowledge of prospective teachers. These standards and new candidate performance assessments promote faculty efforts to better align programs with such initiatives

and lead to further change in all facets of the program. Yet, there is lingering doubt that such efforts meet a threshold of "high quality".

In contrast, another set of standards from outside the profession has garnered a great deal of attention and response in the last few years. The National Council for Teacher Quality (NCTQ), which is supported by dozens of philanthropic foundations, has emerged to challenge the dominance of the accreditation agencies and the states to set standards for preparing institutions. NCTQ has developed a set of standards with which to "review" preparation programs and has conducted a national review of nearly 800 college and university programs (Greenberg et al. 2013). Their standards and their review process elicited enormous consternation from the "traditional" preparation community (Fuller 2014). NCTQ collaborated with *US News & World Report* to publish their findings and published an expansive report on teacher preparation. The well-documented methodological flaws in the approach used by NCTQ and the willingness of the private group to battle university based programmes in the courts for access to data and information brought immense criticism to their efforts (Fuller 2014). While NCTQ argued that their standards represented "high quality", most of the preparing programmes challenged the legitimacy of the effort and the means by which the organization gathered information. Nevertheless, when the NCTQ results were released in 2013, they received extensive press coverage and promised the continuation of their efforts to define high quality teacher preparation in the US (Greenberg et al. 2013).

5.4 Assuring Quality Through Policy

In the US, the sources for the emphasis on high quality are multifaceted. The policy influencers consist of interest groups and the media, philanthropic interests and business organizations, think tanks and research centres among others. They share in common a determination to reframe teacher education according to sets of principles and guidelines that reflect their membership or ideology or political perspective (Wiseman 2012; Cochran-Smith 2001). Ultimately, the debate and conversation is intertwined with policy influencers, policy makers and policy implementers who have impetus to shape the discourse regarding high quality in teacher education (Bales 2006, 2007; Cochran-Smith et al. 2013; Lewis and Young 2013). Some are more liberal or Democratic leaning and some are more conservative or Republican, although there is a curious commonality to both their problem identification and problem solutions.

Their insistence on change is reinforced by research evidence that high quality teachers are critical to raising educational standards and improving the learning of all students. Indeed, many contend that the efficiency and equity of schooling now depends on having highly effective teachers in all K-12 classrooms, making teacher preparation a target of attention in the discussions. Teacher education policy established by government agencies at the local, state, and federal levels, represent a powerful voice for change and function. Using mandates and rules, requirements

and expectations, grants and other incentives, policy makers set requirements for teachers and standards for program operation or conduct.

Historically, teacher education has been viewed as the responsibility of state government, but more recently, the federal government has assumed a greater role and stimulated states to reform licensure and certification processes and, thereby, to affect changes in teacher education. Using an array of "carrots and sticks", they have increased their prominence in all aspects of teacher education. While there have been a series of laws and mandates that have set expectations for teacher education programs in the past, the most aggressive "reach" by the Federal government was the *1998 Amendments to Higher Education Act* that required unprecedented reporting requirements and accountability expectations. More recently, the Obama administration brought forward the Race to the Top initiative (RtttT) as its answer to educational change and reform (USED 2010). Although focused primarily on elementary and secondary education, RttT identified the improvement of teacher quality as one of the most pressing issues of educational reform linking students' achievement to teachers' preparation. Federal monies granted to states serve as a powerful stimulus for change in teacher preparation.

Arne Duncan, the US Education Secretary in the Obama administration, a vocal critic of teacher education (Duncan 2009), convened a panel of stakeholders in 2012 to define high quality teacher education. Representatives of various organizations and interests met for a year to offer new criteria for defining high quality. In December 2014, the Obama Administration published a set of proposed regulations requiring teacher education programs to begin reporting on their performance on a variety of indicators having to do with both inputs and outcomes (Federal Register 2014). Teacher education programs already report on more than 450 elements (demographic and program data) in an annual report to government (the so-called Title II report) but, given the new rules, States will be required to use such data to describe whether programs are "exceptional," "effective," "at risk," or "low-performing." Those determinations will be based on six measures: (1) "associated PK-12 student learning outcomes" of students taught by a novice teacher from a designated teacher education program, (2) teacher placement rates, (3) teacher retention rates (for the first 3 years of teaching), (4) teacher satisfaction data, (5) employer satisfaction, and (6) assurance of national accreditation and "rigorous entry and exit" criteria. Failure to meet the criteria will have consequences for eligibility to receive government funding and support for teacher candidates (USED 2013). While many have embraced these criteria as indicative of high quality (including both CAEP and the National Education Association), most preparation programs have serious reservations about the outcome measures and their potential impact in determining high quality (Sawchuk 2014).

As noted above, *Race to the Top*, the signature piece of education legislation of the Obama administration, as well as other state and federal policies insist that the teaching profession find ways to measure teacher education programs by linking a teacher's performance with elementary and secondary student learning back to the preparation program (Crowe 2011). This effort, the so-called value-added method of measuring program effectiveness, has become a major point of disagreement

between traditionalists and reformers. Value-added models use complex mathematics to predict how well a K-12 student can be expected to perform on an end-of year- test based on several characteristics, such as student's attendance and past performance on tests. Teacher with students who take standardized math and English tests are held accountable for students' performance on the tests. If a teacher's students, on average, fall short of their predicted test-scores, the teacher is generally labelled ineffective, whereas if they as well or better than anticipated, the teacher is deemed effective or highly effective (Kane and Cantrell 2011; Rockoff et al. 2008). Many policy makers now insist that states trace ineffective teachers back to their preparation program and assign a score to that program.

A number of states and districts across the country already tie student performance on standardized tests to teacher evaluations; others have plans to do (Goldhaber and Liddle 2012). Many reformers, including those in the Obama administration, commend the practice. But, sceptics, including teachers unions, researchers and other traditionalists, say that value-added models have reliability problems and don't take into account multiple factors that affect classroom performance. The methods of linking teacher performance and student achievement with the preparation program continues to be a major part of the US debate regarding teacher education quality and one that will require a great deal of effort and resources of teacher educators and scholars to resolve.

5.5   Who Delivers High Quality Programs?

Whereas a decade ago the major producers of beginning teachers were traditional university-based programs, today no higher education institution is among the top-ten producers of new teachers (Sawchuk 2012). There are more than 25,000 individual teacher preparation programs grouped between traditional and alternative providers (Feisteritzer 2011). On-line and for-profit entities claim a larger and larger share of the market and the voices that shape public policy regarding teacher education are increasingly those from the for-profit sector. Costs and return-on-investment, revenues and efficiency are increasingly a part of the "teacher education conversation" as venture capitalists are attracted to teacher education and states scale-back support for university-based programs (Zeichner 2014). There is the press for massive open-access on-line learning for all teacher preparation, the promise of more networking and cost sharing between and among university based teacher preparation programs, and the infusion of "big money" into traditional teacher education (Zeichner 2014).

Today, Teach for America drives the policy debate. Teach for America (TFA), which enlists high-achieving recent college graduates to teach 2 or more years in low-income communities is seen by many policy makers and reformers as innovative and effective and "high quality." Teach for America recruits are prepared in an intensive 5-week summer program and placed primarily in urban and rural schools throughout the United States. Teach for America teachers are often in competition

for job placements with traditionally trained teachers even though TFA teachers usually leave the profession at the end of their 2-year commitment. Federal and state policies and funding processes often favour Teach for America and many private foundations and corporations have contributed enormous amounts of money to the program to make it hugely visible to the public. Teach for America has an effective marketing program and successfully recruits students on university campuses and even recruits students away from traditional teacher education programs. In 2013, Teach for America entered into a long term but controversial agreement with the College of Education and Human Development at the University of Minnesota to provide intern training that will lead to a master's degree. The blending of traditional and reformer strategies for teacher preparation is evident in this arrangement (Baker and Henneberry 2013). It raises fundamental questions about the future landscape for teacher preparation in the US.

Competition among different providers also affects teacher education as for-profit and not-for-profit entities compete for "market share" and debate ways of preparing high quality teachers. Whether such approaches to reframing teacher education and competition between and among different providers will lead to high quality is widely debated. What is certain is that the reformers have the upper hand in the current debate and their definition of high quality is likely to prevail.

5.6   Responses from Teacher Education

Teacher preparation programs are responding as pressure mounts to improve programs and raise the quality of the teaching force. Preparation programs are focused on recruitment of upper tier students, modelling new approaches to teaching and learning, providing intensive, embedded practicum experiences, and providing experiences to ensure that future teachers are capable of teaching K-12 students from diverse backgrounds. Furthermore, there are extraordinary efforts to align programs with new national K-12 standards and to integrate special education and English Language Learning methodologies into all preparation programs.

The primacy of mathematics and science in the school curriculum has placed unprecedented demands on teacher education to prepare STEM teachers (who have knowledge and skill in teaching integrated versions of science, mathematics, technology and engineering to middle and secondary school students.) Reliance on more testing for elementary and secondary schools has fostered a demand for teachers more proficient in assessment strategies and data based decision-making and teacher education programs have responded. Teachers skilled in infusing technology into lessons and more proficient in building evidence-based courses in reading are in high demand. Teacher education has also become more centred in K-12 schools with the press for more clinical experiences and the examination of ways to facilitate the transition from intern or student teacher to novice or beginning teacher (NCATE 2010). Some states are describing new preparation programs that consist of 5 year programs – beginning with college juniors (or 3rd year university students)

and extending through the internship and induction experiences to the point that a new teacher is tenured in the school system (usually after 3 years of successful teaching.)

While there is an enormous amount of change occurring in preparation programs, much of what happens inside teacher education, particularly in institutions of higher education, seems unrelated to the policy discourse. Faculty scholars and clinicians, supervisors and mentor teachers are building new programs responsive to local needs. High leverage practices and increased clinical experience are driving those conversations (McDonald et al. 2013). Policy mandates may drive consideration of what constitutes high quality, but faculty efforts most often are derived from their own scholarship and experience. The source for the disparity is complex but is most often rooted in the prerogatives of faculty and the traditions of academic freedom in the American university (DelFattore 2012). Faculty have different conceptions of quality preparation from many of the policy influencers and assert their "freedom" to experiment with different designs that they argue are evidence based or theory driven or best practice. Faculty do comply with the demands of program reviews and accreditation tasks but often see these as secondary to their efforts to fashion distinctive and high quality programs of preparation. Tenured faculty in university programs most often identify with their discipline or field and not with teacher education. The so called reforms often fail to touch-them because preparation programs remain at a data-building stage in the process of transformation and clinically rich programs often depend on non-tenured and clinical faculty for delivery. The contexts of practice and policy implementation for teacher education often remain separate and far apart from both policy making and policy formulation (Furlong et al. 2000).

Often within the same program there are competing philosophies. There may be factions that embrace a neoliberal or conservative agenda that puts a premium on teacher effectiveness while, on the other hand, there are a preponderance of teacher educators who focus on candidate dispositions and critical theory and equity and diversity considerations (Frakas and Duffett 2010). The former increasingly accept measures of teacher effectiveness as demonstrated by performance in K-12 classrooms while the latter suggest a broader determination of high quality captured through portfolios and classroom observations that reveal characteristics of a good teacher. Similarly, there are tensions between preparation for core practice and a disciplinary focus on subject matter knowledge (Grossman et al. 2009; Ball and Forzani 2009). While the external debates driven by policy makers and politicians affect these internal conversations, much of the change efforts are undertaken by faculty responsive to their own scholarship or "best practice" and are often disconnected from the political and policy debates that surround teacher education. Policy implementation seems to be a responsibility of education deans and chairs, with faculty often unengaged in the implementation of externally imposed mandates.

5.7   Summary and Conclusion

Despite the enormous changes underway to transform every aspect of teacher education in the US, there remains great uncertainty whether such changes will lead to more high quality teachers and teaching. The professionalists are trying to build a profession of teaching while the reformers are seeking highly competent and accountable public sector workers. The efforts of the reformers are succeeding at all levels of policy and government with the professionalists seeming to be reacting more than leading the conversation. A looming teacher shortage and plummeting enrolments in teacher preparation programs are ignored while debates regarding the need for change go forward (Koenig 2014; Brandenburg 2014; Sawchuk 2014). Whether one adopts a Traditionalist or Reformer paradigm of how the teacher education system should work, there is wholesale agreement that change is necessary. In order to develop agreement on what changes should happen, the two groups must come together in some way and build trust that is centred on the common goal of educating all of our students. Unfortunately, the two groups are a long way from working together so for the foreseeable future, the divisive context surrounding teaching and teacher education in the US will likely remain at the forefront of the debate about education policy and practice. The impact of this potential split cannot be underestimated.

The story of our quest to define quality teaching and teacher preparation in the US is complex, sometimes confusing and often contentious, but our greatest hope comes from our day-to-day efforts and the students in our programmes. While the conversations outside colleges and schools of education may have a negative bent, it is different within the hallways and classrooms of higher education. There, the calibre, commitment, and energy of students enrolling in undergraduate and graduate classes are remarkable. Cohort after cohort is alive with expectations and a readiness to commit to the challenges of educating our nation's youth. Are they idealists? Yes, of course and we need them to bring their positive energy to the teaching profession. They are eager to learn the means to best teach all students and the most effective ways to collaborate and partner with colleagues in schools to ensure that all students benefit from their schooling. While education deans (and leaders of the enterprise) worry if there is a future for university based teacher education, the next generation of teachers eagerly participates in the university program of studies, volunteering to tutor high risk students, observing skilled teachers practice, and undertaking student teaching.

There is no doubt that the challenges related to preparing teachers for the future are great (Darling-Hammond 2010b). No matter who controls the policy process, it is an era of increased accountability for the teaching profession, the ascendancy of a new reform community influencing policy debate and discussion, a growing centrality of standards setting for elementary, secondary, and higher education (and particularly teacher education), competition from alternative providers, and confidence in data gathering, market approaches for teacher preparation and the ability to attribute student learning to teacher performance. Colleges and universities are

challenged to respond to the new accountability demands. There is much work ahead – but there is also enormous commitment to making a positive difference for all students.

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Chapter 6
Quality Initial Teacher Education Policy and Practice in Australia and England: Past, Present and Possible Futures

Anne Jasman

6.1 Introduction

The policy and practice focus discussed here is on 'What counts as 'quality' in initial teacher education in Australia and England?' Separating the fields of teacher education policy and practice into initial and continuing professional learning is acknowledged as an artificial distinction. However, the field of teacher education policy and practice, as a whole, is too rich and extensive to do justice to within this short chapter. Other sections in this volume provide insights into the continuum of teacher education both initial and continuing professional education within Western and Chinese contexts.

This chapter first describes and then uses an approach to the investigation of policy trajectories based on the heuristics of 'looking back' and 'looking now'. This temporal perspective provides a way of viewing policy changes and any impact on the quality of initial teacher education practice emerging over the preceding decade (2003–2013). Second, the heuristic of 'looking forward' is used to suggest scenarios that articulate possible futures' policies and trends for quality initial teacher education practice arising from the analysis of past and present policy.

These scenarios are built on a 'western' perspective drawing on work from the OECD, England and Australia. This chapter also 'looks beyond' in order to challenge this partial view of 'quality in initial teacher education'. Thus a future perspective on quality in initial teacher education policy and practice is considered with reference to major trends globally, which relate broadly to the concepts of mobility, temporality, sociality and spatiality. The insights emerging from these

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analyses draw on policy documents, relevant research and on my experience as a policy advisor, educational researcher and initial teacher educator in Australia and England during this period.

This chapter, therefore, presents a narrative of how the agenda of quality initial teacher education in these two countries has developed over the last 10 years and might develop over the next 5. The major trend is a movement from more open and inclusive constructions of initial teacher education where teacher educators, teachers, employers, unions and consumers could legitimately contribute to the development of policy and the quality initial teacher education to where quality is determined by government, implemented by either a non-departmental public body or by government department(s).

6.2   Looking Back

In 2003, the quality of initial teacher education was seen as declining in both Australia and England. I argued that a number of conditions in both countries, as well as in the United States had led to the marginalisation of initial teacher education (Jasman 2003) within higher education and that this could lead to changes in the ways in which quality is defined within these countries. Alongside the 'benign neglect' of initial teacher education in Australia and the devaluing of initial teacher education to a training model within England, the nature of the work of initial teacher educators was considered with reference to the concepts invisibility, influence and identity. It was argued that the voice of initial teacher educators was marginalised in both contexts, despite different policies, practices and research trajectories. However, this was not constructed as a negative context as I suggested that

> *.. the intersection of these conditions is creating an opportunity for all those involved in teacher education, both tertiary and school based educators, to create the reform agenda for the curricula, pedagogies and assessment of initial teacher education programs. ......Teacher educators hold the practitioner knowledge of effective curricular, pedagogical and assessment practices that can shape the way in which new teachers are prepared for their work in the 21st Century and support the development of existing teachers. An activist role for teacher educators* (Sachs 2000) *is now even more of a priority if we are, in collaboration with others, to contribute to a socially just education for all.* (Jasman 2003, 1)

However, despite this emphasis on building collaboration between the key stakeholder groups, the discourse of the period (2003–2013) increasingly focused on

- the need for improved entry qualifications for initial teacher education and
- increased involvement in the specification of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment requirements of initial teacher training and
- control that has been exercised through preferential funding arrangements for institutions that are highly regarded by government due to their compliance with external standards and quality assurance processes.

The background and trajectory that produced the current policy context for quality in initial teacher education is now described for Australia and England, before

consideration of the outcomes associated with these policies. A brief summary of the political context, status of non-departmental bodies and the role of teacher educators and the policy trends emerging from these conditions is summarised in Table 6.1 for the period 2003–2008, and Table 6.2 provides the same information for the period 2008–2013 for both Australia and England. Thus through 'looking back' trends that are in ascendency or diminishing, shifts in policy and emerging policy directions can be contextualized against political, economic, cultural, social and technological drivers within a specific time period.

6.2.1   Australia

In Australia, as indicated above, an emphasis on collaboration between various stakeholder groups was possible given the work on quality in initial teacher education prior to and during 2003. National standards were the focus of the quality agenda to be achieved through continuing discussions amongst stakeholder groups such as the Australian Educational Research Association, Australian Teacher Education Association, Employer groups, Professional Subject Associations, State regulatory bodies (where they existed) and Teacher Unions as well as government. In order to consolidate and take forward this work the Ministerial Council for Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) created the Teacher Quality and Educational Leadership Taskforce (TQELT) and charged it with preparing a report which MCEETYA then further developed into a consultation document. In this paper the Ministerial Council

> acknowledges the importance of building and sustaining quality teaching in a global context characterised by ever-changing and challenging social, economic and political environments with an increasingly diverse group of students, and the value of the ongoing work on standards by groups throughout Australia. Drawing on this work the framework aims to capture professional elements of teachers' work across career dimensions which profile teachers' careers. It aims to allow existing work around professional standards to be recognised and new work, either by jurisdiction or subject association, to be developed. (MCEETYA 2003, 7) Accessed on 9/02/2010, http://www.mceecdya.edu.au/verve/_resources/national_framework_file.pdf

The National Framework for Professional Teaching Standards Consultation stated that

> (T)his National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching is the current response in continuing efforts to define and promote quality teaching. (MCEETYA 2003, 2) Accessed on 9/02/2010, http://www.mceecdya.edu.au/verve/_resources/national_framework_file.pdf

However, the statement issued by the MCEETYA later in 2003, whilst taking account of these extensive consultations, clearly indicates that the government now placed its imprimatur on the control and direction of the quality agenda, suggesting that the collaborative processes were at an end.

Table 6.1 Looking back: key policy elements of policy for quality initial teacher education in England and Australia (2003–2008)

	Australia (2003–2008)	England (2003–2008)	Emerging trends
Political context	Second term Liberal government continued to focus on economic rationalist policy with 'benign neglect' of initial teacher education but a continuing focus on the quality of teachers graduating from initial teacher education programs. Focus on entry requirements as mechanism for improving teacher graduate quality	'Education, education, education' was the catch cry of the UK New Labour government of Tony Blair. Policies focus on improving the quality of teachers through control of initial teacher education programs. Focus was initially on improving the quantity of entrants considering teaching followed by improving the quality of entrants	The degree of central government control exerted over implementation of education policy, in particular in determining the quality of initial teacher education is increased through monitoring compliance with national teacher and teaching standards
Government agency roles monitoring quality in initial teacher education	Ministerial Council for Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs endorsed the development of a national framework for professional teaching standards, and the establishment of the National Institute for Teacher Quality and School leadership. The Minister tabled a notice of the creation of Teaching Australia on 29 March 2006 as the national body for the teaching profession. It had no statutory powers or regulatory role. Funding of $20 million until 2009 was made available	Key criteria for judging the quality of initial teacher training courses are detailed by the Department for Education through regularly updated circulars. These policies are implemented and monitored by the Teacher Training Agency on behalf of government through annual reports and Ofsted inspections. Compliance is required to maintain funding of initial teacher education places. The General Teaching Council for England is NOT part of these processes	Consolidation of registration and regulatory bodies charged with the responsibility for implementation and assurance of initial teacher education quality. Increase in the degree of monitoring by legislative authorities, and consequences for providers if failing to comply with requirements
Initial teacher training and/or education	The quality of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment of initial teacher education controlled through university academic policies. Teacher educators were key stakeholders but increasing pressure to include professionals from the school sector in selection and accreditation processes. No consistent State regulation of quality through standards for initial teacher education programs or accreditation processes	Teacher educators within universities and polytechnics are increasingly marginalised as accreditation criteria for Teacher Education programs are determined by government and assured by the Teacher Training Agency. Control rested largely within government, with some input from consumers	Teacher educators no longer knowledge experts, focus on a technical approach to classroom teaching. Expertise for quality teaching seen as province of 'excellent' classroom teachers. Theoretical perspectives no longer central to quality in initial teacher education
Entry pathways	Pathways into teaching remain the traditional 4 year BEd program and the 1 year graduate diploma program located in universities	New pathways into teaching were developing including school-based teacher training and Fast Track programs	Increasing number of pathways into teaching, including an apprenticeship model

Table 6.2 Looking back: key initial teacher education policy developments in England and Australia (2008–2013)

Political context	A majority Australian Labour Party government was formed in 2007, followed by a minority ALP government in August 2010. In 2013 the Liberal and National Party (LNP) won the election with a large majority and an agenda to reduce government debt	The UK Labour government had jurisdiction over the English education system under various ministers until May 2010 when a coalition of the Conservative and Liberal parties formed government. The next election will be held in 2015	Central government control over education policy increases, particularly in setting national standards for initial teacher accreditation to enable quality assurance processes
Government agency roles monitoring quality in initial teacher education	Teaching Australia was wound up on 31 December 2009 and the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership began its operations from 1 January 2010. AITSL pursues its remit set under the ALP government until June 2015. The Board of Teaching Australia had a majority of teachers (11) and one appointment from the Deans of Education, whilst the AITSL Board is comprised of 11 government appointments and only 6 by peak professional and union bodies	Key criteria for judging the quality of initial teacher training courses are detailed by the 'Department of Education for both the Teacher Development Agency for Schools and the General Teaching Council for England.' Compliance is required to maintain funding of initial teacher education places. Movement of funds from University sector to the school sector with expansion of apprenticeship approach to teacher training	Consolidation of registration and regulatory bodies charged with the responsibility for implementing and assuring teacher education quality. Increase in the degree of monitoring by legislative authorities, and consequences for providers if failing to comply with requirements
Initial teacher training and/or education	Decreasing influence for teacher educators both within state and territory registration and regulation, but also within University quality assurance processes and in AITSL	Teacher educators within universities and polytechnics are increasingly marginalised as accreditation criteria for Teacher Education programs are determined by government alone	Teacher educators are under increasing attack as being out of touch with schools and the issues facing teachers. No place for theory in initial teacher education, re-ascendance of a traditional view of curriculum
Entry pathways	Pathways into teaching remain the traditional 4 year BEd program and the 1 year graduate diploma program located in universities	New pathways into teaching were developing including school-based teacher training and Fast Track programs	Apprenticeship models rooted in the past, seen as best practice

As a result of a lengthy consultation process, the National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching was formulated and then considered at the July 2003 MCEETYA meeting. It received State, Territory & Federal Education Ministers' endorsement and Ministers agreed that the next step in implementing this decision was to use the National Framework to nationally align entry or graduate level standards. *The significance of this endorsement by Ministers cannot be overstated and other groups such as employers and professional associations who are undertaking or will undertake work on standards for teaching need to recognise the imprimatur that the National Framework has and refer to it as a guide and key point of reference.* (Emphasis added). (Accessed 12 April 2014) http://www.mceetya.edu.au/verve/_resources/national_framework_file.pdf

At this stage in Australia there were no nationally agreed standards to underpin quality assurance measures and no consistent approach to teacher education accreditation across State and Territory jurisdictions. To counter this situation the National Institute of Quality Teaching and School Leadership (NIQTSL) was established in 2004. This body was later renamed as Teaching Australia. The following statement makes clear why this national body was established.

Teaching Australia is currently working to establish an Australia-wide system for accrediting teacher preparation programs. Accreditation is important because it provides the basis for public confidence in graduating teachers. A consistent, transparent, Australia-wide system for accrediting pre-service preparation programs will encourage a comparable level of skill attainment for all commencing teachers. (Accessed 10 April 2014) http://www.aitsl.edu.au/verve/_resources/A_Proposal_for_a_National_System_for_the_Accreditation_of_Pre-service_Teacher_Education_June_2007.pdf

However, alongside this federal government initiative, States and Territories in Australia were pursuing a similar policy agenda separately from the federal government. In 2006 the Australasian Forum of Teacher Registration and Accreditation Authorities (AFRAA) prepared guidance for the approval of teacher education programs. The separate approaches were not aligned until 2010 when Teaching Australia was renamed and its work refocused as the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership. Interestingly with the renaming of AITSL any explicit reference to quality disappeared.

The policy directions of AITSL are given below.

For the benefit of all Australian students, AITSL provides guidance and develops practical resources to help make good teachers and school leaders even better.

AITSL is committed to the key principles of equity and excellence in the education of all young Australians to cultivate successful learners, confident and creative individuals and active and informed citizens.

As a national body, AITSL works with the education community to:

- define and maintain Australian standards in teaching and school leadership
- lead and influence improvement in teaching and school leadership
- support and recognise high quality professional practice. (Accessed 10 April 2014 from http://www.aitsl.edu.au/verve/_resources/AITSL_infographic_file.pdf)

Since the change of government in 2013 there are indications that the policy agenda is already moving closer to that of England (see following section). The government website (accessed 19 April 2014 http://education.gov.au/teacher-training) refers to Teacher Training rather than Teacher Education. It also refocuses the policy remit of AITSL as follows.

Better skills for teachers

A Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group has been established to provide advice on how teacher education programmes could be improved to better prepare new teachers with the practical skills needed for the classroom.

Using an evidence-based approach, the Advisory Group will identify common components regarded as world's best practice in teacher education, with a particular focus on:

- Pedagogical approaches – Ways of teaching and learning, including assessing learning related to specific areas and matched to the capabilities of students
- Subject content – Knowledge and understanding of school subjects in the primary and secondary curriculum, particularly in relation to foreign languages and science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) subjects, and
- Professional experience (practicum) – Improved University and in-school professional experience opportunities for pre-service teachers and better support from experienced mentor teachers.

Improved admission standards for teacher training

The Commonwealth Government is committed to improving admission standards for teaching programmes by encouraging greater attention to the qualities that make good teachers, such as good communication skills and ensuring they have the practical skills for the classroom.
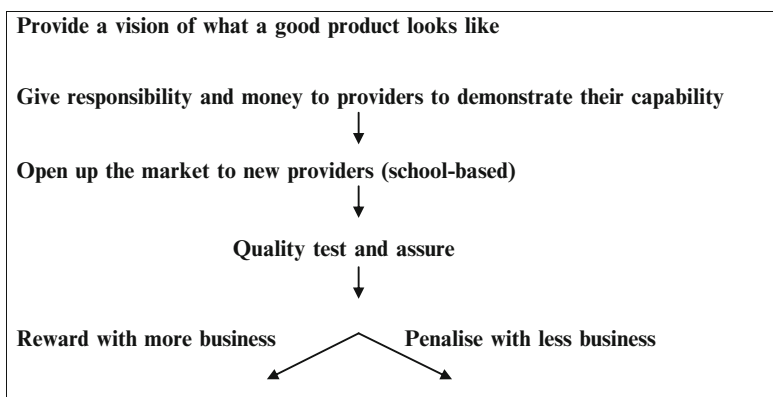
Literacy and numeracy assessment

The government supports improving the literacy and numeracy skills of new teachers, to be equivalent to the top 30 per cent of the population.

As will be seen in the next section some of these policy trajectories reflect those that have been introduced in England over the last 4 years.

6.2.2   England

The position in England[1] in 2003 was rather different in relation to policies for quality initial teacher education when compared with Australia. Policies for improving both the quantity and quality of entrants to initial teacher education programs and commencing employment had been in effect for some time. In fact the Teacher Training Agency was recognised by government for improvements in both the quality of teachers and of programs. This agency worked to the government's remit but the Labour government of Tony Blair set up the General Teaching Council for

[1] The description of educational policy within UK must take account of the separation of powers in relation to education provision. In 2003 Scotland, Wales and England each had a different system of governance in place for the registration and regulation of teachers. Provision for the accreditation of teacher education programs also varied with jurisdiction.

Table 6.3 Model of teacher training agency policy linking funding and quality

Provide a vision of what a good product looks like

Give responsibility and money to providers to demonstrate their capability

Open up the market to new providers (school-based)

Quality test and assure

Reward with more business   **Penalise with less business**

England (GTCE) to oversee the registration and regulation of all teachers in government schools and also provide policy advice to the government on a range of issues associated with quality teachers and teaching but not initial teacher education program accreditation and quality assurance which remained under the control of government and implemented by the Teacher Training Agency.

A report of government initiatives conducted under the auspices of the Teacher Training Agency was published in 2005 by the National Centre for Education and the Economy (accessed 23 February 2010, http://www.ncee.org/wp-content/uploads/2010/04/Improving-Teacher-Training-Provision.pdf). In this report it was concluded that during 2000–2005

> .. (a) new priority was placed on teacher recruitment and the TTA was successful in driving up standards more flexibly, without changing the quality framework established during its first phase.

Success during this period was attributed to a new policy linking quality outcomes to funding (see Table 6.3).

In order for the new link between quality and funding to be applied, the establishment of an independent inspectorate for teacher training as part of the Office of Standards in Education (Ofsted) was a critical development. The NCEE report (2005) indicated that by 2004 the TTA had clearly demonstrated success in raising the numbers of entrants to initial teacher training and also the quality of these entrants. In late 2004, Sir Charles Clarke, Secretary of State for Education provided a new remit to the TTA, renaming the agency the Training and Development Agency (TDA) for Schools. The remit letter highlighted the success of the TTA and identified new policy areas for attention.

> 'TTA can draw upon its highly successful experience in teacher training to help the education service streamline systems, improve the quality of CPD, and stimulate its demand and supply', (Remit Letter to TDA, 9 September 2004 GTCE personal correspondence).

During 2004–2005 the TDA continued to be active in initial teacher training. The Agency maintained cooperation with other agencies such as the unions, professional associations, GTCE and NCSL and initiated a number of activities. These included a horizon scanning exercise to inform future developments in initial teacher training. As noted by Robinson

> TDA has started to look ahead in its 'Futures: Teaching 2012 and 2020' project, which brings together representatives from all major agencies involved in teacher education and teacher professionalism to engage in blue skies thinking about the transformed educational landscape of the future. (2006, 32)

There appeared to be a looser coupling between government and the Training and Development Agency, which allowed for more cooperation with key stakeholders. This continued until the change in government in May 2010. The Conservative/Liberal Coalition re-establish tighter control, with a resurgence of government initiatives relating to initial teacher training. The most significant of these changes was the further exclusion of higher education from the preparation of teachers, and relocation of training into schools selected by government. These Training Schools are being chosen because of their success in meeting the benchmarks relating to student achievement set by government and monitored by Ofsted as 'Outstanding'.

What policy trends can be identified during this period of time? These are now discussed as the meaning of quality in initial teacher education is considered in more detail in the following section 'looking now'.

6.3   Looking Now: A Western Perspective on Quality in Initial Teacher Education (Australia and England in 2013)

Quality initial teacher education has been and continues to be central to government policies in both Australia and England. The policies have focussed on both the quantity of teachers entering and leaving the workforce and the quality of teachers and teaching. The underlying rationale for this focus on teacher and teaching quality in policy is argued from research evidence that teacher and teaching quality were the most important school factors influencing the success of students as measured against particular student achievement outcomes (Jasman 2009; Rowe et al. 1993). However, factors external to the school such as social class and parental expectations are also highly correlated to student achievement contributing between 40 and 60 % of the variance found in student outcomes, but the political agenda for addressing inequalities in student achievement focuses on improving teachers and teaching. Change in this area is perceived to be much easier to achieve when compared to addressing factors such as social class, economic status and cultural capital.

In Australia the main policy implemented to improve the quality of initial teacher education during the period between 2003 and 2013 was the codification and

description of teachers' work through national professional standards for teachers and teaching. These standards were and are used in three ways. First, the standards help to define the content of quality initial teacher education through the accreditation of initial teacher education programs. Second, standards are used to determine pedagogy by focussing on the type and nature of course delivery and professional experiences. Finally, these standards are also used as the criteria for assessing student performance. An added advantage is that the accreditation of programs enhances their transportability and international reach.

These policies are promoted through arguing that using a national set of benchmark standards for the accreditation of quality teacher education programs and assessment of teacher quality creates consistent and equivalent qualifications. The use of standards to assess initial teacher education is, however, just a *proxy* for actual teacher and teaching quality. As described by Bills et al. (2008) there are three current standards reference systems:

- Internal and largely self-referential
- Consumer-defined
- External statutory or research-based.

An internal and largely self-referential system for determining quality in initial teacher education programs relies on provider-driven measures. The universities worked to quality assurances frameworks set largely within and by the university sector. This was common in Australia until the AITSL was charged with the development of standards and accreditation of pre-service teacher education. Only in the last 5 years has the point of reference shifted to a blend of consumer-defined and external statutory referencing.

In England the use of competency and standards frameworks for accreditation began in the mid-1980s with bodies such as the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), Teacher Training Agency (TTA) and finally the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA). Initially this system of quality assurance approximated to that of consumer-defined views of quality but soon moved towards the third meaning of quality where external, normally funder-defined, expectations provide the basis of quality judgements. In this category are measures of quality which are based on judgements of graduates' teaching quality made against criteria derived from statutory and/or research-based instruments.

Compliance to external expectations is now the dominant reference system in both Australia and England. However, in 2014 this is being replaced by direct control by government in England. The TDA and GTCE were abolished. School-based teacher training is replacing university programs. In 2012–2013 the government in England selected 100 training schools from those with the 'best' academic achievement outcomes to provide an apprenticeship model of training for new entrants to teaching. In England, therefore, the main policy focus has been on building a new model linking quality assurance with funding. This policy has been successful in first aligning initial teacher training in universities to a government agenda and second in later decoupling initial teacher training and university-based teacher education. Standards and quality assurance mechanisms provide a simple mechanism of comparison – a currency – that can be used in the education market globally. The

result of this policy has been the virtual exclusion in England of higher education institutions and teacher educators from discussions on quality initial teacher training.

Recent announcements by the Australian government described earlier reflect a different policy focus – the quality of entrants to teaching. However, quality assurance is now controlled by AITSL the national body for teaching and school leadership and suggests that there is similar pressure from government to move beyond compliance to control through limiting the kind of student who can enter initial teacher education or as it is now termed in Australia – initial teacher training. Teaching and teacher quality are no longer assessed through internal and self referential systems, consumer-defined models or even compliance to program guidance.

Thus the narrative of looking now identifies a number of impacts on initial teacher education curriculum, pedagogy and assessment in Australia and England of these shifts in policy.

- The codification of teachers knowledge and skills (and values) using external statutory standards reduces the contribution of teacher educators, members of the teaching profession and employers to the nature of the curriculum, pedagogy and assessment practices in initial teacher education.
- The use of initial teacher training rather than initial teacher education in both Australia and England suggests that teaching is not now considered a profession, and increasingly provision is decoupled from the university sector.
- The price of greater consistency and transparency in the preparation of teachers is that both standards and quality assurance processes are determined by national governments, that the local is sacrificed to the global.

It appears that the change of government in England in May 2010 and in Australia in 2012 has been instrumental in the return to tight government control over determining what counts as quality in the initial preparation of teachers and ultimately a further reduction of initial teacher education within the university sector. No judgement can be made at this stage as to whether these or other new policy trajectories are likely to result in more or less quality in the future. Nor can it be forgotten that these judgements about what counts as quality are dependent on what is valued within the society and the purposes espoused for education. However, reflection on the events of the past and what is evident in the present can inform possible futures. These are now considered through six scenarios that have been created to describe possible futures.

6.4   Looking Forward: Six Scenarios for Teaching in the Future

The focus here is to look forward from the 'now' to speculate on key changes that are likely to impact on what will be expected of the teaching workforce over the next 5 years. Policy and practice scenarios are described in full in an earlier

publication (Jasman 2009). These were developed in order to 'speculate on changes to the preparation of the teaching workforce in order that they are able to work within such scenarios' (2009, 321). The following summary provides a brief overview of these scenarios for the future of education and the impact that these would have in relation to what counts as quality in initial teacher education.

6.4.1   Status Quo Scenarios: 'Bureaucratic School Systems Continue' and 'The Market Model Is Extended'

Policy directions for initial teacher education are likely to continue to focus on:

- Improving the quality of teachers through raising entry requirements;
- Reviews and change in the methods and location of teacher education and training;
- Government determination of what is expected for certification;
- Ongoing accountability for student outcomes;
- Appraisal linked to an improvement agenda;
- Teachers engaging in professional development; and
- The assessment of competence beyond initial qualification. (Jasman 2009, 329)

These scenarios describe business as usual in the first case, and in the second a change to include the other providers within education that can serve the private good alongside the public good. It is likely in this second scenario that 'initial teacher education may become less important as the market determines what kind of teaching workforce is needed' (Jasman 2009, 329). Looking at these two scenarios and evidence provided within 'Looking back' the dominant scenario emerging is that of 'extending the market model'.

6.4.2   Re-schooling Scenarios: 'Teachers as Social Carers' and 'Teachers as Knowledge Workers'

Both these scenarios focus more on the changing role of the teacher within future education systems, whether the function of education prioritizes the collective and society or individual intellectual achievement. The major impact of one scenario winning out over the other will be on the content of initial teacher education programs. Bates (2008) suggests that these scenarios might both be evident with different emphasis on social values and knowledge according the context in which the teacher and school is located..

> Education systems are frequently subject to demands to combine technical and economic innovation on the one hand with social and cultural conservation on the other. The provision and quality of teachers is .... regarded as an issue of quality: quality defined as both technical competence and socially accepted values'. (Bates 2008, 277)

On balance is likely that there will be examples of settings where the former impacts on the latter and vice versa creating a continuum. However, as will be discussed in 'Looking beyond' these scenarios take no account of the new understandings of learning, ways of working, the impact of social media and neuroscience on the work of schools. If these drivers come into play then they could radically change the way in which 'teachers' learn to undertake their role in supporting learners and manage the learning environment as well as broadening the curriculum to include social, work and collaboration skills, change pedagogies with the use of ICTs and impact on assessment to include other dimensions such as communication and interpersonal skills.

6.4.3 De-schooling Scenarios: 'Dissatisfaction and the Demise of Schools' and 'Teacher Exodus and Meltdown'

These scenarios highlight the potential for a paradigm shift and the potential destabilization of society as a result of the conflicting expectation of government, teachers and those who prepare them. The first scenario is based on the possibility of a significant failure of trust in schools and teachers. A possible trigger for such a scenario could be associated with the outcomes of the Global Financial Crisis. Consumers of education may fail to see any value in pursuing academic success as unemployment and loss of opportunity are increasingly experienced by those with degrees. Similarly the increasing access to information and knowledge through ICTs might also result in informal and other community-based learning opportunities. In both cases, education in schools led by teachers is no longer the only way in which individuals can access new knowledge and skills whether for economic or social purposes.

The second de-schooling scenario is largely based on the age profile of teachers in Australia and England, where a high proportion of highly qualified and experienced teachers will be retiring from the profession over the next 5 years. The numbers entering the profession might compensate for this decline but retention continues to be an issue with new teachers. It is estimated that around half those beginning teaching will have left within 3 years. Whilst teaching enables individuals to move from country to country to make up short falls, it is unclear as to whether the teaching workforce globally can meet the current demand for primary education let alone the specialist needs of secondary education for all.

Each scenario is in evidence to some degree within Australia and England and all will impact on the curriculum, pedagogy and assessment of initial teacher education and/or training, raising the question of what impact these possible scenarios might have on determining what counts as quality in initial teacher education.

6.5   Looking Beyond

By looking forward one major concern can be identified, that is, the potential for governments in their desire to control the agenda for schools as an economic endeavour and be accountable for expenditure on education to stop seeing education as an investment in the future and consider it a cost instead. There is also little evidence that governments are taking any account of the potential impact of significant global trends. These include the increasing pace of technological change, neuroscience, types of learning, ways of working, social media and many other factors that create 'wicked problems' that require new policy approaches that are flexible and responsive to change. It can be argued that we need to radically reconsider how best to prepare future 'teachers' not only in Australia and England but also globally. Potential drivers and/or levers identified within the western literature that may create tipping points in the future of initial teacher education include:

- Acceleration in the development of digital devices that can impact on access to, effectiveness and efficiency of learning and the exponential expansion of knowledge within education both theoretically and practically.
- Changing the nature of teaching through new understandings of how we learn, how the brain works including the idea of neuro-plasticity and understandings from neuroscience.
- The position and role of professionals within market economies and changing governance structures.
- Initiatives to increase participation in Higher Education whilst at the same time moving to a user pays system with reduced public funding.
- The nature of knowledge – disciplines, new fields of research, processes, 'wicked' problems, chaos and complexity.
- The range of expertise needed, specialisation and/or a generalist/interdisciplinary expertise.

The impact of this accelerating pace of change within Information and Communications Technologies is clearly being felt at three levels with regard to initial teacher education, first the provision of appropriate learning experiences within ITE programs, the capacity of existing initial teacher education lecturers to model and extend the students engagement with ICT in the classroom, and third, assuring that graduates from ITE programs have a range of skills not only in the use of ICTs for their own activities but also to incorporate relevant ICTs to enhance the learning skills of their students.

The role of the teacher is now being seen as knowing how to access and make sense of information to construct meaning and new knowledge. In the context of compulsory schooling their role is focussed on preparing students for assessments that are used to judge the quality of 'education' they have received. This move away from general education to training for the test could reasonably be expected to deregulate and/or de-professionalise initial teacher education so that 'teacher' is no longer recognised as a role where one individual provides the learning experiences

for those groups of children and young people currently learning in compulsory education settings. This driver is already impacting on the engagement of students in undergraduate courses. However, the impact is less evident on the practices of teachers in schools. There are also huge opportunities for education to move outside of dependence on government in order to reduce the control being exerted upon it. This is already happening through social media, networking and other online activity where access to information is not limited to those in education systems.

Another trend relates to the desire for both deregulation and regulation of professional groups, shifting from the control of the professions by the professions to direct government control over the work of professional groups including teachers, the curriculum and the assessment of achievement. Another potential area of policy development may result from the shifting understanding of what counts as knowledge, and the new paradigms for learning to meet twenty-first century knowledge worker needs. This is a significant consideration when suggesting a curriculum, pedagogy or assessment regime for quality initial teacher education. It may be that there is less interest in the subject and disciplinary knowledge which drove the curriculum within teacher education in the 1900s and perhaps a reluctance to contemplate alternative ways of constructing curriculum, pedagogy and assessment in initial teacher education.

It is possible that the blurring of the traditional boundaries will result in greater emphasis on interdisciplinary and team based approaches to complex problems such as providing appropriate learning experiences, that there may be more specialisation to enhance the capacity of a team. It may be that there is greater commonality in the early stages of professional formation programs leading to greater understanding between the professions of nursing, medicine, psychology, business, accountancy, management, teaching, law etc.

Specialisation may well develop within the workplace, through recognition of embedded opportunities for life-long learning. It is likely that if the nature of learning to be a professional practitioner changes, then this will have a significant impact on the nature of quality initial teacher education. The professions may also be confronted by similar policy issues rather than there being distinct differences between different professional groups. This discussion can therefore be placed within the wider context of political and economic impacts on professional preparation and the increasing demands placed on initial teacher educators and other professional education providers by multiple stakeholder groups.

However, whilst this discussion focuses on teachers, teaching and possible future policy directions, it is salutary to remember that unanticipated change in the 'big picture' such as the development of the ipad and other mobile technologies, the Global Financial Crisis, events arising through human impacts on the environment can produce an unforeseeable future. Similarly there is potential for perspectives from the 'West' and the 'East' contributing to a new focus on what counts as quality in initial teacher education. Certainly as I reflect on the Western policy environment over the last 10 years I am surprised by the pace of change, the control now exercised by governments over education, in particular what counts as quality in initial teacher education as well as the nature of teaching and the changing role of teachers.

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Chapter 7
The Need for Stakeholder Alignment on the Future of Teacher Education in Australia

Brian J. Caldwell

7.1 Introduction

Issues related to the quality of teaching are shaping debates about initial teacher education in Australia. Robust discourse is concerned in particular with the criteria for selection of applicants to programs in initial teacher education, all of which are offered by universities; the content of courses for pre-service teachers; partnerships with schools as they relate to the practicum; and the knowledge and skills of pre-service teachers on graduation.

These debates are largely driven by the results of national and international tests of student achievement: the National Assessment Plan – Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) and the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), respectively. In Australia every student in years 3, 5, 7 and 9 must participate in the annual NAPLAN and overall results for each state have flat-lined since the tests were first administered. Australia's performance in PISA, while at the top end in international comparisons, has declined in recent years, in absolute terms and in relationship to other countries. For each test, there are noteworthy disparities in the performance of students in different settings and for different demographics: rural and urban, low and high SES (socio-economic status), and Indigenous (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander) and non-Indigenous. While just above the mean among nations participating in PISA, there is general concern about equity. These factors have resulted in a consistent call for improvements in the quality of initial teacher education and ongoing professional learning. There is considerable debate among stakeholders about cause and effect and the extent to which there is a need for significant reform.

The starting point in the chapter is a summary of the constitutional and funding arrangements for initial teacher education and a brief history of developments since

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1850. Descriptions of notable developments and critical issues are then presented, organized as follows:

Issue 1: Selection of students
Issue 2: Employment of graduates
Issue 3: Professional standards
Issue 4: Partnerships
Issue 5: Policy milieu
Issue 6: Leadership

General patterns for the country as a whole are described. Illustrations from different states and universities are provided. It is concluded that there must be stronger alignment of policy and practice among different stakeholders including universities, governments and a range of institutions and organizations in the public and private sectors, shaped by a common view of what constitutes quality in schooling and quality in teaching.

7.2   Constitutional and Funding Arrangements

Under Australia's constitution of 1901, certain powers were explicitly assigned to the federal government and education was not included in the list. Powers in other matters including education in which the states were already engaged were maintained at the state level. Expressed another way, education, which had hitherto been the responsibility of the states, was not assigned to the federal government at the time of federation; it continued as a state responsibility (references to states in this chapter also include the two territories: Australian Capital Territory and Northern Territory). However, the federal government has a major role in education because of Section 96 of the constitution, which permits it to grant money to any state under whatever terms and conditions are mutually agreed. There is agreement between the two levels of government that public funds for universities, the sole providers of initial teacher education, are delivered by the federal government, and that it shall work directly with universities in their distribution. Funds to support the professional learning of teachers are provided by both levels of government and, for the federal contribution, the nature and level of support are established in partnership agreements with states and authorities representing Catholic and independent schools.

7.3   Brief History

Teacher education in Australia has evolved from an 'apprenticeship system' in which new teachers learned from experienced teachers. This predominantly practice-based model was gradually replaced by learning in teachers' colleges

dating from 1850. The focus was more on practice than theory, with teaching being viewed as a craft to be learned. Most teaching was still done by 'pupil teachers' recruited from among promising 13–14 year old pupils on the recommendation of the head teacher (Aspland 2006, p. 145). Not until the 1920s did teachers' colleges begin to dominate the supply of teachers in schools.

Securing an optimal balance of theory and practice in teacher education and, in particular, between university study and classroom practice in schools, has almost gone full circle. Leaving aside the early history (pre-1920s), throughout much of the twentieth century there was a tension between the university system, viewed by some as elite, and the teachers' colleges, which were sometimes viewed as part of a second-tier system. During the long period when teachers' colleges were the dominant agency, the curriculum was largely driven by school syllabus requirements of the state in which they operated, albeit with some attention to psychology and learning theory (Aspland 2006).

After a period in which most teachers' colleges became part of colleges of advanced education, by the 1990s the integration of teachers' colleges into universities was complete. What the new integrated regime required was that teacher education programs had to satisfy four criteria: 'the rigor of university accreditation processes, the regulations of the teacher regulation authorities, the demands of a teaching profession under threat, and the outcomes of increasing research into education' (Aspland 2006, p. 152).

According to the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL), a federally-funded body owned by and the federal minister for education, by 2012 prospective students had over 400 accredited programs from which to choose, offered by 48 providers across a wide range of locations, and in a number of delivery modes (AITSL 2013, p. 8). A significant trend over the last two decades has been a change in profile of those entering initial teacher education programs. Formerly a majority of students entered directly from secondary school; now only about one-quarter do so. The majority has a first degree in another field of study, or are graduates who have been working for some time and have decided to become teachers.

7.4 Issue 1: Selection of Students

Universities have a high level of autonomy in the selection of students who apply to different universities after they complete their secondary education. An important selection criterion is the applicant's ATAR (Australian Tertiary Admission Rank) based on performance at the end of secondary schooling. The ATAR is a number between 0.00 and 99.95 with increments of 0.05. An ATAR of 80.00 indicates that a student is in the top 20 % of his or her age group. In Queensland, rather than an ATAR, an OP (Overall Position) is calculated, being a number from 1 (high) to 25 (low) that indicates a Queensland student's rank order position based on achievement at the end of secondary schooling.

Successful applicants in high-demand universities, mainly research-intensive institutions in large capital cities such as the University of Melbourne, the University of Queensland and the University of Sydney, typically have a high ranking. Applicants at other universities, especially those in regional locations, may have a much lower ranking.

There was a significant change in funding arrangements under the federal government from 2010. Previously it would only fund a certain number of places in the various fields of studies (in reality a subsidy since there is a student contribution). Universities wishing to accept more applicants than subsidized would require the additional students to pay the full cost. Under current arrangements, universities may accept as many qualified applicants as they wish. The effect is that some universities accept applications from students with relatively low rankings in ATAR or OP, and these have been even lower than in the past in some universities, especially those that are dependent on initial teacher education for a substantial part of their revenue.

Illustrating the issue is the range of applications for initial teacher education in Queensland compared to applications for entry in other fields, as reported by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) (2010). Relatively few with a high OP apply to enter education (7 %) compared to other fields (25 %). At the lower end, 21 % apply to enter education compared to 14 % in other fields. Students in the bottom 8 % of OP scores were accepted by some universities in 2014.

The debate has become one of whether prior achievement before entering university is a valid indicator of subsequent capacity to teach well. Some cite evidence that it is not, emphasizing that it is what capacities graduates can demonstrate rather than what they enter with. Others argue that the context has changed in that the profession is more demanding than ever, given expectations to secure success for all students or at least close the gap in achievement of students with different characteristics, as described at the outset, and thereby improve Australia's performance on international tests. No Australian evidence could be found to confirm the predictive relationship between results at the end of secondary schooling and teacher effectiveness after graduation.

Marks (2007) reported a study of the relationship between prior learning and subsequent performance in university studies in Victoria. He found that the strongest influence on university course completion is the students' Year 12 Equivalent National Tertiary Education Rank (ENTER) (ENTER was the acronym before 2009 for what is now ATAR). He analyzed longitudinal data for over 22,000 students who were in Year 9 in 1995, and entered university in the years from 1998 to 2001. He investigated the predictive nature of ENTER score, school sector, gender, language background, Indigenous status, and parental employment and educational level on completion of university. He found that an increase in ENTER improved the odds of course completion. This improvement did not show significant variability across all fields of study, including education. He suggested that' further expansion of university participation could increase course non-completion if expansion meant more students with lower ENTER scores (Marks 2007, p. 28). More significantly, as events have proven, expansion in terms of numbers of students has led to the

admission of leavers from secondary school with relatively low levels of academic achievement without change in the rate of graduation in teacher education.

There is strong resistance within and among universities to setting a minimum ATAR or OP for entry from secondary school. For example, a review of teacher education in Queensland co-directed by the author, recommended that direct entry to a bachelor of education degree on the basis of an OP score require a score of 12 or better. In exceptional circumstances a lower OP score might be accepted on the basis of demonstrated capacity/potential, including interviews and in some instances performance (in music, for example) (Caldwell and Sutton 2010, p. 2). This recommendation was not adopted at any level – state government, professional institute/association or university.

Rather than rely on an ATAR or OP, the focus has shifted to levels of performance in particular subjects in senior secondary and to results in tests of literacy and numeracy before or after graduation, as illustrated in New South Wales:

> In NSW, we now require school-leaver entrants to Initial Teacher Education courses to have achieved at least three band 5 results (80 % or higher) in their senior secondary results, with one of these results required to be in English. Initial Teacher Education students must then pass a numeracy and literacy assessment before being approved for their final-year practicum placement in schools, because there is a strong body of international research that shows the correlation between strong literacy and numeracy skills and teacher effectiveness. (Piccoli 2014, p. 3)

7.5   Issue 2: Employment of Graduates

Significant numbers of graduates do not secure a full-time teaching appointment, as reported by the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL). National data indicate that:

- For 2011 primary [elementary] teaching graduates 14 % were not working, 55 % were working full-time and 31 % part-time. For 2011 secondary teaching graduates 16 % were not working, 56 % were working full-time and 28 % part-time.
- For primary teaching graduates, 14 % of those employed in either a part- or full-time capacity were not working in a school. For secondary graduates, 13 % of those employed in either a part- or full-time capacity were not working in a school.
- Of the percentages of primary and secondary teaching graduates who were working full-time, 93 % and 92 % respectively, were working in schools (AITSL 2013 p. 8).

Applications and appointments for graduates in Queensland (Department of Education and Training 2010) illustrate a general pattern across the country. In 2010, 65 % of 4,104 graduates from Queensland universities applied for a position with the Department of Education and Training which employs teachers in public schools. Only 9.5 % received a permanent appointment while 32.0 % secured a temporary

appointment only. Expressed another way, nearly 60 % of graduates who applied did not receive an appointment of any kind. While this phenomenon is general across the country there is a shortage of teachers of mathematics and science at the secondary level in many schools and difficulty in attracting staff to remote locations.

7.5.1 Early Career Teachers

The Staff in Australia's Schools (SiAS) survey was conducted by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) in 2007 and 2010 and reported by McKenzie et al. (2011). The 2010 survey contained responses from 4,599 primary teachers and 10,876 secondary teachers. Early Career Teachers (ECTs) were categorized as having had less than 5 years' teaching experience. The remote schools category had the highest proportions of ECTs. Thirty percent of primary teachers and 24 % of secondary teachers were classified as ECTs in remote schools compared with 25 % of primary and 19.5 % of secondary ECTs in metropolitan schools. Similar disparities were identified in percentages of teaching staff classified as ECTs according to school socio-economic status (SES). A total of 27.7 % of primary and 23.9 % of secondary were ECTs in low SES schools compared with 23.8 % primary and 17.9 % secondary ECTs in high SES schools.

The literature is consistent in the view that the start of a teaching career is often a challenging transition from pre-service training to the practical day-to-day realities of classrooms and schools. Turns of phrase such as 'emotional rollercoaster' (Clark 2012), 'sink or swim' (Lawson cited in Clark 2012) and 'baptism of fire' (Hall, Pataniczek and Isaacs cited in Clark 2012) illustrate how overwhelming this experience can be.

In Australia, Plunkett and Dyson (2011) found from their 3-year longitudinal study of 102 teaching graduates that, in the early stages of their career, many did not feel a sense of belonging to the profession or their school, and that they did not see themselves as 'complete' in the role of teacher. In these initial years the development of teacher identity and efficacy is a fragile process and significantly impacts on teacher retention (Buchanan et al. 2013; Manuel 2003).

Challenges in developing this identity and sense of efficacy can be exacerbated in disadvantaged contexts for several reasons. ECTs that relocate to rural or remote communities have the additional trials of assimilating with new cultural and social contexts (Adie and Barton 2012). Schuck et al. (2011) conducted a 5-year research project commissioned by the NSW Department of Education which tracked a cohort of ECTs working in public schools. They described the way in which challenging teaching experiences can interfere with development of teacher identity.

> ECTs, when they begin, are not yet complete, able, independent teachers. Most have some weaknesses that are exposed and the more challenging their teaching situation is the more likely it is that they will find it difficult to experience the sense of personal achievement that teaching can bring. (Schuck et al. 2011, p. 90)

These challenges can be considerably more demanding and time-consuming in disadvantaged settings:

[B]eginning teachers are frequently placed in challenging schools where there are high levels of sociocultural disadvantage and inadequate social and material resources, often resulting in a range of issues related to discipline, student welfare, and – either alone or in combination – social, emotional or learning difficulties . . . . Care and support agencies in these communities have often been limited or retracted, and local schools frequently find themselves endeavoring to deal with such voids. . . . These factors add another dimension to the many trials that face teachers. (Ferfolja 2008, p. 242)

7.5.2 Distribution of Appointments According to Location of Universities

A related issue that has the potential to impact on the quality of teaching is where appointees from particular universities are employed. In Victoria, for example, eight universities offer courses in initial teacher education. There are important differences between metropolitan and non-metropolitan patterns (reported in DEECD 2012, p. 56). All but one of the eight universities has a campus in metropolitan Melbourne where most of their graduates gain appointments. In non-metropolitan regions, the largest provider is a university that has a campus in the region. For example, La Trobe University has a campus in the Loddon Mallee and Hume regions, providing 52.2 % and 33.8 % of graduate appointments, respectively. Deakin is the major provider through its campus in Barwon South-West. It is similarly the case for the major providers in Grampians and Gippsland regions.

These patterns do not apply for two of the eight universities offering initial teacher education in Victoria. Most graduates of Australian Catholic University are employed in Catholic schools. The University of Melbourne is in high demand and offers graduate programs only. Only 14.6 % of its graduates are employed in non-metropolitan regions.

These patterns reflect the tendency of non-metropolitan applicants to gain entry to initial teacher education in their closest university, where ATAR scores tend to be relatively low, and many of the graduates of these universities are subsequently appointed to public schools in these regions. Given the disparity in achievement between students in metropolitan and non-metropolitan regions reported earlier, an important but contentious issue is the relationship between quality of graduates and this disparity.

7.6 Issue 3: Professional Standards

7.6.1 National Professional Standards for Teachers

The Australian Professional Standards for Teachers were developed by the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) in 2011 and approved by all ministers for education (federal, state and territory) (AITSL 2011a).

This was the culmination of more than two decades of advocacy and effort. There was extensive consultation with councils of deans of education and scholars with particular knowledge, experience and views on professional standards. The standards were under review at the time of writing.

There are seven standards: (1) Know students and how they learn; (2) Know the content and how to teach it, (3) Plan for and implement effective teaching and learning; (4) Create and maintain supportive and safe learning; (5) Assess, provide feedback and report on student learning; (6) Engage in professional learning; and (7) Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community. Each standard has a number of 'focus areas' and there are 38 of these across the seven standards. These standards and each focus area are further specified in four career stages: Graduate, Proficient, Highly accomplished and Lead. There are therefore 38 specifications for what a graduate teacher should know, understand and do.

7.6.2   Accreditation and Re-accreditation of Courses in Initial Teacher Education

A second document was prepared by AITSL in consultation with key stakeholders, including councils of deans of education, and subsequently approved by all ministers for education. *Accreditation of Initial Teacher Education Programs in Australia: Standards and Procedures* (AITSL 2011b) is intended to describe the shared commitment of the teaching profession, teacher educators, employers of teachers, schools and the education community more broadly to ensuring that entrants to teaching are of the highest quality. This means that graduates have the professional knowledge and skills necessary to build highly productive professional practice and that their developing professional expertise is recognized and fostered.

> These Standards and Procedures reflect high expectations of initial teacher education. The stakeholders are united in their belief that the teaching profession and the Australian community deserve nothing less. There is an expectation that those entering teaching will be a diverse group of highly literate and numerate individuals with a professional platform from which to develop as high quality teachers. (AITSL 2011b, p. 1)

Accreditation under the AITSL protocol occurs whenever a new course is to be introduced. Re-accreditation occurs when current accreditation expires. AITSL works with authorities in each state to conduct the process.

7.7   Issue 4: Partnerships

7.7.1   Partnership with Schools

The National Program Standards for Accreditation of initial teacher education include several related to partnerships with schools, each of which must be demonstrated by providers seeking initial accreditation or re-accreditation. Standard 5 sets

out the expectations for the relationships between providers and schools as follows (excerpts from AITSL 2011b, pp. 15–16):

- Providers have established enduring school partnerships to deliver their programs, particularly the professional experience component.
- The professional experience component of each program must include no fewer than 80 days of well-structured, supervised and assessed teaching practice in schools in undergraduate and double-degree teacher education programs and no fewer than 60 days in graduate entry programs.
- Providers describe in detail the elements of the relationship between the provider and the schools, the nature and length of professional experience placements, the components of the placement including the planned experiences and related assessment criteria and methods, and the supervisory and professional support arrangements.
- Providers and their school partners ensure that teachers supervising professional experience (in particular the supervised teaching practice) are suitably qualified and registered. They should have expertise and be supported in coaching and mentoring, and in making judgments about whether students have achieved the Graduate Teacher Standards.

A concern across the country is the difficulty of securing placements for pre-service teachers in the practicum. For example, there has been a large increase in enrolments in initial teacher education in Victoria and it is becoming increasingly difficult to arrange placements, as illustrated in information reported by the National Association of Field Experience Administrators (NAFEA). NAFEA described the situation in the following terms: 'Unprecedented rejections of placement requests from schools, delayed placement starts and regular inability to provide method area experiences for students enrolled in secondary programs are pointing more clearly than ever before to a crisis in professional experience provision across the state' (NAFEA 2013, p. 1). NAFEA identified factors that led to the 'crisis':

- Increasing numbers of pre-service student teachers
- Increasing numbers of teacher education courses from existing providers
- The arrival of new teacher education providers
- The broadening of professional experience providers/structures within and across units, and
- A finite number of schools available with fewer teachers willing to host pre-service teachers (National Association of Field Experience Administrators 2013, p. 1).

These difficulties were recognized by the Productivity Commission (2012), cited in a report on teacher supply and demand in Victoria (DEECD 2012). Factors on the demand side were 'expected strong growth in [school] student numbers; a more complex and demanding teaching environment; and increased competition for teaching resources, especially from the early childhood sector'. On the supply side

were 'an expected upsurge in age-related retirements; the lower average "entry quality" of those seeking to become teachers; availability of practicum; ongoing imbalances in workforce demand and supply; and often limited workforce mobility, especially between urban and rural and remote areas' (DEECD 2012, p. 6). The 2007 *Top of the Class* report of the national inquiry into teacher education recommended that school and university partnerships be supported and funded (House of Representatives 2007).

The School of Education at the University of South Australia provides an example of partnerships in regional locations. It implemented a 3-year initiative that has seen pre-service teachers from the Master of Teaching program participate in a regional placement program which assists pre-service teachers connect with schools in regional locations and make connections with mentor teachers.

Partnerships offer opportunities to support early career teachers through in-service professional learning programs. The *Fair Go Project* (Munns et al. 2008) exemplified such opportunities in disadvantaged schools. This joint project of the University of Western Sydney and the NSW Department of Education and Training through its Priority Schools Program worked with teachers in disadvantaged settings to implement a classroom intervention approach that aimed to increase student engagement through changes to teachers' pedagogy.

Partnerships of the kind described above are noteworthy but there appears to be no systematic approach to design and delivery across the country. A promising development in Victoria is state-wide in scope, addressing several of the issues described earlier in the chapter and involving many schools and universities. In 2013 the Department of Education and Early Childhood Development announced plans to establish 12 Teaching Academies of Professional Practice to provide training and incentives for supervising teachers, better induction and more support for in-school placements in regional locations. 'Each Academy will act as a centre of activity within a school cluster. Each will consist of a leading school, a network of other schools and at least one university' (DEECD 2013, p. 12).

The University of Melbourne provides a model of how the approach will operate. The Master of Teaching (M Teach) is a 2-year postgraduate qualification which follows a first degree in another field, meaning that graduates of the M Teach have 5 years of university study. It is described as a clinical master's. It involves partnerships with designated schools, each of which has a Teaching Fellow who works with a University Clinical Specialist. Students spend 2 days per week in schools and 3 days per week at the University throughout the year for each of the 2 years. The partner schools have the characteristics of 'teaching hospitals'. These arrangements follow a far-reaching change across the university over the last decade. Almost all students preparing for the professions now undertake a first degree, with professional preparation moving almost entirely to the postgraduate level. Double degrees and hundreds of courses across the University were abandoned. The Faculty of Education was re-named the Graduate School of Education.

7.7.2 Partnerships with the Corporate, Philanthropic and Not-for-Profit Sectors

Engagement of schools with the corporate, philanthropic and not-for-profit sectors is more extensive than generally realized but few universities have established partnerships that reflect the phenomenon. One of the largest partnerships in financial terms is between Queensland University of Technology and the Origin Foundation (Origin is an energy distribution company). The foundation committed $2 million over 3.5 years to support the scaling up of the QUT Exceptional Teachers for Disadvantaged Schools (ETDS) program. ETDS is intended to create a pathway for outstanding pre-service students to graduate and work in low SES schools. It was in its fourth year in 2013. About 90 % of about 60 graduates are employed in low SES schools.

QUT is working with Social Ventures Australia, a not-for-profit organization, to explore ways to bring the program to scale across the country. The core components of the strategy are (1) the scaling of ETDS to six Faculties/Schools of Education over 3.5 years, graduating up to 210 new high-achieving highly-prepared teachers, (2) the continued development of the QUT 'flagship' ETDS program, and (3) the development of a learning and sharing network that emphasizes long-term research and impact assessment across the network.

Another significant partnership was established in 2009 when the Sydney Myer Fund and the Myer Foundation Commemorative Grants Program awarded Flinders University in Adelaide, South Australia $1 million over 5 years to establish the Sidney Myer Chair of Rural Education and Communities to address inequalities in educational opportunities for rural and remotely located young Australians. The Flinders Rural and Remote Education Research Group (FRRERG) was established with achievements from 2010 to 2012 including the mapping of young people in rural communities in South Australia; contributing to the development of an Australian Curriculum with an eye to implementation in rural communities; national mapping of rural, regional and remote educational leaders; a study of educational infrastructure in rural communities; and mentoring of students in rural areas with a view to their enrolment in universities.

7.8 Issue 5: Policy Milieu

One way to frame developments in teacher education in Australia is to place them in the broader milieu of policy in education. The factors underlying concerns about the quality of teaching were described at the start of the chapter as these related to the performance of school students on national and international tests and large gaps in that performance among different demographic classifications. Associated with these concerns has been the emergence of a more robust national framework than has been the case in the past, with agreements between federal and state governments on
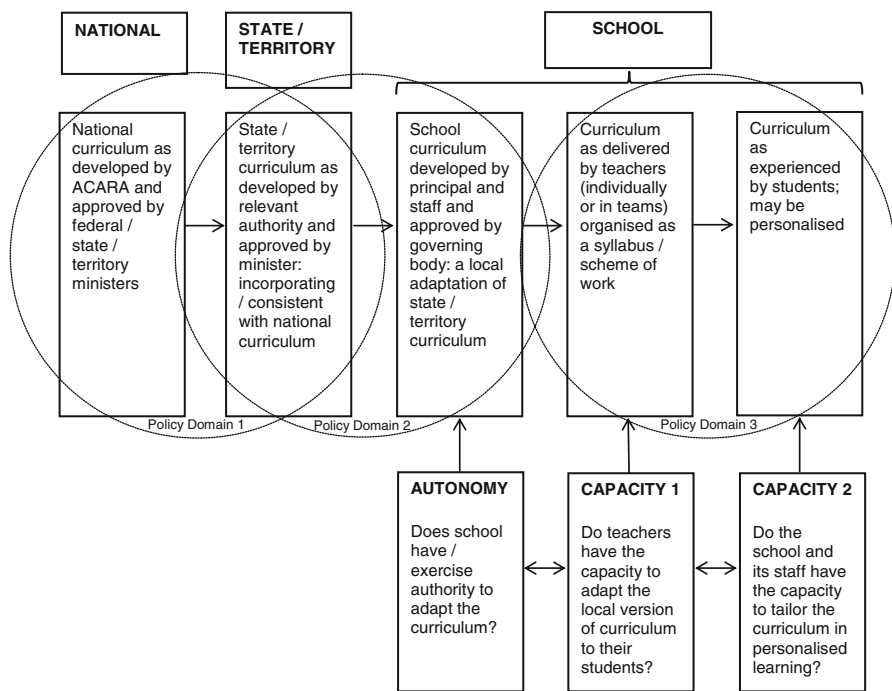
Fig. 7.1 The policy milieu in initial teacher education illustrated in arrangements for curriculum

a range of reforms, including the establishment of the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) and the Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL), with the former taking the lead on developing a national curriculum and conducting national tests (NAPLAN) and the latter the preparation of national professional standards for teachers and the accreditation of initial teacher education, as described earlier.

Figure 7.1 illustrates the policy milieu in the area of curriculum that has important implications for initial teacher education. A national curriculum has been developed which is adapted by state authorities, given that the states have responsibility for schools. There is further adaptation at the local level framed to some extent by initiatives to increase the autonomy of public schools (private schools already have a relatively high degree of autonomy). There is further adaptation by the teacher, even to the extent of personalizing the learning experience. Figure 7.1 identifies the three policy domains – (1) nation to state, (2) state to school and (3) school to classroom – and illustrates how policy in teacher education should be aligned with policy in matters related to curriculum, pedagogy and assessment; roles of different levels of government; and school autonomy.

The role of the teacher is critical if levels of achievement are to be raised in different settings for different kinds of students, and many of the developments in initial teacher education and professional learning are focused on building their

capacities. As described earlier, the accreditation and re-accreditation of courses depends on universities being able to demonstrate that their courses will build these capacities and that their graduates possess them. While there has been no comprehensive study of the extent of these developments it is the view of the author that universities are responding.

There is understandably ongoing debate about the efficacy of these developments as they relate to the balance of attention that should be given to the instrumental or vocational and to the generic or critical. Michael Spence, Vice-Chancellor and President of the University of Sydney, whose program in initial teacher education is, like that at the University of Melbourne, now entirely a graduate program, summarized the issues as follows:

> Universities must be allowed to fulfill their responsibilities as educators and be held to account by the appropriate accreditors and regulators for the quality of their graduate learning outcomes. At the same time, governments and all other employers of classroom teachers need to take responsibility for ensuring they recruit the most talented teachers, and make the profession rewarding enough to retain them. (Spence 2014)

Spence also drew attention to the generic skills that 'good teacher education and other university programs develop, and this is why governments need to think carefully about enrolment caps on any particular type of university course'. His caution is understandable but should be balanced by the current over-supply of teachers, in his own state as elsewhere.

7.9   Issue 6: Leadership

Research at the turn of the twenty-first century identified four key drivers of change in universities around the world: globalism, multiculturalism, virtualization and politicization (Inayatullah and Gidley 2000). These drivers have intensified and new drivers have emerged including the tension between elite institutions and mass higher education; quality, diversity and social inclusion in higher education; the global knowledge economy and the corporatization of higher education; the internet, ICT and the information era; and 'new knowledge' versus new ways of thinking and systems of knowledge (Gidley 2012).

Initial teacher education is driven to some extent by these same forces but many of the issues described in this chapter lie very much in the present, and it is understandable that the response of some providers has been reactive rather than proactive, and occasionally defensive. The mix of future-focus and preoccupation with the present is apparent in Aspland's account: 'Public interest in pre-service teacher education programs in Australia has been prompted by many factors such as current school reform literature; technological change; issues of globalization; the predicted crisis in teacher supply; the intensification of teachers' work; changing pedagogies; and new education organizational structure (Aspland 2006: 140)'.

It may be that providers of initial teacher education need to take the lead to a greater extent than they do at present. This means being more outward-facing and futures-focused along the lines of but extending an initiative at Deakin University that has established the Centre for Educational Futures and Innovation. Its aims include building new knowledge about how best to educate diverse learners for the future; and responding to wide-ranging social, economic and technological changes of the twenty-first century. The best scholars in teacher education are well-connected globally and are on top of developments in their fields of specialization. The challenge is for universities across Australia to ensure a much stronger institutional response.

It is fair to ask if faculties of education that teach about 'disruptive innovation', as in the dramatic changes in technology and their impact on learning and teaching, are themselves able to respond in an institutional sense. A similar issue was raised in *The Economist* in relation to business schools in the United States ('Business schools are better at analyzing disruptive innovation than at dealing with it') (The Economist 2014a, p. 58) and more generally in universities in response to MOOCS ('The rise of online instruction will upend the economics of higher education') (The Economist 2014b: p. 66).

As a starting point there is a need for research on how universities are responding in teacher education. This was highlighted in a report of the Productivity Commission of the Australian Government that reported on the status of the workforce in school education: 'It is therefore a high priority to build the evidence base on what approaches work best through trialling and evaluation of different modes of delivery, and better tracking of the impacts of training on the subsequent performance of teachers' (Productivity Commission 2012, p. 119). More significantly, there is a need for research on how providers of initial teacher education are anticipating what lies ahead and positioning themselves for a future role that may differ in far-reaching ways from the way they currently operate.

7.10   Conclusion

While quality in teaching drives much of the discourse about initial teacher education in Australia, it is fair to say that many of the issues raised in this chapter lie to a large extent outside the control of providers. The recent rapid growth in the numbers of students seeking entry has been shaped to some extent by policies of the federal government aimed at increasing opportunities for university study. The 'cap' on federally-funded places has been lifted. It is understandable that universities seek to maximize their enrolments and hence their revenue in difficult financial times. The uneven distribution of applicants as far as their field of intended specialization is the result of other factors, illustrated in the shortage of graduates for teaching in mathematics and science. The fact that graduates tend to secure employment in regional areas in which their universities are located is similarly determined by other factors.

In the same fashion, the forces for change lie outside the universities as governments respond to Australia's declining performance on national and international tests including disparities in achievement among different demographic classifications. A call for initial teacher education to be more like Finland and other high-performing nations draws a positive but qualified response as differences in culture are taken into account.

On balance, it is concluded that there must be stronger alignment of policy and practice among different stakeholders including universities, governments and a range of institutions and organizations in the public and private sectors, shaped by a common view of what constitutes quality in schooling and quality in teaching, now and in the years ahead. Australia looks with envy at other nations that appear to have such a view and a vision of what lies ahead.

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Part II
Innovative and Effective Curriculum, Teaching and Assessment Practices of Teacher Education

Chapter 8
Different Modes of Field Experience in Teacher Education Programmes

May May-Hung Cheng and John Chi-Kin Lee

8.1 Introduction

Field Experience (FE) is the key component in teacher education programmes and is found to be the most important component in these programmes. There are arguments as to whether a practice and theory gap exists or if it is created due to the way teacher education programmes are organized. This then leads to the question of how FE components should be organized in teacher education programmes or if in fact teacher education should be mainly school-based (McIntyre 2009). To approach this question, this chapter starts with a comparison or overview of how FE components or teacher education programmes are organized in different parts of the world. The literature suggests that both university-based and school-based teacher education are not without their problems. Taking an Asian perspective where there are university-based teacher education programmes with structured FE blocks in schools, we examine the issues related to school-based FE blocks, and propose ways to achieve better integration between the university-based courses and the school-based FE blocks. Apart from examining the present practice in university-led teacher education programmes in Asian and other contexts, this chapter looks into the future by summarizing recent innovations relevant to the FE component.

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8.2 Bridging the Theory and Practice Gap in Teacher Education Programmes

When there are university-based courses in a teacher education programme with blocks of FE in schools, a gap between the theoretical knowledge taught in teacher education programmes and the practical aspects of teaching in schools is commonly reported (Dodds 1989). To minimize the gap, FE blocks should provide a context for student-teachers to integrate theoretical knowledge with teaching practice by observing how teaching is conducted in classrooms, participating in the classroom teaching, and reflecting on what is learnt in university-based courses (Ohana 2004; Varma and Hanuscin 2008). More recently, DeLuca (2012), hearing from research participants, claimed that FE blocks provide student-teachers with an opportunity to see how different theoretical concepts manifest themselves in practice and to realize the 'reality' in school environments. Related to the learning outcome of the FE component, Buck et al. (2010) recently claimed that in FE student-teachers are expected to "connect, integrate, and reconcile theory acquired in various aspects of their preparations programs" (p. 404). Roehrig and Luft (2006) conducted in-depth case studies of 16 beginning teachers and found that those who were exposed to prolonged FE blocks as well as taking science method courses were more likely to develop a student-centred belief of teaching and learning. Teachers who have a student-centred belief are then more likely to implement inquiry-oriented approaches to teaching science that are advocated by an international trend of education reform (Roehrig and Luft 2006).

Researchers argue that despite placing student-teachers in school contexts, the theory/practice gap is not totally surmountable. Critics of the school-based FE components argue that it should not be assumed that student-teachers can automatically benefit from being exposed to FE blocks in schools (Guyton and McIntyre 1990) because the pedagogical practice in a school can differ considerably from constructivist pedagogy underpinned by contemporary learning theories which university-based courses aim to promote (McDuffie et al. 2003). Bullough (1991) came to the conclusion that arranging student-teachers to teach in blocks of FE in schools may not support student-teachers to envisage an effective pedagogy which is taught in university-based courses. A main form of support from the schools comes from the mentor teachers. There is evidence that such support may vary. DeLuca (2012) noted that how much a student-teacher can learn from FE varies considerably, and that it mostly hinges on the quality of the mentor teachers. The quality of support varies between individuals and depends on the mentor teachers' understanding of pedagogical approaches. Crawford (2007) found that although five mentor teachers were from the same school as well as the same professional development programme, they differed in their design and implementation of inquiry-oriented approaches. Bhattacharyya et al. (2009) claimed that some mentor teachers failed to provide guidance for student-teachers to use inquiry-oriented approaches. Moreover, student-teachers may not be able to implement their learning from university-based courses to school contexts or to transfer their learning from one school context to

another. For example, Varma and Hanuscin (2008) reported that student-teachers who were exposed to different pedagogical strategies in classrooms of special education were not able to transfer these strategies to traditional classrooms.

Despite the FE component having a central position in teacher education programmes, findings of the effectiveness of FE blocks in a school have been equivocal. There is increased attention to student-teachers' meaningful interactions with university supervisors and mentor teachers during FE. This has led to a wave of university-school partnerships and teacher education reforms to integrate university-based courses with FE components in schools across different parts of the world.

8.3 The Positioning of FE in Asian and Other Contexts

Although the design of teacher education programmes differs across developed countries, they all require student-teachers to engage in a certain period of FE components before graduation. Wang, Coleman, Coley, Phelps, and the Educational Testing Service (2003) conducted a large-scale survey and found that the duration of FE ranges from 3 to 4 weeks in Japan, 4–6 in Korea, and 48–72 in the Netherlands. England requires at least 24 weeks, Australia 16 weeks, the United States 12 weeks, and Singapore 10 weeks (Wang et al. 2003). In Hong Kong, four higher education institutions provide a 1-year Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) programme for university graduates as well as 5 year Bachelor degree teacher education programmes for secondary school graduates who intend to be teachers in Hong Kong. The 1-year PGDE programmes include 8- to 12-week-long FE blocks in a school. Apart from the duration, how supervision and evaluation of student-teachers' performance in FE are conducted also differ across countries (Wang et al. 2003). The differences mainly depend on the institutional relationship between the host school and the university. Cohen et al. (2013) conducted a review of 113 empirical studies and identified 3 institutional relations. One shows the characteristics of a traditional relationship between a host school and a university while the other two reflect the characteristics of university-school partnership arrangements.

Under the traditional type of institutional relationship, a host school has the autonomy to design and implement FE blocks within its practical constraints (Cohen et al. 2013). Zeichner (2010) claimed that this type of arrangement has been prevalent for many years, whereby a host school is mainly responsible for providing a context for student-teachers to try out their teaching, without having much connection with a university. To enhance the connection between host schools and universities, there has been an upsurge in university-school partnerships. Although these partnerships can take many different forms, their arrangements can be characterized by two institutional relations. The first type involves a school following the instructions given by a university in delivering FE components (Cohen et al. 2013). This arrangement is commonly found in university-school partnerships in Asian and Australian teacher education, which is mainly university-based with school-based FE blocks. The second type is what Cohen et al. (2013) called a symmetric relation

by which a school and a university jointly take part in both the design and implementation of the FE component. A review of the literature suggests that the UK is turning towards having school-based or school-led teacher education programmes that show the characteristics of a symmetric institutional relationship.

Consistent with the second type of institutional relationship, the development of teacher education programmes took an important turn when it adopted a school-based or school-led model in the UK. According to McIntyre (2009), the adoption of the school-led model was a reaction to the dissatisfaction with a situation in the 1980s that teacher education programmes which were entirely university-led failed to equip student-teachers with the ability of classroom teaching. By the early 1990s, a major reform in the UK was launched, which required both universities and schools to form a partnership to deliver teacher education programmes (Department for Education and Science 1992). Within this context, different types of partnership exist in terms of whether they involve genuine collaboration between universities and schools. At one end, the partnership does not involve much collaborative interaction – a university merely gives guidance and instruction to a school in delivering the kind of FE specified by the government to student-teachers (Furlong et al. 2000). At the other end, the partnership entails genuine collaborative efforts between a university and a school (McIntyre 2009), with them forming a symmetric institutional relationship. Experienced school teachers not only take part in the implementation but also in the design and evaluation of the FE components with the university faculty. For example, in the Oxford internship scheme, the expertise of school teachers and university faculty are treated as equally valuable and are used to design and refine FE components so that FE blocks can be thoughtfully integrated and deeply embedded in the overall teacher education programme (McIntyre 2009).

While university-school partnerships in the UK advocate a school-led model, such partnerships in Asian and Australian programmes adopt a university-based model in which school teachers mainly engage in mentoring student-teachers and assessing their teaching performance according to the guidance given by universities. In Australia, the Teaching School Model (TSM) has been developed to establish a closer partnership between universities and host schools (Smith and Moore 2006; Turner 2006). University faculty increase their involvement in the host schools by providing professional learning for and collecting feedback from school teachers (Allen et al. 2013a). Moreover, student-teachers are required to carry out assessment designed to integrate university coursework with FE components. While the theoretical aspect of the assessment is evaluated by university faculty, the implementation aspect is assessed by mentor teachers. Since 1999, the National Institute of Education (NIE) in Singapore has improved the partnership model with host schools (Wong and Chuan 2002), which have taken a greater role in assessing and supervising student-teachers' performance in FE blocks. The curriculum knowledge is assessed by mentor teachers and the overall grade of student-teachers is decided by both the host school and the NIE. For example, in a study by Goh et al. (2009) the teaching performance of a student-teacher is assessed by both mentor teachers and university supervisors based on a form named Assessment of Performance in Teaching, designed by the NIE to assess six aspects of teaching

process. Similarly, in Taiwan, university supervisors play a leading role in the design of FE components for a student-teacher, while university supervisors and mentor teachers contribute equally to the overall assessment score of an FE component (National Taiwan Normal University 2007). The above review suggests that university-based teacher education with a school-based FE component is commonly found in Asia and Australia. Although the FE block is university-led, mentor teachers in the schools play an increasingly important role in the implementation and assessment of the student-teachers.

While FE specifics and arrangements differ across countries, teacher educators have designed different types of activities during FE to gradually enculturate student-teachers into the practice of teaching. Student-teachers often conduct classroom observations or other forms of school attachment activities (Cheng and So 2004) before being required to teach independently in the classroom. Similarly in the United States, the field practice includes two types of experience for student-teachers: field observations and classroom teaching (Wang et al. 2003). It is common across Teacher Education Institutes (TEIs) in Hong Kong for school experience to involve lesson observation, reflection and supervised teaching experience in which student-teachers carry out classroom teaching under the supervision of cooperating or mentor teachers (Hong Kong Baptist University 2012; Cheng et al. 2012). The duration of FE blocks is also observed to be extended in recent years in teacher education programmes. In Australia, under the arrangement of the TSM, the duration of FE is 8–9 weeks more than the minimum requirement stated by the accrediting authority (Allen et al. 2013a). Since 2005, the number of FE blocks in Singapore has been increased from two to four, aiming to progressively involve student-teachers in the practice of teaching (Choy et al. 2014). Only in the third and fourth blocks are student-teachers required to teach independently under the supervision of mentor teachers (Choy et al. 2014). Moreover, the FE is also arranged to be a teacher professional development opportunity for inservice teachers in China. In a recent reform of teacher education in China, with the establishment of the National Curriculum Standards for Teacher Education (NCSTE) in 2011, the opportunity for student-teachers to be exposed to FE has substantially increased through the double development plan that swaps the role of student-teachers and in-service teachers (Han 2012). Student-teachers substitute in-service teachers to teach in a host school for a semester; meanwhile, in-service teachers are released to attend professional development programmes held by universities (Han 2012). While mentoring for beginning teachers is common practice in many schools in Mainland China, there is often a lack of mentoring support or supervision for student-teachers by the supervisor and cooperating teacher such that they might feel anxious and concerned about their survival during the teaching practicum (Ma 2012; Yan and He 2010). In addition, in some cases, there might be a lack of a fair assessment system and an unwelcoming response from the school to the student-teachers' participation in the practicum (Yan and He 2010). Ma's (2012) study suggested that student-teachers could have more engagement in professional communities, peer learning and self-directed learning.

In Taiwan, different universities of education or normal universities may have slight variations in their approach to and operation of FE. Taking the National Kaohsiung Normal University (2000) as an example, there are four major principles of FE design: progression; regular feedback and interaction; humanistic counselling; and teaching and supervisory practicum supplemented by administration experience. There are several stages of FE. The first is the preparation stage (around May to June) when a contract is signed and student-teachers learn the rights and responsibilities of an FE teacher and information about the school where the FE will be carried out. The second stage (July) is the induction when the student-teachers learn more about the context and operation of the FE school as well as the professional development activities organized by the city/county bureaus for beginning teachers. The third stage (August) is the practicum before the school year starts. The fourth stage is the practicum at the beginning of the first semester (September to October). The FE teacher will act as the teaching assistant of the FE supervisor whose lessons they will visit. After 2–3 weeks, each FE teacher will usually be assigned four to six lessons per week. The FE teacher will also be involved in some administrative work and participate in school-based professional development activities. The fifth stage is the practicum before the first semester ends (November to the end of the first semester). Each FE teacher will usually teach eight to ten lessons per week. During the winter holidays, the FE teacher will engage in some preparatory work for teaching in the second semester. The sixth stage is the practicum in the second semester. Under the supervision of the FE supervisor, each FE teacher will usually teach around 12–16 lessons per week, handle selected grade-based duties of the FE supervisor, and participate in home visits or seminars with parents. The FE teacher will also take part in two meetings per semester regarding the review of his/her strengths and weaknesses in the FE.

For the National Taipei University of Education Experimental Primary School Experimental Kindergarten (undated), in addition to the teaching practicum, grade-based practicum and administration practicum, the FE teacher needs to engage in school-based and/or external professional development activities, self-motivated learning in small groups such as sharing of FE and class management experience as well as book club activities. There is also a monthly meeting among the FE teacher, the school principal and/or members of the FE team.

8.4 Conceptualizing FE as Complementary to the University-Based Course Work in Teacher Education Programmes

In order to address the theory-practice gap, teacher educators have proposed integrating university coursework with the school-based FE component as a way to improve student-teachers' learning. Coursework is one of the most influential factors affecting the learning outcomes of a teacher education programme. The

integration requires the alignment of the content of the coursework and the strength of the mentor teachers (Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann 1989) and a close relationship between faculty and schools (Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann 1985). Student-teachers' experiences in school-based FE should be guided by their theoretical understanding developed in the coursework (McCadden and Rose 2008); therefore, FE components can become 'learning laboratories' where student-teachers experience what is taught in the coursework and what it is like in an authentic classroom (McCaleb et al. 1992). Green (2006) proposed that connecting education theory courses to FE can help student-teachers to make good decisions, especially when theoretical knowledge can guide them to ask the right questions in the process of teaching. Research indicates that the integration of coursework with FE can contribute to the effectiveness of teacher education programmes. Dorfman et al. (2006) found that the overlap between the content of the coursework and the FE component contributed the most to student-teachers' conceptual understanding of assessment. Similarly, Moyer-Packenham and Husman (2006) reported that the integration of a methods course and FE helped student-teachers to have a clear understanding of their goal of becoming a teacher professional and to increase their motivation in taking the course. McCadden and Rose (2008) also reported that the integration sped up student-teacher learning, which further improved the depth of the subsequent coursework. Moyer-Packenham and Husman (2006) described a study of a year-long university-school partnership in which faculty instructors taught methods courses on the school campus. They found that student-teachers were more focused on learning the necessary skills to be a teacher because of the combined effect of the immersion into the school culture and the methods courses. As improving the linkage between school-based FE components and university-based coursework seems to be an effective way to improve student-teachers' learning, much research has been investigating ways to improve the linkage.

8.5 Maximizing Student-Teacher Learning in School-Based FE Components of Teacher Education Programmes

Apart from strengthening the linkage between course-work and the FE component, teacher educators have been devoting their efforts to examining the FE conditions under which the learning of student-teachers can be maximized. This section looks into three related aspects, namely, engaging student-teachers to be active learners; providing professional development opportunities for mentor teachers; and strengthening university-school partnerships.

8.5.1 Engaging Student-Teachers to Be Active Learners

There have been attempts to explore conditions during FE blocks which are conducive to student learning. Action research can create an effective condition for FE, in which student-teachers are required to conduct investigation into their own pedagogical practices. Student-teachers who conducted action research during their FE have been found to develop a deeper understanding of students as learners (Tabachnick and Zeichner 1999; Zembal-Saul et al. 2000) and to be more critical of their own pedagogical practices (Bianchini and Cavasos 2007). Wang (2006, p. 26) employed Carr and Kemmis' (1986) approach to action research in a teaching practicum and analysed student-teachers' professional growth and reflections through lesson observations, interviews, web communication among researcher and student-teachers, as well as text analysis. It was suggested that after the student-teachers graduated, maintaining web communication would be encouraged. Risko et al. (2009) found that engaging student-teachers in the analysis of case studies of teaching is more effective than school-led FE in terms of enhancing student-teachers' development of reflective thinking and problem-solving ability. Hsu (2013, p. 121) explored the adoption of problem-based learning (PBL) in the teaching practicum in the context of Taiwan, and found that PBL could bring positive changes to student-teachers' disciplinary knowledge and skills, learning abilities and professional interaction skills, etc. In Hong Kong, Kwan (2008, pp. 339–340) analysed student-teachers' use of different modes of problem-based learning with the results revealing that they preferred the inductive enquiry workshop and then gradual transition to the classical PBL model (Lee 2013, p. 179). These findings point to the importance of engaging student-teachers to be reflective and active learners and to be equipped with problem solving skills.

Student-teachers are assumed to be active learners when Putnam and Borko (2000) conceptualize them as constructing their pedagogical knowledge in authentic classrooms and in applying their theoretical knowledge. With this, the theoretical underpinning of many faculty-led FE components is premised on a situated perspective of knowledge (Putnam and Borko 2000). Consistent with this line of thinking where learners play an active role, Caprano et al. (2010) proposed the idea of learning community in professional development programmes which aim to integrate the input of schools and universities in terms of teacher development in order to continuously improve the teaching practice of schools. Caprano et al. (2010) put forward the notion of a learning community in teacher professional development programmes, whereby all the key players assume an active role. The key players include faculty instructors, school mentors, and student-teachers, who work with a focus on improving student-teachers' learning through shared decision-making and joint problem-solving. By participating in the discourse of a learning community, student-teachers can become progressively enculturated into the teaching profession (McDuffie et al. 2003) and contribute to the community of practice (Putnam and Borko 2000). While student-teachers need to take up an active role in their own learning, mentors or cooperating teachers in schools are key players in enhancing

the learning of the student-teachers during FE. Meanwhile, mentors and cooperating teachers are supposed to improve their teaching practice through the collaboration with faculty instructors.

8.5.2   Providing Professional Development Opportunities for Mentor Teachers

To provide better support to student-teachers, professional development for mentor teachers through university-school partnerships has become increasingly popular (The Teacher Council 2010). Recent research has advocated the need to establish university-school partnerships to support the development of collegial relationships between mentor teachers and student-teachers in order to facilitate constructive learning dialogues during FE (Gan 2014; Sanders 2008). This idea stems from a consensus that mentor teachers who are expert in teaching do not necessarily have the skills or knowledge to be effective mentors (Edwards and Collison 1996; Sanders 2008) and that mentor teachers often do not receive enough support to carry out effective mentoring (Carroll 2007; Margolis 2007). Beck and Kosnik (2000) found that mentor teachers discouraged student-teachers from implementing innovative pedagogical practice taught in university coursework in their FE teaching, although the mentoring teachers regarded their mentoring role as satisfying. Kyle et al. (1999) suggested that professional development should be provided for mentor teachers before they take up the role of mentor. While professional development regarding mentoring skills and knowledge should be provided to mentor teachers, mentoring experience itself is conceived as an opportunity of professional development for mentoring teachers.

Much research has reported that both mentor teachers and student-teachers can benefit from the mentorship because it entails a mutual learning process in which mentor teachers can be exposed to new ideas and new pedagogical approaches (Goodnough et al. 2009), are required to analyse and articulate their teaching practice (Kerry and Farrow 1996), and need to be more aware of their teaching practice and the impacts on their student learning (Yost 2002). Therefore, mentorship provides mentor teachers with opportunities for professional development as they are more likely to reflect on and transform their existing teaching practice (Jones and Straker 2006) and to take up innovative pedagogies (Whitehead and Fitzgerald 2006). In China, the study by Yan and He (2010, pp. 68–69) called for universities to establish criteria for appointing and training cooperating teachers in schools which supervise and support the student-teachers. Much could be learned from the experiences in Hong Kong where Cheng and Yeung (2010), in the context of the Hong Kong Institute of Education and hearing from mentor teachers, reported that workshops provided by a university-school network, and opportunities for experimentation of innovative pedagogy are facilitative to their professional learning. The University of Hong Kong has developed a "unified professional development

project" (UPDP) which involves two components of professional development, namely tripartite conferencing and teacher fellowship; mentoring experiences of student-teachers were then institutionalized as recognized credits which could be articulated to professional or higher degree qualifications (Tsui and Wong 2006, p. 190).

8.5.3 Strengthening University-School Partnerships

These studies highlight the importance of aligning FE assignments and other forms of school attachment activities with the pedagogical approaches taught in university-based courses (Allsopp et al. 2006), creating a shared understanding of the purpose of FE among student-teachers, school mentors and faculty instructors (Grisham et al. 2002), modeling the best educational practices that can have a positive impact on student-teachers (Lieberman and Miller 1990). Darling-Hammond (2006) investigated seven successful teacher education programmes in the United States and argued that a commonality among these programmes is developing a shared understanding between university faculty and school teachers through university-school partnerships.

Many research reports have been written to share the experience of coordinating professional development programmes for mentor teachers through university-school partnerships. Zeichner (2010) reported that at the University of Wisconsin-Madison a professional development coordinator and a method course instructor present the pedagogical approaches taught in coursework to mentor teachers who are experts of that specific approach, so that the mentor teachers can demonstrate the approach to student-teachers. Graham (2005) presented that the University of Georgia Network has established a professional learning community to help English professors, mentor teachers, and student-teachers to reflect on and change their pedagogical assumptions and approaches. For example, mentor teachers co-inquired the design and ways to implement classroom-based assessment through community discourse under the guidance of university professors, and then shared their new understanding with their student-teachers. Hammerness (2006) reported a programme reform to develop more coherent teacher education at Stanford University. Part of the reform is to relate mentor teachers and university supervisors more closely in their shared mentorship. A model of mentorship and how it relates to the overall goal of teacher education are explicitly articulated. University supervisors, mentor teachers, and student-teachers are required to meet once per semester, when they discuss issues relating to the design, implementation, and evaluation of FE (Hammerness 2006). Epanchin and Colucci (2002) reported at the University of South Florida that mentor teachers are called professional practice partners who are hired by the university and receive extensive mentorship training, such as semester-long courses, action research, and monthly seminars. These certified mentor teachers supervise student-teachers in their final block of FE. Allen et al. (2013b) described a Partnership in Teaching Excellence scholarship programme co-organized

by an urban Australian university and a State Department of Education to integrate theory into practice. In this programme, mentor teachers are required to attend cognitive coaching courses provided by the university, and they not only supervise student-teachers but also provide guidance for other school teachers who have student-teachers in their classrooms. Smith et al. (2012) conducted an intervention study involving 4 tasks designed for 27 pairs of mentor teachers and student-teachers. To develop learning-focused relationships, the pairs were required to create a map for building mutual narrative about how to go about the FE and to complete a belief inventory test for exchanging their attitudes and beliefs about teaching. To facilitate learning dialogues, the pairs were required to engage in discussion based on a report written by student-teachers to reflect on their critical learning moment and on journal articles related to theoretical aspects of the teaching profession. Smith et al. (2012) found that participants regarded the relationship as a prerequisite to productive mentor experiences, and the tasks directed them to tackle challenging aspects of FE that would otherwise have gone unnoticed. In the context of Hong Kong, Gan's (2014, pp. 136–137) study proposed that the collegial relationships and building up of a sense of "teaching community" between student-teachers for English as a Second Language (ESL) and significant others such as school teachers, university supervisors and peer classmates could be strengthened in university-school partnerships.

8.6 Looking into the Future: Strategies to Enhance Student-Teachers' Learning during FE

A review of the recent literature suggests three main approaches to integrating school-based FE components with university-based coursework. The first approach is to use assessment as a conceptual tool to scaffold student-teacher reflective thinking during FE, with a common characteristic that the design principles and evaluation criteria of an assessment are explicitly taught in the coursework. For example, in the study by Dorfman et al. (2006), student-teachers were taught the principles of a curriculum-embedded performance assessment and were required to use them to collect evidence of meaningful learning and to reflect on their own teaching practice. In Buck et al.'s (2010) study, formative assessment was used to guide the design and implementation of FE. After each FE session, student-teachers co-reflected on their experiences and discussed how to make use of the formative assessment outcomes to improve their pedagogical designs in the next session. Moreover, documents of formative assessment, such as field notes and journals from student-teachers, were used as teaching materials in the coursework. Bell et al. (2009) examined the use of a performance-based assessment to tie the coursework of student-teachers and the learning outcomes of their students in FE. The assessment framework provided guidance for student-teachers to design their teaching plan aimed at fostering a specific learning outcome, and required student-teachers to reflect on their

teaching decisions in relation to their student learning outcomes. Al-Barakat and Al-Hassan (2009) investigated the use of peer assessment as a tool to enhance student-teachers' understanding of learning and assessment processes. Student-teachers were given the philosophy of peer assessment, and they were encouraged to give constructive feedback on their peers' teaching performance. Al-Barakat and Al-Hassan (2009) found that by using peer assessment, student-teachers developed criteria for judging the quality of teaching and were able to reflect on their own teaching practice. To maximize student-teachers' learning in FE, a team of researchers in the Hong Kong Institute of Education has developed a learning-oriented FE assessment (LOFEA) framework. The framework includes a feedback form and a standards-referenced assessment instrument called the progress map (Tang et al. 2006). The progress map lays out the trajectory of professional growth, which involves a four-level progression from beginning to competent in three domains: professional attributes, teaching and learning, and involvement in the education community (Tang et al. 2006). By referring to the standards stated in the progress map, the feedback form is designed to facilitate evidence-based, constructive dialogues between student-teachers and faculty supervisors (Tang and Chow 2007). The progress map and feedback can simulate student-teachers to reflect on and analyse their own teaching performance, thereby charting their course for further professional growth (Cheng and Tang 2008). Formative use of assessment outcomes facilitates the dynamic interaction between FE and coursework; therefore, student-teachers can engage in critical reflection on the process of learning to teach (Loughran 2007; Russell and Bullock 1999). Moreover, this approach can also enhance student-teachers' ability to implement formative assessment in diagnosing the learning problems with their student understanding, thus improving their pedagogical strategies accordingly.

The second approach is to provide student-teachers with an opportunity to engage in reflective activities. There is an upsurge in teacher training research on the idea of developing student-teacher reflection skills and dispositions. In teacher education programmes, student-teachers are increasingly required to justify their selection of different pedagogical strategies in different situations (Khourey-Bowers 2005) in order to develop their reflective teaching abilities with which student-teachers are aware of the reasons, intentions, and benefits of using different pedagogies (Webb 2000). A strand of research has developed to examine the idea of teaching a reflection framework as a conceptual tool. Green (2006) argued to introduce a reflection model for student-teachers to systematically reflect on their decision-making during their teaching. The model includes reflection on the phase of planning, implementation, and evaluation and from the perspective of teachers, students, and schools. Risko et al. (2009) designed coursework in which a reflective thinking protocol was developed with the involvement of student-teachers. Student-teachers then practiced the use of the protocol in their FE teaching. Based on the findings, Risko et al. (2009) highlighted the importance of making the instructional goal explicit as well as imposing a structure on the activities for student-teachers. Santagata et al. (2007) proposed that student-teachers need a reflective framework to construct deep understanding of pedagogical knowledge. In their study,

student-teachers were instructed to watch video-taped classroom teaching multiple times and to analyse it from different perspectives. Santagata et al. (2007) found that student-teachers preferred reflecting on video-taped lessons to field observations because they could slow down and repeat the teaching process. In a similar vein, Tang et al. (2012, p. 104) advocated the importance of helping student-teachers examine their teacher beliefs, possibly through a case-based approach, and enhancing their self-efficacy through support.

Another strand of research has been developed to examine the idea of placing student-teachers in different contexts of FE in order to simulate their reflective thinking. Many researchers have proposed the importance of exposing student-teachers to multiple classroom contexts in which they can reflect on the underlying reasons why different classrooms operate with different practices (Graves 1990; Hursh 1995; Ishler et al. 1996; Simpson 2006). Alternative placements can also provide different contexts of FE. For example, cross-cultural FE aims to provide student-teachers with cultural immersion experience to broaden their knowledge base of pedagogical strategies, thus simulating their reflection on teaching from a global perspective (Zhao et al. 2009; Willard-Holt 2001). FE in non-school settings aims to give student-teachers a broader perspective of teaching and education in a society. Anderson et al. (2006) designed an informal teaching FE in an aquarium and found that student-teachers were not only able to reflect on the overall goals of education but also to develop deeper understanding of education theories. Purdy and Gibson (2008) situated FE in a range of education-related agencies and found that student-teachers reflected on educational issues from different disciplinary perspectives.

The final approach introduced here is to integrate computer technology with FE and university coursework. The integration is achieved through the use of online discussion forums to facilitate dialogical interactions among student-teachers when they are placed in FE. In the study by Angeli et al. (2003), 146 student-teachers discussed teaching problems observed in FE and were supposed to make use of course readings to solve the problems. Although the discussion forum created a space for such social activities as co-reflection and knowledge co-construction, these authors found that the student-teachers did not write much on the forum and did not engage in high-level thinking. This study provides further evidence to support a common view that adding computer technology to a course does not automatically enhance student learning. Although computer technology can provide a way to integrate coursework and FE, careful design is needed. For example, in the study by Khourey-Bowers (2005) not only was a discussion forum used to facilitate dialogic interactions, but criteria for reflection were also taught to the student-teachers. The study found that the student-teachers were able to engage in reflection on their pedagogical knowledge. Apart from facilitating dialogical interactions among student-teachers, computer technology can also be used to enhance the communication between student-teachers, mentor teachers, and faculty instructors (Schocker-von Ditfurth and Legutke 2002). This is especially important in distance teacher education programmes where FE involves considerable administrative and time costs (Simpson 2006). The communication between various stakeholders in

Lee and Wu's (2006) study was facilitated through the technological affordance to share video-recorded lessons of teaching on and to collect feedback from the Internet. In a similar setting, Kopcha and Alger (2011) found that the quality of FE components was enhanced because student-teachers had more opportunities to get timely feedback on their teaching plans from both mentor teachers and faculty instructors and to share their teaching experiences with their peers.

8.7   Conclusion

Although there is a general consensus that FE is a key component in teacher education, how to develop FE facilitative to student-teacher learning in terms of their ability to integrate theory with practice remains a challenge for many countries. The different designs, implementation, and evaluation of FE reflect various types of institutional relations between the host schools and the universities. Teacher education research has pointed out the limitations of the traditional institutional relation under which a school solely decides how to go about FE and does not have much connection with a university. This has stimulated a range of school-university partnership arrangements with school-led or mainly school-based models for the teacher education programme and university-led models for the FE. Within such partnerships, there are also considerations for professional development opportunities for cooperating or mentoring teachers such that better support can be provided to enhance the learning of student-teachers in FE.

There are attempts to integrate the school-based FE component with university coursework among TEIs. Looking into the future, this chapter discusses three approaches to fostering such integration. The first involves the use of formative assessment as a conceptual tool to scaffold reflective thinking among student-teachers. Student-teachers are expected to observe and reflect on teaching practice through the conceptual tools taught in the coursework. The second approach is to create opportunities for student-teachers to engage in reflective activities by teaching them reflection models or placing them in different contexts. The final approach is to use computer technology to facilitate dialogical interactions among student-teachers and to provide frequent and timely feedback for them.

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Chapter 9
Initial Teacher Education and Assessment of Graduates in Australia

Diane Mayer, Andrea Allard, Julianne Moss, and Mary Dixon

9.1 Introduction

As evidence of the contentious nature and the ongoing debates regarding quality in teacher education and beginning teaching in Australia, more than 100 government inquiries have been undertaken in the past two decades (e.g. Caldwell and Sutton 2010; Committee for the Review of Teaching and Teacher Education 2003; Education and Training Committee 2005; House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training 2007; Productivity Commission 2012; Ramsey 2000). These reports regularly highlight the shortcomings of initial teacher education and foreground the reality shock of beginning teaching as attributable to teacher preparation that is not practical enough.

In Australia, as elsewhere, perceptions of the teaching profession and initial teacher education have been influenced by economic issues related to global competitiveness as measured by international assessment programs such as the Programme of International Student Assessment (PISA) and imperatives argued by business groups (for example, Business Council of Australia 2008). Accompanying this is what Bullough refers to as the 'seductive pursuit of what we now call 'best practice': namely, single, best solutions, to complex problems' (Bullough 2012, p. 344). For example, the current Australian Government Minister for Education, Hon Christopher Pyne, established a Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group to 'identify the world's best practice in terms of how we teach, the content of teacher

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courses and the practical aspects of training' (Pyne, February 18, 2014). Its brief is to examine:

- pedagogical approaches – the ways teachers teach their students, and the different ways teaching and learning can occur;
- subject content – how well teachers understand the content of subjects they are teaching; and,
- professional experience – opportunities for pre-service teachers to put theory into practice through quality in-school learning experiences.

9.2   Policy Context of Teacher Education in Australia

Historically, schools and teachers' work have been the jurisdiction of the states/territories in Australia and higher education has been the jurisdiction of the federal Australian Government. However, in recent years, there have been increasing attempts by the Australian Government to increase its influence over schooling and teachers' work mostly in the name of greater accountability to the tax paying public (In Australia, all taxes are collected federally and then dispersed to the states and territories). One example of this was an ambitious national reform agenda to address the 'problems' of teacher education. Known as *Smarter Schools – Improving Teacher Quality National Partnership* (TQNP), this reform program directed millions of dollars of funding over 5 years (2009–2013) to activities designed to:

- Attract the best graduates to teaching through additional pathways;
- Improve the quality of teacher education (with more attention on the practical component in schools);
- Develop national standards and teacher registration;
- Improve retention by rewarding quality teachers and school leaders;
- Increase knowledge of teachers and school leaders through their careers; and
- Improve the quality and availability of teacher workforce data.

The NTQP reform agenda resulted in the introduction of alternative or employment based pathways into teaching such as *Teach for Australia* and *Teach Next*, and the establishment of School Centres for Teaching Excellence (SCTE) where schools were funded directly to improve the practicum in pre-service teacher education. In addition, the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) was established as the national agency with responsibility for developing and implementing new national professional standards for teachers (Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership 2011c) and school leaders (Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership 2011b), and for regulating new processes and standards for national accreditation of teacher education programs and teacher registration (Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership 2011a).

This national agenda has been accompanied by a range of state-based reforms which are often focusing on similar issues. For example, the state of Queensland is

trying to improve partnerships between school sectors and higher education institutions, develop a streamlined and moderated approach to the assessment of professional experience, strengthen the governance of initial teacher education programs, and instigate annual reviews of initial teacher education programs (Department of Education Training and Employment 2013).

9.3 Professional Standards for Graduates and Assessment for Beginning Teaching

Australia, like many countries, faces a complex 'apparatus of certification and regulation' (Connell 2009, p. 214) for initial teacher education accreditation and teacher registration/certification. Historically, entry into the profession has been regulated by state agencies that use input models to make decisions about the quality of a teacher education program, usually by paper review of the planned program, involving a panel of stakeholders deciding on the likelihood that the program will prepare a competent beginning teacher. Then, employers and teacher registration authorities use proxies like completion of the accredited teacher education program, grades in university subjects or practicum evaluation forms and observations of teaching to make a judgment about a graduating teacher's level of professional knowledge and practice – about their readiness to teach. Like many countries, the process for the accreditation of teacher education involves a 'mind-numbing array of standards, elements, performance indicators, and components – all requiring enormous amounts of time and paperwork' (Johnson et al. 2005, p. 92), often with little real attention to the actual professional knowledge, skills and practice of the graduating teacher in the workplace.

However, with the establishment of the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) in January 2010, one set of professional standards for teachers was designed to be used across the country to regulate teacher education accreditation, teacher registration and recognition for highly accomplished teaching (Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership 2011a, c). In this chapter, we focus on a critical aspect of these current policy reforms in Australia that are impacting the work of teacher educators and the teacher education curriculum. A major thrust of the new national accreditation system is the requirement that teacher education providers produce evidence that, upon graduation, beginning teachers can demonstrate the professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement as outlined in the national graduate teacher standards (Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership 2011c). We discuss one approach that is currently being implemented, that of an authentic capstone assessment for preservice teachers. In countries like the USA, terms such as 'teacher performance assessment' have been used to define this type of work. However, in the Australian context, the term 'authentic teacher assessment' or simply 'teacher assessment' or 'teacher evaluation' is usually preferred.

A report for the Queensland College of Teachers, the teacher regulatory authority in that state, captures the way teacher educators and teacher regulatory authorities are thinking about this work:

> Authentic assessment requires pre-service teachers to deploy combinations of knowledge, skills, and dispositions in their professional life. Authentic assessment makes the core aspects of teaching visible and measurable against a set of agreed standards. Authentic tasks engage pre-service teachers in processes that are necessary to act professionally in planning curriculum units for a specific group of students, designing episodes of teaching, teaching, and evaluating the effectiveness of their teaching. Authentic assessment, therefore, requires pre-service teachers to be explicit about their thinking and decision-making in designing teaching episodes, to reference the sources and rationale for their ideas, and to reflect upon the actual teaching experience and plans for revising and redesigning the teaching episodes. (The State of Queensland (Queensland College of Teachers) 2012, p. 25)

With the increasing focus on outcomes, the focus is on 'how [teacher] preparation influences teachers' effectiveness, especially their ability to increase student learning in measurable ways' (Darling-Hammond 2006, p. 120). The research identifies several characteristics (including teaching ability, subject matter expertise, and content pedagogy) important when measuring teaching impact on student learning. No one single factor can be identified as the sole contributor to the impact a teacher has on student learning. Therefore, assessment of teachers on multiple measures is important when considering teacher impact on student learning. Like Darling-Hammond and Snyder (2000) noted amin relation to the US context, Australian educators and evaluators are considering 'forms of assessment that better reflect the complexity of teaching and can provide valid data about competence while helping teachers improve the caliber of their work' (p. 526), acknowledging that assessments such as the practicum report do 'not address important differences in context and content, and they ignore … the influence of teaching on learning' (p. 525). The use of student learning data alone as a measure of teacher effectiveness does not help guide decisions related to program improvement (Darling-Hammond et al. 2010). A range of approaches is required.

The above mentioned report proposes features of a high quality assessment system to ensure quality graduates from pre-service teacher education programs (The State of Queensland (Queensland College of Teachers) 2012):

1. The system is based on principles of authentic assessment.
2. It is a system of assessment that is moderated within programs, informed by sharing quality assessment practices across the sector, and meets the requirements of reliability and validity.
3. It is a system that enhances the capacity of pre-service teachers for self-assessment and reflection on their levels of developing knowledge and practice.
4. It captures the complexity of teaching.
5. It captures the multifaceted nature of teaching in a comprehensive manner.
6. It reflects the overall goals for education in Australia as currently agreed and elaborated in the Melbourne Declaration.
7. It aligns with current national and state professional standards.
8. It has support from key stakeholders.

There are three ways of generating evidence about the quality of teaching in pre-service teacher education programs that are often used: (i) observation protocols that include teacher educator developed evaluation scales linked to professional standards for beginning teaching, (ii) portfolios documenting pre-service teachers' professional knowledge and reflection on their professional practice; and (iii) teacher and/or student work samples (Arends 2006a, b). Portfolio assessments (structured and unstructured) are widely used in teacher preparation programs, most often as a form of 'capstone' or culminating assessment. Structured portfolios are those that require pre-service teachers to submit specific artifacts of teaching in response to standardized prompts which are then assessed in a standardized way by trained scorers using a common evaluation tool, usually a rubric. An example of a capstone teacher assessment that aims to 'measure and promote candidates' abilities to integrate their knowledge of content, students and instructional context in making instructional decisions' (Pecheone and Chung 2006, p. 24) is the Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT). PACT is designed to collect evidence of pre-service teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge as well as higher-order thinking skills (Pecheone and Chung 2006) and assesses 'the planning, instruction, assessment, and reflection skills of student teachers against professional standards of practice' (Darling-Hammond 2006, p. 121).

In Australia, there are some examples of work being done to assess pre-service teachers against various sets of standards or indicators of effective teaching, including:

- Project Evidence (Sim et al. 2012);
- The University of Melbourne Practicum Exhibition (Kriewaldt and Turnbridge 2013);
- Victoria University Applied Curriculum Project (ACP) (Kruger and Cherednichenko 2005); and,
- Deakin Authentic Teacher Assessment (ATA) (Allard et al. 2014).

In this chapter we focus on the implementation and evaluation of the Deakin ATA as an authentic assessment of the actual professional practice of graduating teachers in the workplace, framed by professional standards and incorporating multiple measures as well as a focus on judging the impact of teaching on student learning.

9.4 The Deakin Authentic Teacher Assessment (ATA)

Deakin University drew on the PACT work in California to design, implement and evaluate what is now known as the Deakin Authentic Teacher Assessment (ATA). The ATA was implemented in 2010 as a capstone summative assessment in the new Master of Teaching program at Deakin University. The Master of Teaching is a postgraduate teacher education program completed in the equivalent of 2 years' full-time study (four semesters in 18 calendar months by utilizing a trimester

system). Pre-service teachers studying in the Master of Teaching have completed a bachelor degree in a discipline other than education and graduates are eligible for registration as early childhood, primary or secondary teachers, depending on the strand of study they elect to complete. The ATA is a compulsory part of the Master of Teaching and is completed by all candidates in all strands. It occurs towards the end of the program, as a capstone assessment in the final professional experience unit of study.

In the ATA, pre-service teachers who are soon to graduate demonstrate their effectiveness in relation to the work of teachers in the workplace as framed by the *Standards of Professional Practice for Graduating Teachers* (Victorian Institute of Teaching 2007) and more recently the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership 2011c). They demonstrate their ability to:

- Teach proficiently and demonstrate the relevant professional standards;
- Identify the important features of the classroom context that influence their planning, teaching and assessment;
- Draw on students' prior knowledge and learning when planning and teaching lessons;
- Work with students to build their knowledge and skills in a particular area;
- Engage students in meaningful activities and monitor their understanding;
- Critically reflect on their professional practice and its impact on students' learning;
- Assess student learning and determine patterns in whole class learning as well as individual learning needs; and,
- Use student assessment to inform their professional practice.

Like PACT, the ATA is designed to include 'multiple measures that allow a comprehensive view of what candidates learn and what a program contributes to their performance' (Darling-Hammond 2006, p. 135). The pre-service teachers submit a structured portfolio incorporating teaching plans, teaching artifacts, student work samples, video clips of teaching, and personal reflections and commentaries, which are organized in four categories to reflect the regular ongoing work of teachers in the classroom over time: planning, teaching, assessment, and reflection. The ATA has five components designed as activities that reflect components of the teaching experience.

1. *Context for Learning*: Pre-service teachers write about the learning context within which they are working, describing the school and the classes they teach and factors impacting on the learning environment.
2. *Planning Teaching and Assessment*: Pre-service teachers describe, explain, and justify their teaching and assessment plan for a sequence of 5–8 lessons.
3. *Teaching Students and Supporting Learning*: Pre-service teachers videotape themselves teaching, submit a ten-minute segment of the video, and contextualize and reflect on the video segment in an accompanying written statement.

4. *Assessing Student Learning*: Pre-service teachers report on their assessment tasks providing samples of students' work and describe how the assessment outcomes are informing ongoing planning and teaching.
5. *Reflecting on Teaching and Learning*: Pre-service teachers provide an analysis of their teaching practice and students' learning and how they have used this to improve their teaching practice. (Deakin University 2012)

9.5   Initial Implementation and Evaluation of the ATA

In 2010, an evaluation investigated the initial implementation of the ATA with 30 pre-service teachers enrolled in the Master of Teaching, the classroom teachers who supervised them during the practicum, as well as the Deakin University academics involved in the implementation of the ATA during 2010/2011 The evaluation was supported in part by funding from the Victoria Department of Education and Early Childhood Development and was guided by four key research questions:

1. Is the Deakin ATA a valid measure of professional practice for beginning to teach?
2. What are the key considerations in the development and implementation of the Deakin ATA as a capstone assessment in teacher education courses?
3. How does the Deakin ATA inform course evaluation and course improvement?
4. How does the Deakin ATA impact pre-service teachers' professional learning?

All participants were interviewed individually, and the interviews were audio taped and then transcribed for analysis. The interview data was analyzed over several phases. In the first phase, the interviews were analyzed for emerging themes. In the second phase, the data attached to themes was further analyzed in response to the research questions. Selected findings are presented and discussed below. Further details about the study and its findings can be found in the report provided to the Victoria Department of Education and Early Childhood Development (Dixon et al. 2011).

Overall, the evaluation of the initial implementation of the ATA found that the pre-service teachers, the classroom teachers who supervised them and the university academics involved in its implementation all considered the ATA to be an authentic assessment of beginning teacher readiness. The ATA required pre-service teachers to show evidence of their actual teaching practice and to demonstrate that they were able to reflect on and learn from their practice. From the pre-service teachers' perspectives, this made it a more effective measure of their readiness for teaching work than an essay or similar written assessment, and at the same time it provided them with an opportunity to learn about and reflect on themselves as teachers.

The ATA was originally designed with reference to the Victorian Institute of Teaching (VIT) Standards of Professional Practice for Graduating Teachers which were in use prior to the implementation of the new national standards in 2011 (Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership 2011c). Pre-service

teachers and their practicum supervisors agreed that the ATA was well designed so that pre-service teachers could demonstrate these standards; for example, '*When I looked at the standards and looked at what we were being asked to do* [*in the ATA*], *you could see the link*' (*pre-service teacher*) (Dixon et al. 2011, p. 17). In addition, some pre-service teachers reported that completing the ATA helped them better understand the range of skills and understandings that were encompassed in the standards. They found that when they read the standards prior to completing the ATA, the standards seemed to be too broad and complex to be able to be demonstrated in reality. However, after completing the ATA, they reported being able to understand what the standards mean in practice.

Despite some challenges associated with being a 'visitor' in someone else's classroom – as pre-service teachers invariably are during the practicum – all preservice teachers reported that they were able to undertake activities appropriate for the subject and year level they were teaching when completing the ATA. The tasks were relevant in a range of teaching contexts. The teacher educator who assessed the ATA reported that all primary and secondary pre-service teachers were able to complete all the requirements of the ATA and that there was no difference in the overall quality of the work submitted by the two groups. However, the pre-service teachers highlighted two issues regarding the writing of the ATA. The first was their lack of experience and understanding about reflective writing, and the second was a belief that the ATA was too broad and complex a task to be addressed within the available word limit. Pre-service teachers believed that to be able to demonstrate their abilities and understandings they needed to write significantly more than was permitted and felt that they were disadvantaged by having to edit their writing down to meet the word limit.

Both the pre-service teachers and the practicum supervisors highlighted the importance of having an extended, intensive period of practicum in order to complete the ATA, and that a 4-week block of time in schools was the minimum length of time needed. Even with a 4-week block, one pre-service teacher experienced timetable constraints which impacted their ability to complete the tasks for the ATA. Practicum supervisors particularly stressed the need for sufficient time to build relationships with students to support teaching and learning, and to fully experience the work of teachers. In response to this, the final practicum in the Master of Teaching was subsequently changed to a 5-week block full time in schools.

Practicum supervisors varied in their knowledge of the aims and requirements of the ATA. Even though it was described in detail in the Practicum Handbook that was supplied to all schools, this handbook did not appear to have been passed on to the practicum supervisor in every situation. And even when they did receive it, some supervisors reported that they were not able to read the whole handbook because of time pressures. Often, the main way in which practicum supervisors were informed about the ATA was through conversations with their pre-service teachers.

One pre-service teacher was not able to do her own planning but instead had to use the lessons already planned by the practicum supervisor. Another was unable to complete the final assessment planned for the end of the unit being taught because the practicum supervisor made different plans for that day at the last minute. These

were critical issues impacting the successful implementation of the ATA and high-lighted the importance of both the practicum supervisors and the pre-service teach-ers having a clear understanding of the requirements of the ATA from the beginning of practicum period. In the Assessment of Student Learning activity, pre-service teachers were generally able to successfully design and implement assessments of student work, but were not able to capably analyze the assessment data nor use it to inform their future teaching. The ATA assessor reported that the pre-service teach-ers did less well on the assessment activity than any other component of the ATA. As a result of this finding, more focus in the program was given to helping pre-service teachers examine how assessment can be used to plan curriculum.

Like Linda Darling Hammond and her colleagues (2012), this evaluation found that the pre-service teachers' professional learning was positively impacted as a result of completing the ATA, with pre-service teachers reporting a deeper under-standing of teachers' work and the relevant professional standards, and to learning quite a lot about assessment, particularly the use of assessment as a diagnostic tool. Moreover, all respondents agreed that completing the ATA helped the pre-service teachers to move their focus from classroom management and organizational mat-ters to important professional decisions about student as learners.

However, while the ATA is a comprehensive capstone assessment incorporating multiple measures, it does not and cannot capture all dimensions of teachers' work. Essentially, it only captures teachers' individual activity in the classroom as s/he works to enhance the learning of their students, but teachers' work is always part of a larger system and workforce. As Connell (2009) reminds us, 'whether an indi-vidual teacher appears to be performing well depends a great deal on what *other* people are doing. … It is often the group of teachers, and the institution they work in, that are effective or not effective' (p. 222). Thus, the challenge is to capture the collaborative and collegial dimensions of teachers' work in any system of teacher evaluation (Darling-Hammond 2013).

Following further research on the inclusion of the ATA in teacher education pro-grams at Deakin University in 2011 and 2012, the evidence strongly suggested that by completing the ATA, pre-service teachers were positioned differently and more powerfully in relation to demonstrating their knowledge, skills and readiness to teach (Allard et al. 2014). Instead of relying on others' judgments to determine their success or failure, they were able to demonstrate their capabilities to do the work of teaching and to honestly assess themselves. They provided artifacts, reflections and commentaries to support their claims. In doing so, they had to 'own' their achieve-ments as well as their failures. This is unlike other forms of assessment, such as practicum reports or essays completed as part of university subjects where the total reliance is on another (e.g., supervising teacher or teacher educator) to determine readiness, someone who may or may not 'approve' of the approach they take. Such positioning acknowledges the notion of teacher as 'life-long learner' where mis-takes are understood as a means of improving practice. It also foregrounds the teacher as 'reflective practitioner' where teaching is viewed as inextricably con-nected to thinking about students' learning in specific contexts instead of as a generic or technicist operation drawing on a generic one-size-fits-all 'best practice'

approach. Moreover, as Pecheone and Chung (2006) suggest, 'A well conceptualized teacher assessment system that incorporates multiple sources of data, including an assessment of teaching performance, has the potential to provide the evidence needed to demonstrate the significant contribution of teacher education on teaching performance and ultimately on student learning' (p. 34).

9.6   Concluding Comments

Researchers in the field are well aware that despite many years of archived research, the factors that lead newly qualified teachers to become excellent classroom teachers are not well understood. Recent Australian and international research indicates that labor and workforce market practices such as casualization and mentoring are important factors but other socialization processes such as the role of the school principal, the influence of more experienced colleagues perspectives, student perceptions and the overall distribution of power and accountability are important and overlooked factors in understanding the multifaceted nature of learning to teach and improving student learning (e.g. Darling-Hammond 2013; Mayer et al. 2011–2014, 2013). There is also wide recent interest and agreement in the literature that current approaches to the assessment of newly qualified teachers and teachers' knowledge do not capture teaching in action, examine teachers' intentions or the strategies for meeting the needs of students most in need (Allard et al. 2014; Darling-Hammond 2013).

With the move in Australia to improve 'quality' by implementing national accreditation of teacher education programs, national professional standards for graduating teachers and a renewed examination of what evidence can demonstrate teacher readiness, a capstone authentic teacher assessment as discussed here is both a response to the calls for 'quality', evidence-based assessments and a means to enable more productive partnerships among teacher educators, supervising teachers and pre-service teachers. While the government's calls for 'best practice' can be heard as ignoring the complex and situated learning that is required for quality teacher education, we suggest that the ATA is one means to provide the requisite evidence of 'quality' graduate teachers. By positioning pre-service teachers as active participants in the capstone assessment processes, while maintaining external assessors who also make judgments on the basis of the evidence and artifacts provided, we suggest that the ATA provides a 'better practice' in enhancing the quality of teachers.

We are not suggesting that the ATA per se is the only or the best version of an authentic teacher assessment, or even that it is, as yet, rigorous enough to meet validity and reliability claims for broader adoption. Rather, we have used the ATA to illustrate both the strength and potential of such a type of authentic teacher assessment. We believe that there is important work to be done by teacher educators across Australia, to further develop and rigorously trial authentic capstone assessments that are 'based on professional teaching standards' and 'include multifaceted

evidence of teacher practice, student learning, and professional contributions that are considered in an integrated way' (Darling-Hammond 2013, p. 153).

In the Australian context, teacher educators are well aware that the policy and practice shifts are happening at a time where the Australian population in general has become increasingly diverse (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2011a) and Australian schools are becoming more culturally and socio-economically diverse (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2011b). There is also evidence that beginning teachers are not feeling well prepared and thus not effective in their early years of teaching to teach diverse learners (Mayer et al. 2011–2014, 2013). In these studies, when asked about key challenges faced in their first year of teaching, graduate teachers and principals identified classroom management and catering for diverse learners as the most challenging; that is the graduates felt least prepared by teacher education for this aspect of teaching These issues could be simply responded to by suggesting that teacher education has not done its job and that the requirements and regulation be tightened. This is the way in which many of the reform agendas outlined earlier in this chapter seem to see a solution.

However, we argue that authentic assessments of the actual professional practice of teachers in the workplace, incorporating multiple measures and focused on student learning, are needed in an outcomes focused professional accountability system that teacher educators must drive. By doing this, we can assure the profession, regulatory authorities, governments and the community, that we are preparing quality beginning teachers who are able to demonstrate the effectiveness of their professional knowledge and practice in ensuring student learning. In this way, teacher educators must rightly take the responsibility of deciding the most appropriate teacher education curriculum in order that graduates are indeed able to demonstrate the professional knowledge, skills and engagement capabilities expected in statements of standards and according to the mission and vision of the particular teacher education programs and/or institution. This claim does not imply that teacher educators should or will do the work or research of assessing authentically in isolation.

In Australia, as elsewhere, the governance and the governmentality of teacher education has increased. To date, the benefit of the research undertaken by the chapter authors indicates that investigating teacher assessment opens out the dialogue between policy and practice, between teacher educators, school mentors and the next generation of teachers. These understandings are not new. As Lortie (1975, 2002) pointed out several decades ago 'more teachers will take a hand in assessing pedagogical development and advancing knowledge if selection and training are focused on such ends' (p. 241) and 'although individual teachers and teacher-researchers could provide a steady stream of useful insights, the occupation will also need large scale projects directed toward the assessment of novel instructional strategies, organizational changes, political movements and the like' (p. 241). The recent research and evaluation projects referred to in this chapter have taken place at a point in time in the Australian policy context when the professional performance of teacher candidates is under close scrutiny from governments and employers. As educators and researchers we are all well aware of the recent entry of global

publishing houses into areas such as beginning teacher assessment under the guise of teacher quality. Optimistically, the development of authentic teacher assessment practices widens the interrelationships with key stakeholders, policy makers, practitioners and systems leaders. However the quality and impact and useful insights for schooling and education as foreshadowed by Lortie almost 40 years ago, require research and translations into practice which are informed by larger scale projects and engage both collaborative and critical methodological standpoints. The resultant impact of assessing teacher education authentically will remain difficult to qualify and understand in Australia unless we maintain the momentum for research that specifies both scale and the over-time investigations of professional practice.

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Chapter 10
E-portfolios in Pre-service Teacher Education: Sustainability and Lifelong Learning

Cher Ping Lim, John Chi-Kin Lee, and Nan Jia

10.1   Introduction

Educating students for lifelong learning is a necessary response to the fast changing globalized world; lifelong learning enables our students to meet and adapt to ongoing challenges of sustainable development (Day 2002; Education Commission [EC] 2000). In order to prepare students for lifelong learning, the Education Bureau (2014, p. 10) in Hong Kong announced the fourth strategy on information technology in education, where teachers are expected to become "learning team members" and "facilitator of wide-ranging self- and peer assessments" in student-centred learning environments. Pre-service teacher education then has a significant role to prepare future teachers who are able to design learning activities and environments to support their students to be lifelong learners (Klein 2008).

The capacity for lifelong learning depends mainly on habitual and skilful reflections leading to self-improvement (Mezirow 1990). Reflection competencies may be developed by being trained to think contemplatively based on some guidelines. Accordingly, in the context of pre-service teacher education, reflection competencies refer to thinking "contemplatively or imaginatively about teaching, develop discernment, and see(ing) qualitative nuances inherent in teaching" (Klein 2008, p. 111).

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Portfolios have been widely recognized and applied to develop pre-service teachers' reflection competencies in the last two decades (Alvarez and Moxley 2004; Wenzel et al. 1998). It is a media that facilitates pre-service teachers' reflections on their knowledge building and complex realities in their teaching practices (Wolf 1994). They are given guidelines within which reflections about their knowledge and teaching practices are scaffold (Anderson and DeMeulle 1998).

In recent years, e-portfolios have been adopted by various pre-service teacher education programmes to take up the opportunities offered by technologies for portfolios. For instance, e-portfolios eliminate the need of carrying hardcopies, facilitate communication between students and teachers, and enable peer review and sharing (Barton and Collins 1993; Loughran and Corrigan 1995; Wolf and Dietz 1998). Karsenti et al. (2014, pp. 3487–3488) suggest that e-portfolios in pre-service teacher education have four key functions: "exposure, reflective, social, and assessment". The exposure function is exemplified by using portfolios as part of the job search process while the assessment function is related to the provision of an overview of processes and outcomes of the professional learning of both university teachers and pre-service teachers. The social function could be displayed through better communication among pre-service teachers and their university supervisors, school mentors and peers. No matter portfolios or e-portfolios, the key purpose remains the same, which is reflection (Zull 2002).

Pre-service teachers are the ones that benefit the most from the use of e-portfolios as their reflective competencies are being developed. This chapter focuses on the potential of e-portfolios for building the capacity of pre-service teacher students for reflection, the challenges faced by various stakeholders and suggestions of how these challenges may be addressed. It then aims to provide a holistic approach for the sustainable use of e-portfolios in pre-service teacher education programmes.

10.2 Potential of e-portfolios for Pre-service Teachers

The current literature shows that e-portfolios may improve pre-service teachers' higher order thinking and develop their reflection competencies (e.g. Tobias 1994). A study at a United Arab Emirates national university revealed that pre-service teachers perceived the following benefits of using e-portfolios (Forawi et al. 2012): documentation of work, improvement of creative thinking skills, improvement of information technology skills, assessment of own progress; and understanding of future classroom technology. More important, the opportunities to reflect upon their field experiences allowed them to develop their planning and management competencies, and their capacity to learn how to learn (Beck and Bear 2009; Drucker 2008).

10.2.1 Enhancing Pre-service Teachers' Learning Interest and Initial Reflective Thinking

The use of e-portfolios can promote tertiary students' learning interest and enthusiasm thus outcomes (Renninger et al. 1992; Tobias 1994). For instance, in some studies (e.g. Li 2001; Yin 2013), comparisons of students' motivation and learning outcomes were identified before and after the programs adopted e-portfolios. It was found that the students' motivation was largely improved with the use of e-portfolios because they could proactively plan their own learning improvement after classes. In these actively planned after-class learning activities, the students consequently became more enthusiastic in reviewing, or even critically and reflectively thinking about what had been learnt.

10.2.2 Improving Pre-service Teachers' Higher-Level Reflective Thinking Capacities

E-portfolios allow students' reflections to be shared, reviewed and discussed among peers. These sharing and discussions may provide a platform for the building of online communities (Downes 2005). In the pre-service teacher education context, a community is regarded as an opportunity to "invite passionate conversation on a multitude of ideas about learning that advance the understanding of teaching" (Duckworth 1997, p. 9). Accordingly, in this online community, the pre-service teacher students review their peers' understanding about knowledge and teaching practices mediated by the e-portfolios shared.

   This peer reviewing activity promotes higher-level thinking of students because they have to learn about their teachers' requirements and evaluation standards. Based on these required standards, critical evaluations are then carried out of their peers' understanding of teaching knowledge and practices (Topping 1998). Consequently, their critical thinking and evaluation capabilities of teaching may improve. These higher-level critical thinking, evaluation of others' knowledge and teaching practices consequently enhance their own reflection capacities (Tosh et al. 2006).

10.2.3 Enhancing Reflection Capacities to Fill the Gaps Between Knowledge and Teaching Practice

In reality, these higher-level self-reflections by the pre-service teachers are more likely to be observed at the university course level with a focus on theories and ideas than at the practical level of the field experience (Beck and Bear 2009). According to Wray (2007), the processes of developing e-portfolio during their field

experience usually require pre-service teachers to think about their teaching practices from their own perspective, and make links to the knowledge that they have acquired through their university courses. However, pre-service teachers are most likely to be new to real practices as teachers and hence, there are usually a huge gap between their knowledge and teaching practice. Li (2001) explains how a teacher educator in China uses technologies in his course on "Chinese Curriculum and Teaching Theory". The course website has been constructed for case teaching and a blog group has been created as a learning community. Pre-service teachers are encouraged to use the blog to enhance their reflection and practical knowledge.

Some common problems experienced by pre-service teachers during their teaching practice identified in literature are classroom management and teaching diversities (e.g. different levels and cultures) of students (Arends and Castle 1991). The pre-service teachers may engage in reflections about the challenges or issues in their teaching practice and then record them in e-portfolios. The mentors could then give guidance with suggestions and comments to support them in addressing the challenging and issues that would enhance their teaching and learning practices during the field experience (Beck and Bear 2009).

10.2.4 Developing Planning and Learning-to-Learn Competencies

The opportunities for ongoing reflection with support from peers and mentors may allow pre-service teachers to develop their planning and learning-to-learn competencies. Through reflections about learning and teaching practices, e-portfolio provides opportunities for pre-service teachers to become active learners. They set goals for learning, engage in self-reflections, review goals periodically and assume responsibility for their own learning and teaching practices (Venezky and Oney 2004).

For instance, according to Li (2001), the pre-service teachers in the programme who have developed their own e-portfolios are more aware of their own strengths and weaknesses in their teaching practice, and are able to rationalize them with teaching and learning theories. Theses constant reflections about their strengths and weaknesses lead to more concrete planning for their professional learning and career (Borko 2004; Pelliccione et al. 2005); a learning-to-learn competency is necessary for the professional learning and development of teachers (Drucker 2008).

10.2.5 Showing Evidences of Teaching Competency to Accreditation Bodies and Future Employers

In some countries such as Canada, the United States (US) and Australia, there are external professional accreditation requirements for teacher education programmes. In a Canadian university, a team of teacher educators have developed a set of

standards in which courses and practicum and seminars were aligned and cross-referenced with and supported by sources of evidence (Hopper and Sanford 2010). A STARR framework was established with components of "situation, task, action, response, reflection" which linked with programme experiences (through courses and practicum and seminars) and the e-portfolio structure based on the social constructivist foundation (Hopper and Sanford 2010, pp. 5–6). Such a direction of development facilitates pre-service teachers to "gain confidence to take ownership of teacher certification" (p. 24).

In the US, e-portfolios have facilitated the accreditation process of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education as reviewers could read online portfolios. It also allows easy sharing, and a more comprehensive and longer-lasting record of artifacts produced by teachers (Milman and Adamy 2009, p. viiii). This has made e-portfolios increasingly used in teacher education programmes. For example, the pre-service teachers at the University of Maryland and Bowie State University used the platforms of TK20 and Taskstream respectively to keep the "standards-based exit e-portfolios" that documented their professional development and showed the effects of their teaching on student achievement. The pre-service teachers were encouraged to share their e-portfolios with their school mentors, university teachers and prospective employers (Schwartz-Bechet and Garin 2012, p. 254).

An additional benefit is that the pre-service teachers can easily pick up what they like from these formative e-portfolios to compose a summative journal. It can be an evidence to show their capabilities to employers. These capabilities are not only their teaching competencies but also twenty-first century competencies such as learning-how-to-learn, critical thinking and global perceptiveness (Reese and Levy 2009).

10.3   Challenges in the Use of e-portfolios in Pre-service Teacher Education

E-portfolios have the potential to cultivate pre-service teachers' lifelong learning competencies through reflecting on their own and others' learning and teaching practices, and planning and revising their practices during their field experience and professional learning,. However, there are challenges associated to the implementation of e-portfolios. They are identified and discussed, and attempts are then made to address them in the following sections.

10.3.1   Pre-service Teachers' Lack of Reflection in a Constructive Way

Reflection involves a cycle of selection, describing, analyzing, appraising, and transforming (Robbins 2004) constructively. However, many pre-service teachers may not have prior experiences of reflection in their learning or for the learning (e.g.

Hartmann and Calandra 2007; Wang and Turner 2006). A Taiwanese study has shown that pre-service English teachers tended to upload pictures, class presentations and class projects onto their blogs or e-portfolios with no or very little critical reflection of the learning processes or outcomes (Chien 2013).

Teacher educators usually focus on explaining the guidelines before and during the use of e-portfolios but ignore the underlying philosophies of and basic knowledge of reflection. This may cause students to mechanically develop their e-portfolios based on the guidelines (Wang and Turner 2006). When pre-service teachers fail to see the value of e-portfolios for their learning, they may lose interest in developing their e-portfolios and end up perceiving e-portfolios as another set of assessment tasks that is not meaningful or relevant to them. In contrast, understanding underlying philosophies of and the steps involved in reflection are more likely to engage pre-service teachers in the development of e-portfolios (Wray 2007).

To address this issue, it is vital to facilitate pre-service teachers' awareness of performance and authentic assessment through e-portfolios and improvement of teaching performance through mentoring and reflection. A "five-step" e-portfolio assessment model involves "rubric evaluation", "qualitative evaluation of assignment", "qualitative evaluation of students' (pre-service teachers') perceptions", "quantitative evaluation of students' (pre-service teachers') perceptions of using technology" and "qualitative evaluation of using technology in classroom teaching" (Bartlett 2009, pp. 51–53).

Parkes et al. (2013, pp. 101–102) propose that pre-service teachers could be guided to master the four steps for critical reflection, namely "collecting" evidences, "selecting" key artefacts through critical evaluation, "reflecting" on experiences, and "connecting" elements; hence, enhancing their readiness for the teaching profession. It is also suggested that pre-service teachers' ability to critically reflect could be cultivated and improved by various forms of coaching. Lectures and workshops that focus on how to engage in critical reflection of one's learning and teaching practices may be organized before pre-service teachers start developing their e-portfolios (Hartmann and Calandra 2007). Pre-service teachers may also be presented with the different types of e-portfolios. For example, the field experience e-portfolios' main target audience are their mentors, university supervisors and peers, and its main purpose is for them to reflect on their own teaching and learning experiences and improve upon them based on the input of the target audience. During the final year, the pre-service teachers may develop summative e-portfolios for career seeking purpose to showcase their competencies with evidences gathered during their learning journey (Wang and Turner 2006).

For those e-portfolios to be shared with the mentor teachers and university supervisors, the content selection criteria may focus on those questions or issues during the field experience that could not be addressed by the pre-service teachers. The mentor teachers and supervisors may guide the pre-service teachers to describe these questions or issues clearly and appropriately with the elements of what, when, where, who, which and how. The pre-service teachers would analyze it with theories and concepts that they have learnt from the classes and literature; they would then document these analyses in their e-portfolios. The support of the mentors and super-

visors are pivotal for the pre-service teachers to engage in these processes (Robbins 2004). Therefore, the mentors and supervisors have to possess the capacity to identify and evaluate evidences of reflective abilities of pre-service teachers based on aspects or criteria of "focus", "analytical process" and "openness" in the e-portfolios. These criteria may then be communicated to pre-service teachers on the expectations of reflections documents in the e-portfolios (Sulzen 2011, pp. 218–219).

10.3.2   Lack of Clarity of Roles Among Mentors, University Supervisors and Pre-service Teachers

Pre-service teachers may not engage in the development of e-portfolios due to programme management issues such as unclear roles of mentors, university supervisors and pre-service teachers. The pre-service teachers' e-portfolios during the field experience may not receive any feedback from their mentor teachers and supervisors, and may lead to a loss of their interest in developing the e-portfolios (Seago 2004). The lack of feedback may be due to unclear definition of roles of mentors and supervisors; they may not have clear guidelines of how they should supervise and support their pre-service teachers mediated by the e-portfolios (Lim and Khine 2006; Seago 2004).

The mentors and supervisors have to keep themselves updated of their pre-service teachers' e-portfolios and provide feedback to them in a timely manner to encourage them improve upon their teaching and learning practices. The university supervisors could serve as role models for the mentor teachers with respect to the provision of feedback and the guidance for pre-service teachers to engage in critical reflection (Armstrong 2009). For instance, regular meetings with mentors could be initiated to discuss issues and solutions in the use of e-portfolios. Similarly, mentors could also be role models for pre-service teachers with respect to critical reflection and planning for the enhancement of teaching and learning in the classroom (Seago 2004).

10.3.3   Lack of Motivation of Pre-service Teachers to Engage in the Development of e-portfolios

The potentials of e-portfolios may not be fully taken up during the field experience due to the lack of motivation of pre-service teachers to engage in the development of e-portfolios (Lim and Khine 2006). This lack of motivation may be due to a lack of trust between the mentors, supervisors and pre-service teachers, a lack of feedback by mentors and supervisors to the pre-service teachers and a lack of communication about the embedded practices in the field experience (McLaughlin and Talbert 2001). The first two factors have been discussed in the sub-section above.

For the third one, pre-service teachers may assume that their mentors and supervisors are interested in discussing their ideas and documents about teaching and learning e.g. pedagogical strategies. In reality, their mentors and supervisors may focus on factors that have impacted their teaching practices e.g. classroom management and relationship with students (Ball 1994; McLaughlin and Talbert 2001; Seago 2004).

In the context of Hong Kong, the Hong Kong Institute of Education has introduced e-portfolios for pre-service teachers to showcase their competencies and document their learning process through reflection during their field experience (Ng et al. 2013). Some external factors were identified to affect the pre-service teachers' motivation to use e-portfolios such as perceived benefits and ease of use. In the case of the Chinese University of Hong Kong, a blog-based portfolio (i.e., http://plate. fed.cuhk.edu.hk) has been implemented for a pre-service English Language education programme (Tang and Lam 2014). The effectiveness of an online learning community (OLC) hinges on how pre-service teachers view the value of the blog, implications for assessment, logistical issues such as work and uploading schedules, support from community members, the characteristics of mentors who have the willingness to share experiences with pre-service teachers and their grouping.

In the case of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University where e-portfolios were not used for teacher education but for showcasing the processes and outcomes of English language learning by students from various disciplines. There were still some dominant themes for e-portfolios that warrant attention by teacher educators: availability of choice for students so as to build up a sense of ownership; provision of teacher feedback; having technical competencies to develop their own e-portfolios; and positive perceptions by both teachers and students of e-portfolios as a self-directed learning tool (Chau and Cheng 2010).

Another example is the case of a Canadian University where an action research has been conducted to analyze the e-portfolio process (Hopper and Sanford 2010). The findings revealed that some pre-service teachers needed to overcome their resistance and built up their understanding of the value of e-portfolios that shifted gradually from a tool for seeking jobs to a vehicle for reflection. The support from technology support colleagues, university faculty members and field experience coordinators were important. In Taiwan, suggestions were made for enhancing the use of e-portfolios in language teacher education programmes, which entailed the flexibility of using user-friendly blogs or multimedia and incorporated regular checking (Chien 2013).

Therefore, teacher education institutions could devote more attention and efforts to enhance the receptivity of mentor teachers, university supervisors and pre-service teachers towards e-portfolios as a tool and strategy that is conducive to pre-service teachers' professional learning. Pre-service teachers could be offered choice and flexibility in the development of e-portfolios to enhance their sense of ownership. Supervisors and mentors could clearly state the embedded practices in the field experience before and during the development of e-portfolios. Collaborative professional development between university supervisors and mentor teachers in school is

desirable to enhance the capacity of both partners in integrating teacher education with technology (Schwartz-Bechet and Garin 2012).

For encouraging pre-service teachers to communicate their unsolved problems or difficulties, the supervisors and mentors could provide a platform for sharing. Experiences of past pre-service teachers could be shared about the difficulties that they have encountered and how they have been resolved. In addition, to encourage pre-service teachers' active sharing of their e-portfolios, the supervisors and mentors could get the pre-service teachers to form a small group to initially share their field experience practices and issues, and gradually sharing their e-portfolios with one another. The supervisors and mentors may need to facilitate and scaffold the feedback and comments given by the pre-service teachers to one another.

10.4   Conclusion: The Sustainable Use of e-portfolios for Lifelong Learning

The development of e-portfolios for reflections may build pre-service teachers' capacity for lifelong learning. In such a case, the sustainable use of e-portfolios has a significant impact on teachers' professional lives and careers. However, the current literature on the use of technology in education suggests that technological innovations are difficult to sustain in education settings due to a lack of a holistic approach towards their implementation (Cohen et al. 2003; Dede 1991). There may be a lack of shared vision for the use of technology to enhance teaching and learning. This section proposes a holistic approach for the sustainable use of e-portfolios by pre-service teachers.

To achieve the vision of developing teachers' lifelong learning capabilities (EC 2000), teacher educators could develop programme outcomes that require the evidences of these outcomes to be documented and presented in e-portfolios (Cohen et al. 2003). The very basic point to maintain the sustainability of pre-service teachers developing and sharing their e-portfolios is to arouse and maintain their interest. The pre-service teachers have to see the value of e-portfolios for their professional development and career trajectory, and they have to be supported as they are developing their own e-portfolios.

Based on the PebblePad platform experiences in Australian higher institutions, it is recommended to embed as many tasks and units as available, and as early as possible throughout the programme in the e-portfolios (Roberts 2014). Moreover, given the context of rapidly changing technology, teacher educators and university supervisors may offer choices for pre-service teachers to experiment with different platforms and host their own e-portfolios so that they could sustain their e-portfolios beyond graduation (Parkes et al. 2013).

Trainings, coaching and feedback on their reflections could prevent pre-service teachers from losing interest and enthusiasm in the development of e-portfolios. Pre-service teachers' capacity for critical reflection has to be gradually built through

workshops that focus on how to reflect, modelling and facilitation by mentors, teacher educators and peers, and opportunities to develop their e-portfolios with feedback by mentors, teacher educators and peers. The roles of all stakeholders of the e-portfolios have to be clearly defined, and embedded practices have to be communicated to all stakeholders. In the long run, school mentors could be trained and supported to use e-portfolio in their daily teaching practices so that close connections could be established between the practices in the teacher education programme in the university and practices of teachers in the schools (Chen 2005).

The pre-service teachers should be provided with the opportunities to engage in reflections mediated by their e-portfolios throughout the course of the study. They start from their learning journals as after-class self-directed assessment. Their reflection capacities are further built upon to a higher-level thinking through peer reviewing activities. They could critically evaluate peers' and their own understanding of knowledge and teaching practice based on the programmes' and teacher educators' required standards.

This higher-level thinking at the knowledge level may be further enhanced to address the gaps between knowledge and practice with the support of their mentors and university supervisors during their field experience. With these constant reflections guided by mentors and supervisors, the pre-service teachers become more aware of their strengths and weaknesses; thus constantly reviewing and fine-tuning their professional development plans. All these lay the foundation of lifelong learning competencies.

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Chapter 11
Preservice Teachers' Reflective Journaling: A Way to Know Culture

Cheryl J. Craig, Yali Zou, and Gayle Curtis

11.1 Introduction

In the aftermath of the dissolution of the Soviet Union, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) focused on a new vision of education for the former Soviet Bloc countries. However, as UNESCO set about its task, it recognized that not only were the countries of the former Soviet Union in need of altering their educational focus, so, too, was the rest of the world. It seems the problems UNESCO identified not only existed in the northern part of Eurasia but manifested themselves globally as well. What resulted was *Learning: The treasure within* (Delors et al. 1996), a document also referred to as the Delors Report in the academic literature. What this comprehensive 1996 vision of education declared was that education has four functions: (1) learning how to know; (2) learning how to do; (3) learning how to live in community; and (4) learning how to be (Delors et al. 1996). The report then went on to say that education internationally has done a reasonably good job of defining and accomplishing its first two tasks. However, it largely leaves the latter two foci unattended, while contributing indirectly to both. Fourteen years later in 2010, UNESCO again addressed education in its High Level Report on Sustainability (UNESCO 2010). In that document, it cautioned that if humanity does not focus on a "future worth having," the result will be "the future it gets." Together, these vision statements—one issued in 1996; the other

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in 2010—present formidable challenges for educators globally. Educators are being called upon to assume a broader mission and to intentionally deal with learning how to live in community and learning how to be. If such orientations are not taken up, UNESCO has warned, the quality of human life is globally in peril (UNESCO 2010).

In this chapter, we address this daunting international challenge from a preservice teacher education perspective. From the outset, we assert that reflection is critically important to learning how to know, learning how to do, learning how to live in community, and learning how to be. We also know that reflection can take many forms, occur in many venues and serve many purposes. For example, reflection can be explicitly taught and/or implicitly cultivated in undergraduate and master's level teacher education programmes and can contribute greatly to the quality of said programs and the teachers prepared by them. On the whole, we favor Connelly and Clandinin's (2004) response to one of the most pernicious issues underlying the teacher education-teacher quality debate worldwide: the question of how quality teachers are formally prepared in teacher education programmes. Connelly and Clandinin maintain that:

> …formal teacher education… [is]…important. But… there is more for most [teacher candidates] to learn by coming, self-consciously, to grips with their own teacher knowledge than with what may be learned [about] knowledge or skills …from others]…Formal [teacher educators], must, of course, continue their work. This work should, [however], be done [with] an understanding of the significance of informal teacher education and, therefore, with a humble spirit and with modest expectations (p. 42).

The initiative described in this chapter—a travel study abroad trip to China—is an explicit form of preparation in that several East Asian destinations were intentionally visited and "studied" by 2004–2012 undergraduate and graduate teacher education students, among others (students from other faculties, members of the community). However, the experiential meaning (Dewey 1938) that the aforementioned teacher candidates made of the planned activities through reflective journal writing was diffuse and uniquely their own. In a sense, the University of Houston's China Study Abroad Program was the formal vehicle that allowed the U.S. preservice teachers to informally come to know a culture different than their own and to better understand themselves and their intercultural interactions with people from China. The purpose of this chapter is to illuminate how our preservice teachers' knowledge expanded as they unavoidably compared and contrasted life in Eastern and Western societies. Given that "culture is dynamic, complex, interactive, and changing," we explore—through sampling reflective journal passages written longitudinally (2004–2012) by undergraduate and master's level teacher education candidates—the ways culture determines how they think, believe, and behave, and how this, in turn, affects how [they] teach and learn" (Gay 2010, pp. 8–10). Understanding these intimately related connections is prerequisite for people learning how to live in community and learning how to be in diverse schools lodged in a global society.

Six strands of international literature inform this inquiry into journal writing as a way to know culture: (1) reflection; (2) writing as a way of knowing; (3) journal writing; (4) travel study abroad; (5) culture; and (6) narrative exemplars.

11.2   Reflection

Reflection, to Day (1993), is "necessary" but "not sufficient" on its own for quality preservice or in-service teacher development; confrontation by others and/or self is concurrently needed. Journal writing, it seems, provides a reflective writing space for confrontation with self and others. Also, placing too much focus on cognition in reflection, Malm (2009) warned, enables "the technical" to be emphasized at the expense of the personal. This results in "how to" things being reflected upon in teacher education instead of matters related to being and becoming. Part of one's being and becoming as a teacher includes emotions and emotional reactions when one meets face-to-face with situations that challenge or alter one's perspective. Knowles and Cole (1995) supported this viewpoint as well. Kelchtermans (2005, 2009) urged that teachers' vulnerability be foregrounded in teacher preparation and that emotional responses be considered a part of that vulnerability. Sutton (2005) likewise called for a focus on the emotion-related dimension of teachers' work. For Kelchtermans, emotional and emotive parts of teaching are inescapable. Part of these aspects of teaching are necessarily called forth when working intimately with youth from diverse cultural, ethnic, religious, socio-economic, etc. backgrounds. Emotional responses to situations unavoidably affect teachers' identities (Kelchtermans 2007; Beijaard et al. 2004) or "stories to live by" expressed in narrative terms (Connelly and Clandinin 1999). Korthagen (1993) called for right hemisphere reflection as a way to address the "non-rational"—feelings, gut responses, intuitions, hunches, subtle nuances of situations, etc. For him, reflection calls for "the mirroring of something" (p. 321). "The idea of a mirror," he said "is helpful because it makes clear that there are different mirrors" (p. 321). He went on to explain that one of these mirrors could be "rational" and other mirrors might very well be "non-rational"—that is, reflecting dimensions of humanity that do not conform to rationality. In the end result, Korthagen realized that all reflective mirroring is imperfect. By its very nature, a mirror cannot capture every human dimension (e.g., it cannot reproduce living, breathing, thinking, movement of bodily flesh). However, a non-rational mirror still captures more human dimensions than any rational mirror that is held up. Understood from this perspective, human reflection is the closest we can come to capturing/mirroring real-world experiences in teacher education.

11.3   Writing as a Way of Knowing

Thus far, we have established that coming to know culture via experiential journaling is not simply something that happens in the rational mind. The basic act of being immersed in another's culture is a bodily experience; it is corporeal; it is somatic. It is lived in the body and reflected upon by a mind in a body and a body in a mind (Johnson 1989; Lakoff and Johnson 1999). It is also physically written about by a

hand attached to a body. Jordi (2010) stressed that intuitive feelings and reactions are corporeally felt. In fact, this embodied sense of knowing fuels both rational and non-rational knowledge development. The body naturally deals with "the mess of human experience" (p. 182). Among these experiences, Jordi includes "discomforts, emotions, intuitions and imagination" (p. 184). All of these dimensions are closely linked with intercultural interactions and teacher education experiences.

Part of journaling about the China Study Abroad Program necessarily involves the written "sequencing of experience" (Welty 1994). This invariably leads to serial interpretation (Schwab 1983) of multiple situations and the remembering of self in those situations over time. What begins as an inner dialogue is made public through students' written journal entries. Further to this, Jordi (2010) believes there is "a kind of knowing that is embedded in the body that does not have words" (p. 192). Reflective journaling may be a vehicle that helps China Study Abroad participants to put words to experiences that have not previously been reflected upon and analyzed in verbal ways. Thus, contrary to the popular view that writing is a mode of telling, writing is, in fact, a method of discovery and reflective analysis (Hilcocks 1995)—in other words, a way of knowing (Richardson 2006). When writing, preservice students use their own voices (Miller 1990) to draw on their personal experiences of the world as teacher (Taylor 1969), and develop their narrative authority (Olson 1995) as situated speakers interpreting Chinese travel sites and experiences as they individually perceive them (Conle 1997, 2000). Reflective writing situates travel study participants at a crossroads between the physicality of a travel destination and all that it has to offer, on one hand, and what the travel study participants personally bring to the experience (Elbaz-Luwisch 2001) and what they are able to learn in the throes of it (Conle et al. 2002), on the other hand. Writing can make study experiences, threshold or liminal experiences (Anazaldúa 1987; Clandinin et al. 2013; Heilbrun 1999), which create disequilibrium—a sense of being neither here nor there—and transform run-of-the-mill tourism into mindful travel. Such traveling may leave learners who were once immersed in it irreversibly changed (Currie 2000) from a preservice teacher identity perspective. In fact, dialogues about encounters of difference (e.g., Conle 1997; Fendler 2003) are probably the only way to shift polarized positions among individuals of different races, belief systems and political inclinations (e.g., Li et al. 2000; Phillion 2002; Phillion et al. 2008; Xu 2011). Such shifting, we would argue, is vital to the development of preservice teachers' cultural consciousness, a highly controversial matter in teacher quality discussions in the U.S.

11.4   China Study Abroad Program

University-based travel abroad programmes have for some time been an accepted mode of study to promote student knowledge and skill development (e.g., Dolby 2007; Engle and Engle 2005; Mahon and Stachowski 1990), as well as intercultural awareness and worldmindedness (Carlson and Widaman 1988; Phillion and

Malewski 2011; Phillion et al. 2009). The trend which began in Western nations (e.g., U.S., Australia) has now spread to Eastern nations (e.g., Japan, Singapore). Most recently, travel study as a form of teacher education has been introduced in the U.S. (i.e., Ochoa 2010; Phillion et al. 2009). The merit of such an approach is that it awakens preservice teachers to how class, gender, and race impact their interpretations of their lived experiences in schools and communities at home and abroad (Malewski and Phillion 2009).

Since 1995, the China Study Abroad Program, the travel abroad programme discussed in this chapter, has served faculty, students and community members. The China Study Abroad Program is an offering of the Asian American Studies Center at the University of Houston. The Center aims to generate knowledge and cultural understandings, increase awareness and foster appreciation of the Asian and Asian American experience in the U.S. and abroad. In the over 17 years that the China Study Abroad Program has been lived by students and faculty, there have been many different iterations of the travel experience. Sometimes undergraduate, graduate and faculty participate; other times, only graduate students and faculty; and, on still other occasions, a mixture of undergraduate and graduate students and community members form the cohort. Most times there is great racial and ethnic diversity in the composition of the groups. Sometimes the travel period is 2 weeks; other times, 1 month. Sometimes Tianjin and Hong Kong are on the itinerary; other times they are not visited. But one given underlies all of these variations: the China Study Abroad Program offers students, faculty and members of the community authentic experiences of life in China during their travel study abroad.

In this chapter, as foreshadowed, the focus is on the China Study Abroad experiences of undergraduate and graduate teacher education students who participated in the program between 2004 and 2012. The courses associated with the China Study Abroad Program were optional degree plan requirements for those enrolled in teacher education degree programmes. The trips included visits to several schools, universities, museums and other cultural venues (opera, temples, mosques, cloisonné factory, calligraphy and artist studios, etc.) in addition to markets, malls and popular tourist sites. Regular journal entries were written as well as assigned papers. The intent was to expand understandings of ethnic and cultural diversity within Chinese urban settings through as much immersion and exposure to cultural difference as possible.

11.5 Culture

Human beings in their earliest stages of development are socialized by those with whom they most intimately live. They naturally begin to identify with the stories of the specific cultural communities to which they belong and adhere to particular values and beliefs (Hollins 1996). In this way,

… [they] learn…traditions, assumptions, and even misconceptions and internalize them. In time, these become the lens through which [they] look at the world and make judgments about others who do not share such cultural beliefs and worldview. When these beliefs are not confronted, questioned and examined, they become obstacles as [humans] encounter and interact with other people… (Ukpokodu 2011, p. 437)

Because "culture [unavoidably has] an integral and omnipresent influence" (Ukpokodu 2011, p. 436) on teaching and learning, it is imperative that preservice and in-service educators develop "cultural competence" (Cross et al. 1989; Gallavan 2010; Williams 2001). Cultural competence refers to:

one's ability, dispositions and behavior to successfully function, negotiate and navigate across cultural contexts, build and sustain positive cross-cultural interactions and relationships with others, and more importantly, in their professional responsibilities effectively service individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds (Ukpokodu 2011, p. 437).

For Ladson-Billing (2001), a quality teacher is a culturally competent one who is not only cognizant of his/her own culture, but is also intimately aware of the cultures of the students with whom s/he interacts. Such an educator "…takes responsibility for learning about students' culture and community, uses student culture as a basis for learning, and promotes a flexible use of students' local and global culture…" (Ladson-Billing 2001, p. 98). This cultural consciousness extends to "knowledge of the larger sociopolitical context of the school, community, nation, and world" (Ladson-Billing 2001, p. 98). In a sense, such teachers engage in "cultural brokerage" (Gay 1999) mediating "cultural incompatibilities" to build "bridges across cultures" (p. 345) while increasing their own quality as teachers. Embracing their cultural agency, they attend to misunderstandings and silences through employing what Spindler and Spindler (1994) and others (Zou 2001; Zou and Trueba 1998) term "cultural therapy." Cultural therapy is "a process of cultural reflection on one's own ethnicity, race, class and status" (Trueba and Zou 1994, p. 196) that aids preservice teachers in coming to terms with "cultural continuities and discontinuities in [their] values, perspectives and lifestyle" (Trueba and Zou 1994, p. 197). In sum, all of the China Study Abroad trip's interactions were meant to heighten preservice students' intercultural awareness and to add to their personal and professional qualities as prospective teachers.

11.6 Narrative Exemplars

According to Lyons and LaBoskey (2002), narrative exemplars are "*concrete examples…elaborated so that members of a relevant research community can judge for themselves their 'trustworthiness' and the validity of observations, interpretations,* etc." (Lyons and LaBoskey 2002, p. 20, italics in original). In a nutshell, they are lifelike (Mishler 1990) and "true for now" (Bruner 1986). Narrative exemplars, regardless of the topic of investigation, share five characteristics. They: (1) capture intentional human actions that not only tell a story, but convey developing

knowledge of those involved; (2) are lodged in socially and contextually embedded situations; (3) draw other people into the mix as the narrative exemplar is unpacked; (4) implicate people's identities; and (5) focus on interpretation, often including different points of view (Lyons and LaBoskey 2002). In essence, they are the closest we can come to communicating the truthlikeness of the travel experiences of the participating preservice teachers between 2004 and 2012.

11.7 Examples of Coming to Know Culture through Reflective Writing

Having presented our six-pronged literature review revolving around reflection, writing as a way of knowing, journal writing, China Study Abroad, culture and narrative exemplars, we are now able to present our narrative accounts in the words and voices of preservice teachers residing in the fourth largest urban center in the U.S. We organize these narrative exemplars around the definition of culture forwarded by Gay. We used Gay's definition to open this chapter and to frame a previous article as well (Craig et al. 2015). To repeat what Gay had to say, culture determines how people think, what they believe, and how they behave. In the exemplars we proffer, we lay 20 preservice educators' China Study Abroad understandings of what the Chinese think, believe and behave alongside what they themselves thought, believed and behaved. We begin with thinking and the preservice teachers' unedited responses.

11.8 How People Think

11.8.1 Narrative Exemplar of What the Chinese Think Combined with Our Preservice Teachers' Thoughts

To start, we combine excerpts from six preservice students' journals to convey what they, as participants in the University of Houston's China Study Abroad Program over time, thought when they visited the Great Wall of China. We begin with what a Black student teacher, Petra, had to say, which was similar to what a White student teacher, Maureen, wrote.

Passage 1—Petra (Black Female)
I visited the Great Wall of China on my birthday. What a spectacular site! *No photos or movies can do it justice. It is an amazing feat that speaks to the tenacity and ingenuity of the Chinese people. No wonder our guide and the Chinese locals are so proud of it. I think I understand the Chinese better having visited the Great Wall.* (Student Journal Entry 2007)

Passage 2—Maureen (White Female)
We climbed the Great Wall of China. Wow!!!…At the bottom, I saw a sign perched in the mountainside that said: "One World: One Dream" [The slogan China used for the 2008 Olympic Games]. What a positive message the Chinese are giving each and every visitor. (Student Journal Entry 2009)

We now move on to what four other preservice teachers, Marcus, a Hispanic male, Arlene, a White female, Maria, a Hispanic female, and Ashley, a White female, wrote on the occasion of visiting the Great Wall of China. Their reflections, which are quite different, unfurled this way:

Passage 3—Marcus (Hispanic Male)
The Great Wall of China kept the Mongols out and the Chinese in. The same can be said of the Berlin Wall. It kept communism in and democracy out, depending on which side of the wall you were on. Now, there is talk of a border wall between the U.S. and Mexico. I have to ask: "What is being kept out and held in? How am I to make sense of this? How am I to explain this to the minority youth I will teach?" (Student Journal Entry 2011)

Passage 4—Arlene (White Female)
I honestly wasn't as excited as I thought I should have been about this trip. This most likely was a result of my own prejudgments…I had always thought of the Chinese as very homogeneous, as a nation running long on traditions, and a place of relatively narrow minds. To the contrary, however, after experiencing the Great Wall and other sites, I can admit to my misconceptions. What I saw with my own eyes and heard with my own ears taught me in ways I never thought possible. (Student Journal Entry 2010)

Passage 5—Maria (Hispanic Female)
The trip to the Great Wall was a turning point for me. I am so glad I had the opportunity to visit this "wonder of the world," which is so special to the Chinese. Because of this trip, I have a better understanding of why Asian students and parents act the way they do. I am better prepared to serve the Asian population I will encounter in schools when I become a teacher. (Student Journal Entry 2006)

Passage 6—Ashley (White Female)
I must admit, as I climbed the Great Wall today, I found myself thinking about completing my degree and beginning my career as a teacher in Houston's urban schools. For some reason, climbing the Great Wall caused me to link these challenges. I know both will be trying and difficult but joy will come through perseverance and determination. I left the Great Wall with a renewed sense of excitement at all that lies ahead! Who would have thought that this would have been the lasting impression I would take with me? (Student Journal Entry 2008)

Having showcased reflective texts elicited during the travel study excursion to the Great Wall of China, we now proceed to what the preservice teachers learned on the trip about what the Chinese believe and how they made sense of those beliefs in light of their own stances.

11.9   What People Believe

11.9.1   Narrative Exemplar of What the Chinese Believe and What Our Teacher Education Students Believed

To inquire into what our preservice teachers believed in reference to what the Chinese believe, we feature passages about particular cultural practices that three of our preservice students observed.

> Passage 1—Donna (White Female)
> *At the Temple of Heaven today, I experienced an incredible feeling of peace and tranquility. Something in particular caught my attention: an older gentleman squatting very closely, very protectively, next to a toddler (1-year old) on a swing… Something about the way he was watching the little boy, something in his eyes, made me truly understand the hopes and dreams he had for the little boy and just how much he loved him. I am so impressed with the emphasis on family in Chinese culture, especially today as we visited the Temple of Heaven and saw all the grandparents interacting with their grandbabies…I think it is something that we are losing/have lost in the U.S. I feel we could improve our society and schools if we had more children with actively involved grandparents.* (Student Journal Entry 2005)

> Passage 2—Victor (White Male)
> *I was glad to see the Buddhist Temple and to experience it. I really got a feel for Buddhism when I saw it upfront and personal. I am used to living in a place where all I see is Christian churches, so to go to a different continent where you see different religions being practiced was an education that books cannot provide.* (Student Journal Entry 2009)

> Passage 3—Marla (Hispanic Female)
> *Although I am older than most in our group, I have never visited a mosque. In fact, I don't even know where a mosque is located in my city. It's just not something people do, given the current political situation. However, in China, different places of worship are more in the open. I learned more about the Muslim faith through personally visiting the mosque than I could have through any other means. In my church, women cover their shoulders and arms; in the mosque, females cover their heads, shoulders and arms. Also, people of both faiths (Christianity and Islam) show their reverence of a higher being through prayer.*
>   *Later:*
>   *In the Buddhist Temple, people prayed in different directions after burning incense. I also found this instructive.* (Student Journal Entry 2008)

With attention paid to what the preservice teachers learned about what the Chinese believe and how the students, in turn, made sense of it, we now turn to the final clause of Gay's definition of culture: how people behave, which directly relates to how people think and what people believe.

11.10 How People Behave

11.10.1 Narrative Exemplar of How the Chinese Behave and How Our Preservice Teachers Reacted to Their Encounters with an Unknown Culture

In this section, we focus on three behaviors: Chinese crowd behavior, how the Chinese responded to seeing Black-skinned human beings in Western-style dress (African Americans) for the first time, and what/how the Chinese eat. Where Chinese crowd behavior is concerned, we focus attention on the reflections of George, a White male, Rebecca, a Hispanic female, Rob, a White male, and Arlene, a White female. Concerning seeing African Americans for the first time, we center on what Renee, a Hispanic female, Linda, a White female and Samuel, an African American male, had to say.

Crowd Behavior

Passage 1—George (White Male)
Beijing reminded me of New York—it is a city that does not sleep. The one difference is that the Chinese push and shove, which I find rude. (Student Journal Entry 2004)

Passage 2—Rebecca (Hispanic Female)
We Americans like a foot or more of personal space around us. This is not the case with the Chinese. They constantly invade our space. In all fairness, I think it has to be that way because of China's population density… (Student Journal Entry 2006)

Passage 3—Rob (White Male)
Every culture defines proper distance. Westerners, particularly Americans like me, find the Chinese comfort zone a bit too close for comfort. Many times I found my space invaded. It made me angry when people pushed and shoved in line. I was irritated until I realized that their perception of this issue is different than my own. I realized that the only way people can get things done in China is by being aggressive and getting ahead of someone else. (Student Journal Entry 2011)

Passage 4—Arlene (White Female)
It was absolute bedlam at the Xi'an train station. The poverty I saw in the crowd gathered there brought me close to tears, particularly the one young father with the two small children pulling on his leg. I feel the same way about the homeless people I see on my commute to classes at the university. Some human situations lend themselves more to tears than laughter… It's time for those of us living privileged lives to reach out locally and globally to those in need. (Student Journal Entry 2010)

We now continue with our students' responses to the many Chinese who were seeing Black human beings in Western-designed clothing for the first time.

11.10.2 Seeing Black People from the U.S. for the First Time

As foreshadowed, we center on the reflective journal writing of Renée (Passage 1), Linda (Passage 2) and Terrence (Passage 3).

Passage 1—Renée (Hispanic Female)

I experienced my first culture shock today. At Tiananmen Square, I noticed how many local Chinese were amazed by my African American friends. They were completely mesmerized by their color. They did not even try to hide their curiosities. It caused me to think of how I come from a diverse city and how different cultures and skin colors do not faze me…As teachers receiving new students from different countries, we need to be sensitive to the fact that our incoming students may not have encountered particular diversities before. It is our job to help introduce them to the new blend of cultures. (Student Journal Entry 2008)

Passage 2—Linda (White Female)

The Chinese did not disguise their interest in my Black colleagues. Everywhere we went at the Summer Palace they were mobbed. I know some of them were beginning to feel like "rock stars." The majority said it was a good feeling, particularly since their reception in the U.S. is not always warm (especially for Black males). (Student Journal Entry 2011)

Passage 3—Terrence (African American Male)

I had my picture taken again, again and again… It happened everywhere I went…I don't think the Chinese are accustomed to seeing Black people in American clothes….. I have to admit that I enjoyed the positive attention. It's not always like this for me. Sometimes I am treated quite differently in the U.S. (Student Journal Entry 2009)

Later, Terrence went on to tell a story about celebrating a special birthday and dining at a fine restaurant. His tale told of how he went to retrieve his car from the restaurant's valet parking and how two other restaurant patrons, one White male and one White female, came by and handed him their ticket stubs. They automatically assumed he was in the service industry and that he would fetch their cars for them. While Terrence found humor in the situation, he also knew that African American males like himself are often presumed to be "non-professional" and occasionally "even criminal" [females tend to protect their handbags around African American males, he added]. Thus, having the Chinese place him on a pedestal was a refreshing departure from the response Terrence sometimes receives in mainstream American culture. For him, he temporarily felt "treated better outside his country than he sometimes feels treated inside of it."

We turn now to a discussion of behaviors relating to food.

Food

Passage 1—Paul (African American Male)

I met a group of elderly Chinese climbing the Great Wall. They were so tiny and vital. They ride bicycles and eat small portion of food (no desserts!) their entire lives… Also, it was a culture shock for me (an African American male) to see a Chinese meal always ending with watermelon. In the U.S., eating watermelon is thought to be something that African Americans do. Seeing the Chinese eating watermelon certainly challenged that stereotype. (Student Journal Entry 2008)

Passage 2—Julie (White Female)

At the Welcome Dinner, I noticed the way the tables were set and how they had a spinning device [lazy susan] in the middle. The waitresses brought 10 dishes and placed them on the rotating device. We had to serve ourselves… We also were given very small glasses (by American standards) and had one large bottle of Coke, Sprite, and Beer to share…We began with tea to help our digestion. We ate awkwardly and hesitantly at first… By the end of the trip, we had mastered eating with chopsticks and how to use of the spinning

device. I also learned to eat slower, to consume smaller portions and to visit more with the people at my table. Eating taught me a great deal about Chinese culture. (Student Journal Entry 2004)

Passage 3—Ram (East Indian American Male)
Being an admirer of Chinese food, I assumed that I would have no problem adapting to the food while visiting China. During our first meal, I found out that it was not the regular P. F. Chang style food that I am used to…Once again, I found my assumptions about the Chinese confronted…" (Student Journal Entry 2007)

Passage 4—Liang (Asian American Female)
Even I, an ethnic Chinese, found China's Chinese food different from the food my family prepares. Even I had to learn that not all Chinese are the same. Sometimes I felt challenged in a way not unlike the non-Chinese…This was a major eye-opener for me… (Student Journal Entry 2006)

11.11 Overarching Reflective Journal Themes

As we analyzed the narrative exemplars that we crafted around Gay's baseline definition of culture, we discovered that at least seven cultural ways of knowing of international significance were evident in the preservice teachers' reflective journal writing. These were: (1) bearing witness to experience; (2) naming cultural connections; (3) examining value conflicts; (4) developing intercultural empathy; (5) engaging in cultural healing; (6) experiencing identity shifts and (7) cultivating agentive selves[1] (Hull and Katz 2006) desirous of action.

11.12 Bearing Witness to Experience

Each of the preservice teachers' reflections included in the exemplars can be seen as a bearing of witness to particular experiences. This personal bearing of witness, in turn, opened up avenues of cultural understanding relating to thinking, beliefs, and behaviors. This personal witnessing, we found, was always anchored in place (e.g., The Great Wall, The Temple of Heaven, the Summer Palace, etc.), occurred at a particular juncture of time on the China Study Abroad trip, and involved interactions either directly with people (e.g., personally walking in crowds) or through observation of cultural objects (e.g., "spinning device," size of Chinese cups). When Marla was at the Great Mosque at Xi'an, for example, she reflectively wrote: "I learned more about the Muslim faith through personally visiting the mosque than I could have through any other means." Similarly, Victor stated in the aftermath of his visit to the Buddhist Temple that "…go[ing] to a different continent where…

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[1]Agentive selves are selves whose sense of personal agency propels them into public action.

different religions [are] practiced was an education that books cannot provide." Both reflections speak volumes to the primacy and profundity of first-hand experience. A third key example was Donna who shared her feelings of "peace and tranquility" and her personal experience of the intimacy of the grandfather-grandson relationship at the Temple of Heaven. Donna particularly showed how her Temple of Heaven visit engaged her holistically (sights, ambience, relationships, etc.) as opposed to one-dimensionally (cognitively).

11.13   Naming Intercultural Connections

Intercultural connections also were plentiful in the narrative exemplars we seamed together from the raw field texts. Marcus, for instance, forged connections between the Great Wall of China and the proposed construction of a border wall between the US and Mexico meant to keep illegal immigrants out. Marla did the same thing when she compared and contrasted Buddhist religious observances with Catholic practices in the Christian faith tradition. Victor similarly interfaced his largely unspoken knowledge of Christianity with what he was coming to know about Buddhism through his flesh-and-blood travel experiences to the Buddhist Temple.

11.14   Examining Value Conflicts

Through her reflective writing, Marla also probed value conflicts. She openly admitted that she could more easily visit and more openly weigh the religious practices of Muslims in China than she could in the U.S., despite her concurrent knowing that many of her fellow American citizens worship Allah. Marla states in an upfront manner that 'it's just not something people do [in the U.S.], given the current political situation'. She hints that the U.S.'s recent conflicts in the Middle East prohibit her from learning about Muslim religious practices in her home environment. One gets the sense that the local culture of her city and state would not look favorably on such an inquiry, given recent world developments, and despite the trend toward globalization prevalent in society.

The difference in how African Americans are treated by the Chinese and by their fellow U.S. citizens also surfaced in the narrative exemplars we crafted. Linda wrote that the African American preservice teachers visiting China felt like "rock stars" and openly admitted that "their reception in the U.S. is not always as warm (especially for Black males)."

11.15   Developing Intercultural Empathy

While George declared that the Chinese are "rude" because they "push and shove" in line and in crowds, Rebecca was able to relate the crowd behavior she experienced to China's population density. Although Rob also was frustrated and irritated by the crowd experiences he had in China, he also came to the realization "that the only way people can get things done in China is by being aggressive and getting ahead of someone else." From Rebecca's and Rob's reflective writing passages, it is clear that they developed intercultural empathy for the Chinese and the enormity of the country's overpopulation problem. As for George, he appears to be moving in that direction.

Arlene also practiced intercultural empathy walking in the crowd outside the Xi'an train station. Amidst the hustle and the bustle, the pushing and the shoving, she observed an impoverished father with his two young sons tugging on his leg. The scene, she penned, "brought [her] close to tears…" She added: "Some human situations lend themselves more to tears than laughter…" Clearly, Arlene's Xi'an train station experience was a threshold experience for her, one that will not be easily erased from her memory.

11.16   Engaging in Cultural Healing

Moving on, some cultural wounds were named in the field texts and actions organically taken that could lead to their possible healing. Paul discovered that the Chinese eat watermelon daily to end their meals, which "challenged the stereotype" held about African Americans daily consuming watermelon. Renée, a Hispanic American, noted this irony as well and called what she observed a "culture shock." Through making public the service and criminal assumptions made about African American males, Terrence also demonstrated that he was on the path to healing. He was able to forthrightly admit that he felt "treated better outside his country than he sometimes feels treated inside of it." Reflecting on certain painful stories produced a kind of healing balm for him when he laid his homeland experiences alongside his travel study experiences in China.

11.17   Experiencing Identity Shifts

Among the narrative threads, there was also evidence of preservice teachers' identity shifts that were underway. Petra, for example, wrote that she has cultivated a better understanding of the Chinese whereas Donna declared that, because of her "better understanding of why Asian students and parents act the way they do, [she is] "better prepared to serve the Asian population [she] will encounter in schools

when [she] becomes a teacher." Marla noted that "As teachers receiving new students from different countries, we need to be sensitive to the fact that incoming students may not have encountered particular diversities before. It is our job to help introduce them to the new blend of cultures." Raj admitted that "…[he] found [his] assumptions about the Chinese confronted." The same can be said for Arlene who openly admitted to her "misconceptions." The identity shifts apparent in our narrative exemplars also included an identity shift of on the part of Liang, an Asian American preservice teacher visiting her parents' homeland. Liang wrote: "Even I had to learn that not all Chinese are the same. Sometimes I felt challenged in a way not unlike the non-Chinese…This was a major eye-opener for me…"

As for Marla and Victor, both expanded their knowledge of how world religions are practiced, something they had not done and/or were unable to do (particularly Marla) in the U.S. due to perceived boundaries concerning what would be appropriate mainstream American behavior. Marla in particular spoke of the tenuous state of world relations, hinting at a number of U.S. conflicts in the Middle East.

For the preservice teachers we spotlighted in this section, indentified knowledge gains gave way to subtle shifts in their "stories to live by" (Connelly and Clandinin 1999)—identities understood narratively. The majority of these shifts impacted the prospective teachers not only at a personal level, but professionally as teacher candidates as well. Raj perhaps stated it best when he wrote:

> *My eyes were opened in new ways through first hand experiences that extended beyond the classroom walls into another country. There is no substitution for the living I did in China and what I concurrently learned about life and becoming a teacher through writing about my experiences in my journal.* (Student Journal Entry 2007)

11.18 Cultivating Agentive Selves

In the reflective journal discussions of prejudices and stereotypes—one's own and those of others—were the agentive selves of the preservice teachers. Several teacher candidates challenged stereotypes and prejudices and became more attuned and actively sympathetic to a culture that was not their own. The best example of this was Arlene at the Xi'an train station. She not only recognized the impoverished conditions of the father and his sons, the moving scene she witnessed brought her to tears. But Arlene did not stop there. She connected China's poverty to the U.S.'s poverty and blazed on her page: "It's time for those of us living privileged lives to reach out locally and globally to those in need." In effect, Arlene illustrates how the local and global became intermingled for her in ways that will drive her to action in the near future.

11.19   Summary

The story of my China Study Abroad trip can be understood as a dialogue at three levels. On one level, the dialogue is between the local Chinese situations I encountered and me. At a second level, the dialogue is about human differences, what I learned, how I positioned myself with respect to them and how I am becoming as an individual person as a result. At a third level, all of this is sharpening me and making me a better teacher. (Student Journal Entry 2011)

In this article, we have examined 20 preservice teachers' reflective journal writing and shown how it promoted intercultural and self understandings and helped them on several fronts to be more culturally competent as prospective teachers. Through encouraging "deliberate awareness and thoughtful exploration of diversity in people," we found that a "consciousness of difference" (Sheets 2005, p. 60) was interwoven throughout the pages of our preservice teachers' journal entries. Most specifically, the narrative exemplars we prepared from the raw field texts gathered between 2004 and 2012 animated how a "confrontation with a new culture [morphed] into an encounter with the self" (Brown 2009, p. 505) not only as a person, but as a teacher in the making as well. The edges (Nadler 1995) that the prospective teachers met and mostly overcame on the China Study Abroad trip helped their evolving selves to more ably "read and interpret experiences with diversity" (Dantes 2007, p. 76) and to avoid deficit thinking (Dantes 2007). Through reflective journal writing, the vast majority of them developed a deeper sense of worldmindedness (Douglas and Jones-Rikkers 2001), became more interculturally sensitive (Anderson et al. 2006) and, through a process of formal and informal education (we would argue), higher quality teachers. They did so by transcending cultural boundaries (Gmelch 1997) and tangibly encountering differences (Laubscher 1994) that were not previously in their realms of experience. In a nutshell, preservice teachers like Marla, Raj, Arlene, and Terrence, among many others throughout the years, instantiated how their "stories to live by" expanded as their personal and professional selves transitioned in a reflective inquiry space made possible through reflective journal writing in an optional China Study Abroad teacher education course.

As can be seen, this chapter adds to the teacher education-teacher quality debate. It shows how cultural consciousness is best developed in diverse settings and is closely linked with quality teaching and teacher preparation. We were able to make connections by focusing on Gay's succinct definition of culture—that is, how people think, what people believe and how people behave. From a practical standpoint, we illuminated in an up-close way how preservice teacher knowledge develops and how the socio-cultural backdrop and the human interactions transpiring within it play key roles in shaping the nature of that knowledge and the depth of intercultural understandings that are generated. Finally, we illustrated how reflective journal writing nested in a China Study Abroad Program affects the identities and outlooks of U.S. preservice teachers. The prospective teachers enrolled in the China Study Abroad trips we featured were arguably not the same ones as those who returned to their families, friends, and preservice teacher education programmes. Engaging in

travel study as a type of formal | informal teacher education can irrevocably stretch boundaries and alter prospective teachers' identities. Reflective journaling, as we have shown, offers prime insights into these transformations (Ghaye 2005) in ways not previously accessible, but highly significant from both local and global perspectives. Perhaps preservice teacher, Donna, captured what happened best when she wrote:

> *Those around me say they see changes in me daily. For me, it was like a veil was taken off my eyes and my biases and empty prejudices were removed. I embraced life in China and returned a better teacher and a better person.* (Student Journal Entry 2005)

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Chapter 12
Internationalization in Teacher Education in the US: Innovative Programs and Practices to Meet the Global Challenges of Tomorrow's Schools

Reyes L. Quezada and Paula A. Cordeiro

12.1 Introduction

Dramatic changes have taken place in teacher education in the United States in recent years. In 2013 two national teacher preparation accreditation organizations consolidated and the Council for the Accreditation of Education Preparation (CAEP) was created. At the same time, the Department of Education initiated a variety of new policies impacting higher education in general but particularly colleges of education. In an attempt to focus on high quality preparation, the department plans to rank teacher education programs across all 50 states into four categories. This textbook is about quality and change in teacher education. In the United States, one reform that began in the 1990s and has developed considerable momentum since the turn of this century is the importance of internationalizing teacher education. In this chapter we provide the historical underpinnings of today's internationalization efforts. This is followed by a description of several initiatives that foster and support this work. We conclude the chapter with one case study illustrating why it is important to prepare teachers who are globally competent. We challenge everyone who reads this chapter to contact us so we too may be involved in the conversation as learners and as colleagues. Lastly, we provide a list of resources that can assist institutions wishing to begin their internationalization efforts or further enhance them.

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12.2 Historical Trends in International Study within the United States

Historical trends in international study in higher education and internationalizing teacher education within the United States can be viewed through many lenses. It can be viewed through the perspective of early colonists who sent their children to study in Europe or, through the 1920s viewpoint of encouraging privileged students to study the humanities and arts in western nations as an intellectual and cultural status of the elite (Hoffa 2007; Mullens and Cuper 2012), and, of course, World War I, II, and the Cold War brought attention to the interconnectedness of all nations, becoming imperative that U.S. students learn about the world in order to be able to contribute to, and be a part of, the discourse.

After WWII, the U.S. established the Fulbright Exchange Program with the purpose of promoting international goodwill and reducing conflict among nations. Today, the Fulbright Program offers opportunities for students in institutions of higher education to study abroad. This enhances many campuses' diverse student populations. The events of September 11, two wars (Iraq and Afghanistan), and major advances in technology have further pushed the importance of becoming a world citizen. Today, as events in the international arena unfold, they are being discussed through social media in real time. Therefore economic, political, and social connectivity provide both opportunities and challenges in defining globalization and in re-conceptualizing international study programs.

This reconceptualization of what it means to be a global citizen can be seen in most university mission statements as well as in colleges of education, business, arts and sciences, and nursing. Government organizations, as well as nonprofit organizations or NGOs (non governmental organizations), have also increased their visibility in promoting the internationalization of higher education as well as in the Pk-12 schools served by teacher preparation programs. International study can no longer be seen as an option for universities; rather, it has become an essential element to ensure developing professionals who are culturally competent.

12.3 Challenges and Opportunities Facing International Study

Compared to 20 years ago, there is an increase in the numbers of students studying abroad; however, the numbers still fall short of where they need to be. According to a study by the American Council on Education (2008) fewer than 10 % of U.S. college students complete an international study experience and only 1.5 % of students study abroad in a given year (IIE 2011). Further, the diversity in the demographics of students participating in study abroad programs also falls short as only 19.5 % ethnic minority students have participated in such programs compared to 80.5 % white participants during the 2008–2009 academic year. Education majors continue

to lag behind social science, business, and management majors, yet it is our teachers who are teaching about local, national, and world cultures.

Historically, students have chosen to study abroad in Europe, however, according to IIE (2011) of the top 25 countries selected 15 were outside Western Europe, including South and Central America, South Africa, and China. This shift in location of study has occurred because institutions of higher education have allocated additional resources and infrastructure to assist students. For example, specific centers and institutes, as well as academic officers to support international (short and long term) study abroad programs are in place. Examples of this type of institutional commitment are described in the National Association of Foreign Advisors' (NAFSA) report "Internationalization of teacher education: Three case studies" by Charlotte West (2009). Teacher education programs from the University of Maryland, University of Indiana, and University of San Diego are detailed. The University of San Diego's School of Leadership and Education Sciences (SOLES) has provided opportunities to all of its graduate program candidates to participate in an international experience through the SOLES-Global Center. The Cultural Immersion Project in the College of Education at the University of Indiana provides its teacher candidates' international student teaching opportunities as well as in Navajo Indian Reservations. The University of Maryland's College of Education Office of International Initiatives has institutionalized its international programs by providing the infrastructure to promote international activities across the college. Therefore these colleges of education have not only implemented but have also institutionalized innovative programs, practices and pedagogies in support of internationalizing the curriculum, and have provided international learning opportunities to students and faculty.

To address parental, individual, as well as financial concerns, more and more colleges are providing short-term intense courses or brief study abroad experiences where faculty lead smaller groups of students from their home institutions. The IIE *Open Doors Report* (2011) found that of 270, 604 students who participate in study abroad programs 56.6 % selected short-term programs, while 35.8 % opted for semester-long study abroad experience and only 3.8 % opted to study abroad for a full academic year. At the graduate level the majority of students opt for even briefer courses or study abroad experiences that tend to range from 7 to 10 days. The shift to providing faculty led, shorter courses and programs is beneficial to colleges of education because many graduate students are employed full time or have family commitments. Short-term courses provide the opportunity for many graduate students, who did not study abroad as undergraduates, to have that international experience. This approach has also increased the number of faculty and students of color from various disciplines and in various countries other than Europe who participate in study abroad (Forum on Education 2009).

As the demand for international study opportunities increase the need to develop innovative programs, practices, and pedagogies to support our diverse student population also increases. The commitment to internationalization in higher education and in our colleges of education and specifically in educator preparation programs must meet the highest rigor. Consideration must be given to providing highly

effective student learning opportunities in well planned and developed programs to increase students' competency as world citizens. The National Survey for Student Engagement (2007) reports that study abroad is one of the best ways to provide a high-impact college experience which leads to significant and personal and intellectual growth (Mullens and Cuper 2012). The survey states, "the amount of time one is abroad is not as important as whether a student has had such an experience" (p. 17). Therefore it is imperative that curricula include global perspectives and that there be ample opportunity for faculty to learn about, and teach from, a global perspective.

12.4 Foundations and Nonprofit Organizations Support for Internationalization Initiatives

Here we provide a historical perspective on the key role foundations and non-profit organizations have played in supporting and/or promoting the importance of internationalizing teacher education. These organizations include: the American Council on Education, the Asia Society, the Consortium for North American Higher Education Collaboration (CONAHEC), and the Association of International Educators.

It is safe to say that until the early 1990s, regardless of the nation, little was written about the importance of internationalizing higher education, never mind teacher education. In the United States, the National Governor's Association (GSA) published one of the first reports surveying the international education landscape in April 1987. The report authored by Baliles et al. (1987) was entitled: *Educating Americans for Tomorrow's World: State Initiatives in International education.* The GSA survey requested information from all states about the status of a variety of international issues in postsecondary institutions as well as in elementary and secondary education. Basically, the report found most efforts to include an international focus in higher education institutions were undeveloped and nominal, if they existed at all. Findings from the 43 responding states were that "most states have not moved toward mandating such preparation for teacher certification" (p. 3). The report further stated, "…efforts are essentially incremental and often lack overall coordination. Frequently international programs depend on the interest and experience of individual teachers" (p. 4). Recommendations included assessing the resources available within each state; tapping people (e.g. Peace Corps volunteers) and organizations (e.g. Rotary, US Chambers of Commerce) that could be resources; and forming partnerships (e.g. university-school partnerships; sister-school relationships) (p. 11–14). The overall report and recommendations demonstrate that little, if any, consideration had previously been given to the topic of international education.

Few initiatives, reports, or scholarly writing about internationalization followed. In 1997 the Consortium for North American Higher Education Collaboration (CONAHEC) published: *Understanding the Differences: A working Paper Series*

on Higher Education in Canada, Mexico and the United States authored by Ponton, et al. This paper, as well as a second CONAHEC working paper entitled: *At a Crossroads: Access to Higher Education in North America* (Clifton et al. 1999), discussed issues of higher education from a demographic perspective. These reports argued for the importance of "Building collaborative relationships and developing common agendas" (p. 37) as well as expanding access to higher education and improving quality. In many ways these reports were ahead of their time, and were important in bringing scholars from the U.S., Canada, and Mexico together to better understand each other's system of higher education so that connections could be made. The idea behind the CONAHEC report rested on the importance of educating students in an interdependent continent; however, the word 'internationalization' was not used in their reports written in the 1990s.

In 2001 CONAHEC published a rarely cited, but very important working paper authored by Fantini et al. (2001) entitled: *Globalization and 21st Century Competencies: Challenges for North American Higher Education*. This report discussed the importance of intercultural competence being key to a university student's learning. It also discussed the importance of faculty being prepared "To bring global and intercultural perspectives onto our campuses and into our classrooms, however, teachers require further development themselves" (p. 13). The report advocated for faculty travel abroad, immersion experiences, developing international contacts and support for the learning of other languages.

It was not until the 2002 CONAHEC report: N*eighboring in the 'Global Village': North American Cooperation and Collaboration in Higher Education* authored by Collins (2002) that 'global' became a key word, however, directly using the word 'internationalization' was still not included. The thrust of this report was different from later ones in that the goals were for the U.S., Canada, and Mexico to create mechanisms for student mobility, shared and common curricula, acquisition of a second or third language (Spanish, French, English), developing apprenticeships, and increasing cooperation and exchange of personnel (p. 9). They cited the work of the Association of Canadian Community Colleges and the importance they placed on students developing "global citizenship, cross-cultural awareness, and a cosmopolitan world view" (p. 13). The report also made recommendations for K-12 education that included the teaching of second languages.

An important report focusing on elementary and secondary education was published by the Asia Society (2001) *Asia in the Schools: Preparing Young Americans for Today's Interconnected World*. This comprehensive and especially well written document called for faculty in schools of education to partner with local school districts to form partnerships intended to: "(1) develop understanding about similarities and differences within and across cultures; (2) develop understanding about how social institutions including schools affect change; and, (3) create models for collaborative approaches to learning and problem solving appropriate for global citizens in the twenty-first century" (p. 51). The report also included detailed recommendations for what schools, governors, parents, districts, professional organizations, and higher education institutions could do. A key recommendation focused on improving teacher education. The report advocated for: "(a) second language

competency for future teachers; and, (b) education school faculty to work with arts and science faculty to design courses which improves future teachers' content competency" (p. 6).

In 2005 the American Council on Education (ACE), whose membership includes most universities and colleges in the United States, published *Building a Strategic Framework for Comprehensive Internationalization* authored by Olson et al. (2005). This framework highlights two similar approaches to internationalization of higher education by integrating learner-centered pedagogy and assessment and evaluation of the internationalization efforts of the institution.

It is an interesting observation that three of the organizations included in this section—the ACE, CONAHEC, NAFSA were present at the January 2014 global dialogue held in South Africa. At this summit, 24 international organizations from throughout the world agreed on an agenda that included "Increasing focus on the internationalization of the curriculum and of related learning outcomes (http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140118132339578, retrieved January 19, 2014). These organizations, and others such as the Asia Society, and in more recent years the Institute of International Education, the Longview Foundation and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education are advocating for preparing teachers who are globally minded.

12.5 Foundation Support

There are a few public foundations in the United States that support internationalization efforts in higher education institutions. One such program, offered by the National Science Foundation, is called *Catalyzing New International Collaborations* (CNIC). CNIC provides either workshops or short international planning visits for U.S. academics, that later submit full research proposals focusing on creating new international research collaborations.

While there is little public funding available, there are a variety of private foundations supporting the internationalization of the curriculum in higher education. For example, the Open Society Foundations seek to establish and consolidate societies committed to human rights and inclusion, provide grant support to improve teaching practices, and empower youth by supporting efforts to increase access to quality education. Another example is the Luce Foundation that has a variety of initiatives for professors and programs seeking to create new intellectual resources at colleges and universities. Luce might support a research project and policy conference on the internationalization of U.S. education in the twenty-first century or a professor who wants to collaborate across different disciplines with scholars in other nations. Up until now, the Longview Foundation is the only U.S. private foundation focusing specifically on internationalizing teacher preparation program curriculum in higher education institutions.

12.6 The Longview Foundation: A Catalyst for Internationalizing Teacher Education Preparation

Since 1998 the Longview Foundation has been supporting international efforts in K-12 education, teacher preparation, and with professional organizations and coalitions. From 1998 to 2012 Longview made more than 230 grants to universities, school systems, and coalitions to internationalize the curriculum and to foster collaborations that promote internationalization. In addition, their website provides resources for teachers, students, schools, universities, state department and policy groups. Longview grants range from several hundred dollars to approximately $40,000. These small grants can be viewed as seeds planted in states throughout the nation with many having played a catalytic role in reinventing and expanding the curriculum to better reflect the needs of teachers and schools in the twenty-first century.

Longview's report *Teacher Preparation for the Global Age* (2008) describes promising practices for internationalizing teacher preparation curriculum. The report was the result of a foundation sponsored meeting held in Washington DC that brought together leaders in K-12 and higher "…education, government, as well as other sectors to examine what was currently being done in schools, colleges, and departments of education in order to prepare future teachers for the new global reality and to generate momentum to do more" (retrieved 12/27/13 http://www.longviewfdn.org). It is the only report sponsored by a foundation offering a framework for internationalizing the education of pre-service teachers and advocating for an increase in the number of world language teachers.

12.7 Moving from Theory to Innovation in Programs and Practices in Professional Education Programs

As stated earlier, there is now a considerable body of literature advocating for institutions of higher education as well as colleges and schools of education in the United States and abroad to increase international study or to "internationalize." According to Stachowski and Sparks (2007), "…in spite of the reviews given international field experiences, it seems that the current practice remains insufficient for preparing world minded educators that are capable of incorporating global and cross-cultural elements into their elementary and secondary classrooms" (p. 117).

This section provides some insights on innovative practices and programs in the United States as models and resources to further their own internationalization efforts. The focus includes undergraduate and graduate teacher education programs but we will primarily focus on innovative practices and projects within graduate schools of education since little has been written about them. We include local, national, and international experiential opportunities that go beyond an "educational tourism" approach (Quezada 2005).

If teachers are to become culturally and globally proficient they need to experience the cultural roots that immigrants experience in their new country in order to develop international knowledge in a way that assists the understanding of their prospective Pk-12 students. If we also want our Pk-12 students to become national as well as global citizens, prospective teachers themselves need to be comfortable as citizens of the world (Wilson 1993, 1982). In the US it is important that teacher candidates experience working with immigrant students and their families, or with local indigenous native and non-native communities so they may better understand the world community and the United States' place in it in order to be more reflective and effective teachers while working with immigrant children in our schools (Blair 2002; Quezada 2005). Student teaching abroad or within these communities is one vehicle to attain cultural and global competencies, in many cases this includes language competency. According to Wilson (1993) the impact of these international experiences can assist teacher candidates with a global perspective that includes substantive knowledge and perceptual understanding as well as personal growth and interpersonal relationships. Thorpe (1988) and Wieber (1982) further substantiate these findings in their studies of teachers' experiences in short term travel study abroad courses as well as other current studies conducted by Cushner (2007), Lee and Ngo (2013), Mahon (2010), Quezada (2012), and Stachowski and Sparks (2007).

12.8   Innovative Student Teaching and Teaching Abroad Programs

In recent years many schools and colleges of education have created or developed their own global education programs by offering two types of international opportunities. Some programs offer courses specifically on educational issues abroad and some offer stand-alone student teaching abroad programs in one or more countries. Other schools and colleges of education have taken it a step further by joining a consortium or teaming up with other universities in the United States to pool their resources and partner with host country universities or local school districts. Teacher candidates then have an opportunity to do their practice teaching in three types of schools: Department of Defense K-12 Schools, United States Department of State American Sponsored Overseas Schools, and host country schools. Those universities participating in transnational student teaching within the United States provide their candidates with opportunities to student teach in indigenous communities or with culturally and language diverse students and or low socio-economic and migrant families (Quezada 2005). There are numerous programs that support internationalization efforts for schools and colleges of education. We will highlight six of the long-term efforts that have demonstrated success and have been institutionalized by their university or college of education.

12.9   The Consortium of Overseas Student Teaching- (COST)

COST consists of 15 US colleges and universities that provide opportunities for teacher candidates to experience student teaching overseas. Started in 1972, COST has placed over 1,000 teacher education majors in many countries. The experience counts towards their student teaching in national schools in English-speaking countries or in American or international schools in non-English speaking countries. COST places participants in Latin America, South America, Europe, Asia, Australia/New Zealand and Africa. Most participants in the COST program live with host families. This provides students with an opportunity to be immersed in the local school and community of the host country. They gain and appreciate a deeper understanding of the culture, even when students live elsewhere, (e.g., local apartments, bed and breakfast accommodations, university housing) they are intimately connected to the local culture. As a result when participants return to the United Sates they have gained the knowledge and experience living abroad with their peers in both a professional and personal setting. Supporting Wilson's findings (1993) as well as recent studies by Cushner (2007), Mahon (2010), Quezada (2012), and Stachowski and Sparks (2007), participant gain the cultural knowledge about family structure within another cultural setting, have an increased sense of confidence and improved self-efficacy, and a greater sense as future teachers of how to integrate an international perspective into their professional practice. One reason the COST program has been successful is that the program is institutionalized at the university level. The directors of the overseas schools, the cooperating teachers, and local families are also key players that make this experience a success for all those involved (retrieved on 11-6-2013 from www.htto://costprogram.org and from http://www.kent.edu/ehhs/ciie/cost/programdescription.cfm).

12.10   Indiana University Bloomington-Cultural Immersion Program

The Cultural Immersion Project's Overseas Project offer students the opportunity to student teach or have a practicum placement locally, nationally, or internationally. It received multiple awards in support of international education programs by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) for the "Best Practice Award for Global and International Teacher Education" in 2001 and the Goldman Sachs Foundation Prize for "Excellence in International Teacher Education" in 2005. The program is unique as it provides three types of teaching opportunities through a 'Global for Teachers' project. Each opportunity includes a preparatory phase and a placement phase. The preparatory phase occurs over a 10-week period of student teaching in local Indiana schools followed by a placement abroad for 8 weeks of full-time teaching in a host-nation school. The placement offers participants an opportunity to immerse themselves in the local

community and participate in cultural field studies and service learning. Students document their experience by reporting what they are learning to the university. Over 2,000 teacher candidates have been placed in 15 countries in South America, Australia, and Europe. A unique feature of this program is the American Indian Reservation Project. This teaching placement is on a Navajo Reservation in Arizona, New Mexico and Utah that provides a unique cultural setting for individuals who may not be able to travel abroad. The third placement option of the program is the Urban Project that places students in Chicago public schools. This placement gives teacher candidates an opportunity to have a rich, culturally diverse, teaching experience that is local.

12.11 California Binational Student Teaching Program

The *California Bi-National Teacher Education Project,* (Bi-TEP), prepares teachers of English learners. The overall goal is to deliver an innovative, Mexico-U.S. teacher education program with: (1) an in-depth focus on the knowledge and classroom practices needed to promote the academic achievement of English Learners, and (2) an equal focus on the bilingual and bicultural skills needed to bring English learners' parents into full participation in their children's education. Building on an earlier bi-national program through the California State University System (approximately 1997–2006), Bi-TEP began in 2007 with a grant from the U.S. Department of Education. Since 2007, Bi-TEP has worked with 90 pre-service teachers in five cohorts. The first three cohorts spent 5 months of their teaching credential program in Mexico, taking academic courses and student teaching, before returning to their home campuses in California to complete the requirements for their elementary credential with a bilingual authorization. Since there have been budgetary cuts, a partnership with the University of California at Davis has allowed the program to continue into the 2011–2013 academic years. Bi-TEP participants attend a seminar in California prior to going to Mexico, followed by 5 weeks of study in Oaxaca, Mexico, including a week of field practice with indigenous Mexican children. Several months after returning to California there is a follow-up seminar. All five cohorts enrolled in approximately 2–3 weeks of intensive Spanish instruction abroad at their various levels (ranging from intermediate to native-speaker) in addition to academic coursework (Ruiz and Baird 2013).

12.12   Educator Exchange Programs

12.12.1   *Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs Exchange Programs*

The U. S. Department of State offers many programs for American citizens wishing to go abroad for cultural, educational, or professional exchange. Some of the programs include educational seminars for U.S. and international PK-12 teachers and administrators, as well as higher education faculty to improve their understanding of U.S. and international educational practices and approaches. The Fulbright Distinguished Awards in Teaching Program is another learning opportunity for classroom teachers. This award program sends selected U.S. elementary and secondary school teachers abroad for 3–6 months to pursue projects, conduct research, take courses, and lead master classes or seminars for international teachers and students. Another program for educators is the Teachers for Global Classrooms program (TGC) that allows U.S. middle and high school teachers to participate in an online professional development course, two Washington, D.C.-based symposiums and a 2-week professional development exchange to further become globally competent educators.

12.13   Binational Migrant Education Program

The Binational Migrant Education Program is an international program between the Secretary of Public Education of Mexico and the California Department of Education. Its purpose is to facilitate educational services', conduct effective activities that promote academic success, and advocate for students whose parents travel between the U.S. and Mexico in pursuit of temporary seasonal work in agriculture and fishing. The Binational Migrant Education Program supports children who travel between the two countries in their education in k-12 schools in California and throughout the United States. It supports teachers who participate in the 3-year California Teacher Exchange Program and in a binational summer program. This is a collaborative effort among the Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores (Secretary of Foreign Relations), Secretaría de Educación Pública (Secretary of Public Education) of individual states in Mexico, various Mexican Consulates, the California Department of Education, and participating Migrant Education Regions. As part of the program, teachers from Mexico spend 6–8 weeks in a school district in California sharing culture and teaching strategies to support migrant students.

12.14 One University's Innovative Practices for Internationalization: University of San Diego's School of Leadership and Education Sciences

In 2007, the University of San Diego's (USD) School of Leadership and Education Sciences' (SOLES) faculty met in a retreat for the purpose of developing a 5-year strategic plan. In this plan, faculty set their vision for the internationalization of all of their graduate programs. The outcome of the School Vision Statement and Strategic Plan states:

> The programs within the School of Leadership and Education Sciences will develop highly effective, socially responsible, and marketable students through international programs. Beginning with students enrolling in the fall of 2008, all students enrolled in degree programs will be required to participate in an international experience prior to program completion (SOLES Strategic Plan 2008).

The goals were to be accomplished via three objectives: (1). Expand opportunities for SOLES faculty to engage in international research projects, partnerships and/or professional development activities (2). Internationalize curricula across programs and (3). Establish a requirement for all SOLES students to engage in an international experience prior to program completion.

Faculty brought diverse experiences and perspectives into the discussion of internationalization. In the process of developing a policy at the department and program levels, questions emerged to identify what it means to "internationalize". Questions included: What is the purpose of curriculum internationalization? What "counts" as an international experience? What do we expect as learning outcomes? How does internationalization fit within existing program goals? How do we facilitate these goals? Policies were created and voted on by each department or program in April and presented to the Dean and faculty for school-wide approval in May 2008. Implementation of the internationalization experience requirement policy began in September 2008.

Six years earlier (2001) SOLES had already established a Global Center to promote and support faculty in internationalization efforts through short-term study abroad courses, as well as local international experiences for all of their graduate degree students. These efforts were aligned with the University of San Diego's own internationalization goals and objectives that were created in 2004. These goals included (a) supporting faculty through professional development workshops to internationalize the curriculum of their courses; (b) strengthening and creating new international partnerships, and (c) supporting the university's mission in promoting social justice. By 2007 the university had created a new position and office within the Provost's management team, an Associate Provost for International Affairs to manage all undergraduate and graduate international student and faculty efforts. These included undergraduate study abroad, support for faculty in all undergraduate and professional programs, faculty development and competitive international research grants for faculty as well as language learning incentives. The *University Strategic Goals* state:

> USD (the university) will become a more culturally diverse and culturally competent community through recruitment at all levels, deepening trans-border and international educational partnerships, and involving students and faculty in international learning experiences (USD Strategic Goals 2008).

As a result of the university focus on internationalization, by 2010 USD was ranked second in the nation for undergraduate study abroad experiences and in the 2010–2011 academic year was ranked first.

SOLES has taken the lead in the professional colleges at the University of San Diego in internationalization efforts in the graduate and post-graduate programs as well as support for faculty and staff within the school. One of the first initiatives in teacher education with regard to internationalizing the curriculum was the result of a 2009 Longview Foundation for World Affairs and International Understanding grant that provided faculty training, brought experts on global and international education, and supported faculty discussions for the purpose of internationalizing all of its courses in the multiple and single subject teacher credential courses. A second Longview Foundation grant supported the creation of a "Globalizing Teacher Education" website that can be accessed by the public with best practice lessons in teaching from a global perspective.

Internationalizing the curriculum was only one facet of the three-prong approach. The second approach was to support its faculty on internationalizing efforts. As mentioned earlier the SOLES' Global Center was created as a hub for faculty and student activity. Center activities are coordinated by the Assistant Dean's Office and managed by doctoral fellows who represent different international nationalities. The Global Center is overseen by a SOLES-Global Committee composed of faculty from the graduate programs in SOLES. The two main goals are: (1) to facilitate the planning of all international courses taught abroad, including planning international opportunities and activities locally so the international graduation requirement can be met by all of SOLES' students and, (2) to provide faculty research grant funding on a competitive basis, including language learning opportunities. Since its inception SOLES faculty have taught courses abroad in Australia, Austria, the Bahamas, Canada, Costa Rica, England, Ghana, Guatemala, Hong Kong, Ireland, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Kenya, Lithuania, Portugal, Qatar, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Turkey. As a result of the many courses taught abroad, SOLES faculty have established partnerships with the University for Peace in Costa Rica, Waseda University in Japan, the Mondragon Cooperatives in Spain, the Daraja Academy in Kenya, Hong Kong University in China, University of Vic in Spain, and the University of Pretoria in South Africa.

One partnership that has provided mentorship for our graduate students is the work being conducted by SOLES professors Paula Cordeiro and Joi Spencer. Working in collaboration with an international non-governmental organization called Edify, they along with SOLES graduate students, have traveled to Ghana and the Dominican Republic to conduct research and provide professional development support to teachers and leaders in Edify schools. Edify is a micro-finance lending organization whose work is to support low-cost private schools that serve poor communities in developing nations. This opportunity has provided graduate students

with research and professional presentation skills in a global context. The schools in Ghana and the Dominican Republic have benefitted directly by receiving materials as well as content expertise.

Another facet of the Global Center involves visiting scholars. The Center invites international scholars to apply as visiting fellows to conduct research and/or teach for short and long term periods of times. International scholars hold office hours, and make themselves available to faculty and students to serve as guest lecturers to share their research and their culture. SOLES' has hosted scholars from Australia, Thailand, Denmark, and several from Japan.

These opportunities and activities supplement the third prong that is to support the International Experience Graduation Requirement. In 2009 SOLES implemented the graduation requirement that all students in advanced degree programs take an "I" (international) course, or complete an international requirement in other ways. This is accomplished by having students meet with their faculty advisors in order to have prior approval or take the approved "I" designated course.

The purpose of the International Experience Requirement is to provide the graduate students with the skills to: (1) develop an understanding of another culture, (2) appreciate differences and similarities of another culture, (3) consider the gifts and challenges of another culture, and (4) understand the educational and practical implications of cultural diversity and globalization issues.

12.15   Evidence and Impact of SOLES International Success Efforts

One of the Global Center's goals is to support faculty in their research endeavors that promote internationalization efforts. Faculty can compete for faculty research grants by submitting proposals for funding, to learn to speak a second language, or internationalize their course syllabi. This has resulted in a tremendous increase in faculty research publications with a focus on internationalization efforts. Since 2005 SOLES faculty have greatly increased the publication in general and international focused journals, books and chapter contributions. The Department of Learning and Teaching alone has produced over 50 publications and presented over 60 conference papers (SOLES Faculty and Scholarship Citations 2013). These publications include descriptive studies on the effects of short-term study courses on its graduate students, international projects and partnership description of best practices, randomized control trials in the work with Edify, as well as the evaluation of our International Experience Requirement policy. These published research studies and project descriptions can help inform other institutions or colleges of education as they begin to create innovative pedagogies and embark on their own internationalization efforts. Below we describe a few of the published studies. Some faculty has also taken advantage of learning a second language by being immersed in other countries or through the Rosetta Stone language-learning platform.

Lee and Ngo (2013) conducted and released a comprehensive internal study whose focus was on global cultural competence. The study was based on the pre and post SOLES International Experience Requirement Survey. The results demonstrate that participants' global cultural competence increased on 12 of the 14 cultural competence skills measured resulting in an increased significant difference.

Similarly in 2010, SOLES faculty Buczynski, Lattimer, Inoue, and Alexandrowicz published an article in a special issue of the journal *Teaching Education* guest edited by Reyes Quezada on the theme of 'Internationalization of Teacher Education' which was published as a book in 2012 by *Routledge*. They described SOLES' Department of Learning and Teaching's journey in responding to the school-wide international experience requirement. They reported on three competing frames to complete the requirement: study abroad, global studies, and comparative education. Further, Quezada and Buczynski presented a paper at the 2012 American Educational Research Association's annual conference entitled *Internationalization Requirement Experiences of Graduate Education Students: Was it a Transformational Experience?* This study explored the perceptions of 26 graduate students' international experience. Utilizing Mezirow's (1997) Transformative Learning Theory as a frame of reference and as a process designed for effecting change in learning experiences or events, four themes emerged from the student's international experiences: (1) Making connections to their classroom, (2) Analyzing big picture vs. self, (3) the importance of critical reflection, and (4) the transfer of learning to new contexts. These results have further informed the Department of Learning and Teaching to plan more effective international experiences for its graduate students. Lastly, Quezada, Estrada, and Ammer guest edited a special themed issue in the *Journal of Catholic Education* (2011) titled "The Internationalization of a Catholic University's Graduate Education and Professional Programs: Best Practices in Preparing Culturally Proficient Global Pre-K-12 Educators, Counselors, Clinicians and Leaders for the 21st Century". This themed issue provided examples of how graduate students met their program's internationalization requirement through short-term learning abroad courses or by student teaching abroad. Graduate candidate perceptions were analyzed and reported as to how they were transformed into being culturally global proficient educators, counselors, leaders, and clinicians as a result of their international experience. These are only a few of the many research publications that document the challenges, success, and recommendations of SOLES' innovative programs and pedagogies that have propelled the University of San Diego as a leader in developing culturally proficient global Pre-K-12 educators, counselors, clinicians and leaders for the twenty-first century.

12.16   Next Steps

It is evident that if we are to prepare our children to be global citizens of the world it must first start within our teacher preparation programs. And, this means the faculty teaching in our preparation programs must be global citizens as well. In the

United States the need to prepare culturally proficient teachers is even more crucial because the U.S. teaches one of the world's most diverse student immigrant populations. Based on the content of this chapter we can see how internationalization of the curriculum, programs, and entire schools of education is possible. We have provided a framework for others to follow through the historical aspects, trends, challenges, the role of foundations in support of internationalization efforts, best program practices, and a university's story and their continued journey to further internationalize. Therefore, we believe one of the primary purposes of education is to improve the lives of all students through effective teaching and learning strategies that include teaching from a global perspective.

We look forward to communicating with you about any aspect of this book:

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Internationalizing Teacher Education Website Resources

Teachers for Global Classrooms: https://www.irex.org/projects/tgc

Global Center at the University of San Diego: http://www.sandiego.edu/soles/centers-and-research/global-center/

Longview Foundation: http://www.longviewfdn.org

Cultural Immersion Projects-Indiana University: http://portal.education.indiana.edu/tep/TeacherEducationHome/CulturalImmersionProjects.aspx

National Association of foreign Student Advisors: http://www.nafsa.org/Find_Resources/Internationalizing_Higher_Education

Consortium for Overseas Student Teaching-Kent State University: http://www.kent.edu/ehhs/ciie/cost/index.cfm http://asiasociety.org/education/partnership-global-learning

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education: Best Practice Award for Global and International Teacher Education: http://aacte.org/awards/awards/best-practice-awards.html Binational Migrant Education Program: http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/me/il/binational.asp http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/Fast-Facts

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Part III
Issues of Managing Change in Teacher Education

Chapter 13
The Idea of the Normal University and the University of Education: Implications for a Confucian Pedagogy

Ruth Hayhoe

13.1 Setting a Historical Context

I welcome the opportunity to contribute a chapter to this significant book on Quality and Change in Teacher Education: Western and Chinese Perspectives. It is now more than two decades since the end of the Cold War in 1991, and this has been a period in which there have been ongoing debates over Huntington's provocative thesis about a "clash of civilizations" replacing the ideological clashes of the Cold War period (Huntington 1993). While the Cold War had been dominated by tension between two world views that had both emanated from Enlightenment Europe – capitalist modernization and socialist construction – the Western world finally became aware that there might be a great deal to learn from other civilizations (Hayhoe and Pan 2001). The United Nations designated the year 2001 as a "year of dialogue among civilizations" and appointed a committee of eminent scholars to stimulate and lead this dialogue, including the Confucian philosopher Tu Weiming, then based in Harvard University's Divinity School, now located at Peking University. It was a sad irony that the year of dialogue also witnessed the 9/11 terrorist attack on New York and its ongoing consequences. If nothing else, however, that event underlined the importance of understanding civilizations with roots very different from those of the West, whose values and ideas have had world historical importance at different periods of time and are certain to persist. It brought an end to the assumptions of convergence and universalism that marked both the narratives of modernization and socialist construction and viewed "advanced" industrialized nations as setting standards of quality that all others should strive to reach.

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This book focuses on Western and Chinese perspectives with regards to quality and change in teacher education, and I would like to develop a line of reflection that looks at how quality in teacher education might be understood from a Confucian perspective, and the implications for pedagogy that arise from longstanding Chinese understandings of the relationship between the teacher and the learner and the kinds of knowledge that are most important for human betterment. In terms of change, it will be significant to note a recent literature that suggests a remarkable persistence of core Confucian values in the modern educational development of East Asia. This underlay the Western institutional models of teacher education that were adapted in processes of capitalist modernization in the case of Japan, South Korea, Taiwan and Hong Kong, and socialist construction in the case of Mainland China and Vietnam. It is not surprising to find profound similarities in the ways in which teachers, learners and families played out their roles, in spite of striking differences in the educational structures and policies of these six distinctive societies (Hayhoe 2008).

Already in the 1980s and 1990s, North America was becoming aware of what might be learned from Japan, Taiwan and Mainland China as evidenced in the path-breaking studies of Harold Stevenson and his associates (Stevenson and Lee 1990; Stevenson and Stigler 1992). With China's recent remarkable rise and the success of children in these societies on IEA and PISA tests, it has become more and more evident that there is a quality to the pedagogical practices that are common to Confucian-heritage classrooms that could enrich approaches to teacher education globally and contribute to the ongoing dialogue about reform. As a comparativist who has always felt a historical perspective is crucial to comparative understanding, I would like to focus this chapter on the experience of change in the developing teacher education systems of China and Japan over the twentieth century, and identify ways in which there has been a fruitful integration of Western and Confucian values that have culminated in two Asian models whose unique features make possible both excellent quality and a high status for teacher education programs. One of these models, the normal university, has disappeared in the Anglo American world, though it persists in France and Russia, while the other, the university of education, is unique to East Asia, and has already spread to countries such as Malaysia and India from there (Hayhoe 2009).

The chapter will begin with an overview of the core values of the European university model, and the notion of quality embedded in the way in which knowledge was structured in this model. This is then contrasted with the Confucian model of the academy, which long pre-dates the European university, its core values and the ways in which knowledge was structured. While the Confucian academy was destined to disappear with the modernization efforts of Japan and China in the nineteenth century, the European university, most notably Humboldt's revitalized University of Berlin, has remained a dominant model globally. Most recently it has given shape to the "global research university," a mecca for institutions aspiring to top positions in the major ranking systems that measure university quality on global scale. Historically, however, this model was not seen as fostering high quality in teacher education, and efforts to reform teacher education have been marked by struggles to counter its dominant values.

We will first consider the development of normal schools in nineteenth century France for the formation of the nation's teachers, then reflect on the nineteenth century American and British experience. Only in France did a university model that gave highest importance to teacher education emerge, with the Ecole Normale Supérieure, a model that was taken up in Soviet Russia after the 1917 Revolution. In East Asia, it is fascinating to trace the differing ways in which the models of the normal school and normal university were integrated into the development of modern higher education systems. Influences from continental Europe, America and Russia, coming at different times over the twentieth century, resulted in the emergence of the two models identified above – the university of education in Japan and the normal university in China.

Japan's early reform experiences were strongly influenced by European models, with normal colleges and normal universities taking shape up to the mid-twentieth century. After World War 2, however, a dominant American influence drove out this concept in favor of the comprehensive university, as Japan became the second country in the world to raise teacher education to an all graduate profession. Japan's unique response to American influences was the university of education model, which will be discussed in greater detail later.

For China, early modern education also embraced the concepts of normal school and normal university coming from continental Europe, but the dominance of American influence in the south of the country promoted the absorption of teacher education into comprehensive universities between the 1920s and the 1940s. Only after the revolution of 1949 and the adoption of Soviet patterns were normal universities given importance at all levels of the Chinese higher education system. Currently, the craze over ranking systems based on the global research university, has placed China's normal universities and their excellent tradition in the leadership of teacher education under threat. Nevertheless, national policy stipulating that they keep their "normal" identity and enhance their leadership in a more open system gives them the opportunity to reflect on the meaning of this model and what it might have to say about quality in teacher education (Hayhoe and Li 2010). Furthermore, the emergence of a dynamic Chinese program of cultural diplomacy, with the establishment of over 450 Confucius institutes all over the world, has given normal universities reason to reflect on core values of the Confucian tradition, as they seek to introduce them to the world through partnerships with universities, school boards and NGOs in more than 100 countries.

Can a better historical understanding of the Japanese model of the university of education and the Chinese model of the normal university contribute to the core question of this volume, "what is high quality in teacher education?" And do the cultural dimensions of these two models have something to say to the current reform debates around pedagogy? If readers have the patience to follow this historical reflection on comparative educational change, they will be rewarded with a tentative answer to these questions. Part one presents a portrait of the medieval university of Europe, while Part two sketches out a contrasting portrait of the Confucian academy. Part three then looks at the emergence of normal schools and the normal university in post-revolution France, and Part four reflects on the way this model was

absorbed into the Anglo-American experience of educational modernization. Part Five turns to East Asia, analyzing the ways in which the values of the normal school interacted with Confucian traditions in the forming of normal schools, colleges and universities, with a focus on the rich resonance between the French word *normal* and the characters for "the teacher as a model" (师范) transliterated as *shihan* in Japanese, *shifan* in Chinese. Finally, we turn to a rich debate underway in current issues of the *Journal of Curriculum Studies* around the nature of Confucian pedagogy, and ask what kinds of structures and patterns of knowledge might make possible the lively and dynamic interaction between student and teacher that characterizes the dialogic encounters between Confucius and his disciples in the *Analects*, one of the Four Books of Confucianism and an enduring East Asian educational classic.

13.2   The University of Medieval Europe

In many ways the emergence of universities in twelfth century Europe was an important moment in educational history. Their core values of academic freedom and autonomy drew upon three important institutions of medieval Europe. From the Pope and the Roman Catholic Church, they obtained independent legal status and the right to own property, enshrined in a charter, which protected them from interference by local political or ecclesiastical authorities. Before the existence of nation states, they were effectively international, as the charter conferred the right to teach everywhere (*ius ubique docendi*). Masters and students were thus free to move around among universities across a wide region, with Latin as the common language of teaching and learning.

From the medieval craft guilds, they gained the model of a self-governing organization which decided who should be admitted to membership based on their knowledge and skill. They were thus almost always established in merchant cities where guilds had fostered economic activity independent from the landowning fiefdoms that dominated the countryside. From the monasteries, they inherited an approach to knowledge that emphasized the long-term cumulative collection of texts, rather than applied forms of knowledge relevant to local social needs.

The traditional professions of medicine, law and theology dominated the early universities, together with the trivium of grammar, rhetoric and logic, and the quadrivium of arithmetic, astronomy, geometry and music. Theology was viewed as queen of the sciences, and was expected to integrate all other fields of knowledge in a hierarchy, that placed law and medicine above the basic arts and sciences. Logic and theoretical knowledge was more highly valued than practice and applied knowledge. With the emergence of modern science through the application of mathematics to experimentation in the natural world, the inherent tendencies to specialization increased. The Kantian separation between facts and values allowed wide-ranging exploration in the natural sciences and the development of such new social sciences

as economics, sociology and political science. Yet it also strengthened the tendency to value theoretical and specialist disciplines of knowledge most highly.

While universities contributed to the development of European civilization in important ways, they had limitations. They remained highly elite up to the late nineteenth century, with most applied technological and industrial education being developed in alternative institutions. Although women had been active as students and teachers in the abbeys and cathedral schools that pre-dated the medieval universities, they were excluded from universities for nearly seven centuries. Feminists have argued that the university's objectivism, orientation towards narrow specialization and linear approach to logic have resulted from this historical situation of male domination.

13.3   The Confucian Academy

The great historian of Chinese education, Thomas Lee, has noted that the purpose of classical education in China was to bring about a harmonious integration between the individual good and the benefit of society. *The Great Learning* expressed this in the following way: "to let one's inborn virtue shine forth, to renew the people and to rest in the highest good" (Lee 2000: 10–11). This focus on moral development and the social good is something that East Asian higher education has always kept as a high priority, even as it developed new disciplines of knowledge under Western influence and adapted Western models of the university to its own context.

It is reflected in the organization of the classical curriculum in China, with four major subject areas, classics, history, philosophy and the arts, forming the content for the civil service examinations. All other subjects, including medicine, mathematics, agriculture and engineering, were viewed as technical knowledge to be developed for the good of society. The four core curricular areas were not discrete, nor were they organized into the kind of hierarchy that characterized the European university curriculum; rather they were integrated around the central concept of the Way. "The Classics expresses the way in words, history in deeds, while philosophers and literary artists illustrate various other aspects of the Way" (Luk 1997: 486).

Clearly education, in its broadest sense, was the most highly respected area of knowledge in the East Asian curricular tradition, as an applied inter-disciplinary field, with a high sense of responsibility to serve the good of both society and the individual. Theoretical, specialist and technical knowledge were seen as subordinate to the applied social knowledge of the Confucian Classics. There were also deep relations of personal nurturing among teachers and students, in both the official institutions preparing young people for the imperial civil service and in the informal academies or *shuyuan*. By the Tang dynasty, students were coming from as far afield as Japan, Korea and Vietnam, taking back the classical texts and integrating some aspects of the Chinese writing system into their knowledge traditions,

while also selectively emulating aspects of China's institutional patterns of higher learning.

The core values of academic freedom and autonomy, that have been so important to the Western university, are not found in the same form in the institutional traditions of East Asia. There was rather a kind of intellectual authority, expressed in the important role of scholar-officials who served both the people and the Emperor on the basis of their knowledge. There was also considerable intellectual freedom in the *shuyuan*, where scholars who did not hold public office discussed, debated and revised the classical curriculum, integrating new and diverse views from a wide range of sources (Hayhoe 2001: 328). The *shuyuan*, however, were not protected by law, in the way that the charter protected Western universities. Their vitality and ability to express criticism of government was based on the independent thought and strong social conscience of individual scholars.

Although women were excluded from formal participation in the civil service examination system, which selected scholars for official positions in the imperial bureaucracy, the patterns of integrated knowledge that persisted to the nineteenth century within neo-Confucian philosophy were less alien to women than the increasing specialism and the embrace of value neutrality which came to characterize the European university's development.

Interestingly, it was precisely these characteristics may explain why universities were not considered suitable institutions for forming the large number of teachers needed for the mass schooling systems that were created in the nineteenth century. Rather, the need was seen for an entirely new type of institution, which was open to women, favoured integrative and morally explicit forms of knowledge and offered a direct service to community and nation.

13.4 The Normal School and the Normal University in France

The terms normal school and normal university are derived from French, where *normal* means "setting a moral standard or pattern." The first Ecole Normale Supérieure or higher normal school was founded in 1794, a few years after the French Revolution, when universities had been abolished and new institutions were being created to serve the republican state. The decree passed by the National Convention stated that professors in this new institution "will give lessons to the students in the art of teaching morality and of shaping the hearts of young republicans to the practice of public and private virtues" (Smith 1982: 7). Citizenship and moral development were thus key purposes of the new institution, and its curriculum focused on reading, arithmetic, practical geometry, history and French grammar. This stood in striking contrast to the traditional professions that dominated the university, and the use of Latin as the language of study. Graduates were to go back to their local districts and establish normal schools where all the teachers needed for

the newly established state schooling system could be educated along lines learned in this new institution.

The original Ecole Normale Supérieure had a very short life span, but each of France's 28 *académies* or university districts made vigorous efforts to establish normal schools for both men and women. These were populist institutions open to young people from the working classes, and recruiting as many young women as young men for the new career of elementary school teacher or *instituteur*. Their core values stood in striking contrast to those of the university: an emphasis on excellence in pedagogical practice rather than theory; a curriculum characterized by integrated learning in basic knowledge areas such as mathematics and language, in contrast to the highly specialized disciplines of knowledge and professions fostered in the university; a commitment to the explicit moral formation of students in contrast to the tendency towards value neutrality that came with the rising prestige of the natural sciences in the university; a nurturing environment with strong ties of affection and mentorship between teachers and students, in comparison to the impersonal environment of the university, where students were free to select the lectures they wished to hear and move freely across institutional boundaries; a tendency towards close state regulation and professional accountability in contrast to the autonomy and academic freedom of the university; a strong sense of responsibility to offer direct service to the local community and the nation, in contrast to the university's internationalism and tendency to serve knowledge advancement rather than local needs.

In 1806 the Ecole Normale Supérieure was re-established under Napoleon as one of France's Grandes Ecoles. These were highly elite institutions attached to various ministries of the French government. Students were selected by competitive examination and educated to become top civil servants. This element in France's new higher education system was probably influenced by China's traditional civil service examination system, which was greatly admired by French intellectuals of the time. Higher education became integrated into the state bureaucracy to ensure a supply of well qualified civil servants in all important knowledge areas needed for modern development, a model that also had considerable influence in Soviet Russia after the 1917 Revolution.

The Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS) still exists as a leading institution in France, and three others were founded in different parts of the country during the nineteenth century. They have set a model for the normal university, with a curriculum that reflects both the emphasis on specialized disciplines in the basic sciences and humanities that is central to the university curriculum, and the embrace of education as a multi-disciplinary and applied field responsible for ensuring excellence in teaching from early childhood to tertiary education. In reality, however, the ENS in Paris, and its sister institutions, have mainly educated scholars, research scientists and teachers for universities and academic secondary schools, leaving the other levels of education to be served by the normal schools.

13.5   The Anglo-American Experience with the Normal School

Christine Ogren (2005) gives a dynamic overview of the large number of State Normal Schools that were established on a French model in nineteenth century America to prepare teachers for the burgeoning state schooling system. They were the first higher learning institutions open to women, and their curricular patterns and pedagogical ethos were characterized by the same commitment to moral and civic education, the same nurturing relationship between teachers and students and the same integration between subject knowledge and educational practice that characterized the normal schools of France. They did not, however, offer degrees and were thus destined to disappear in the move to upgrade teacher education to degree level that began earliest in the United States.

Viewed by universities as "poor stepchildren of academe," in the words of one historian (Lucas 1997: 39), they were either integrated into major comprehensive universities as faculties of education, or upgraded to become local comprehensive universities that retained a strong focus on education and the training of teachers, but were never given the title of normal universities. They were thus not able to resist the university's orientation towards privileging theoretical knowledge in the established disciplines. The fact that the University of Chicago's Faculty of Education was closed in 1996, in spite of striking contributions in the economics and sociology of education, reflected its remoteness from the actual needs of Chicago's schools and teachers (Altbach 1998).

There has thus been a constant struggle to balance the academic demand for specialized, theoretical and internationally oriented research and teaching, and the needs of schools and school boards for practical professional knowledge relevant to local needs. This was addressed in the 1980s and 1990s by the efforts of the Holmes Group to create professional school networks which involved close linkages with a group of schools that could provide a practical context for field service, action research and professional revitalization (The Holmes Group 1986, 1995). Most recently, Obama's Race to the Top Program has provided incentives for states to put in place more effective accountability systems to ensure the excellence and effectiveness of teacher-preparation programs.

Similar patterns can be seen in the British experience, though the move to an all graduate profession for teachers came a few decades later. While the term normal school had never been used, the parallel colleges of education were absorbed into the faculties of education of major universities in some cases. Others developed into colleges of higher education providing bachelor degree level programs for pre-service teachers, as well as other undergraduate programs in the arts, social sciences, and various applied fields. Many of these have since become full-fledged universities. The Institute of Education of the University of London was able to maintain a leading role, because of its unique status within the federated University of London, giving it the autonomy of a fully fledged university of education, and

enabling it to set standards for high-level research in education, as well as for pre-service and in-service programs for primary and secondary teachers.

Growing political concerns about the academicization of education as a field of study, and the perceived tendency for university programs to become more and more remote from the actual needs of schools resulted in fairly radical initiatives to ensure relevance. Government laid down criteria that courses of professional training must satisfy, and issued sets of competences that beginning teachers must demonstrate as a condition of certification. A Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) was set up to oversee the implementation of these changes and to advise government on the development of professional preparation. In 1993 CATE was replaced by a Teacher Training Agency (TTA) to continue the process of accreditation and also to serve as the channel through which universities and colleges obtained funds to provide professional education for teaching (Maguire and Ball 1995: 246–249).

While teacher training remained a responsibility of older and new universities, all programs had to meet the stringent professional and practical requirements of the TTA before gaining on-going accreditation and funding. Much of the field service and professional training aspect of education programs were required to take place within primary and secondary schools, and gave schools a remarkably high degree of responsibility for the design and management of this aspect of professional preparation. This initiative illustrates a rather radical approach to ensuring that some of the valuing of practice, integrated learning, mentorship and accountability to society that had characterised the former colleges of education could be brought back into university programs for teacher education.

Teacher education is now the responsibility of comprehensive universities in the USA, the UK and the rest of the Anglo-phone world, while the terms "normal school" and "normal university" have disappeared from Anglo-American academic discourse. Most Anglophones are unaware of the original French meaning of *normal* as "setting a moral standard or pattern." When they encounter the term, they are likely to understand it as "not abnormal." One can only hope that this does not discourage an interest in seeking an understanding of the important contributions of normal universities in the Chinese context and universities of education in Japan and the wider East Asian context.

13.6 The Japanese Experience of the Normal School and Normal University

In the late nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth century Japan had established a large number of normal schools and colleges to train teachers for the modern education system which has been so important to its economic rise. These were developed under the influence of continental European models, largely French and German, and they provided a large cohort of well-trained teachers for primary

and early childhood education, under a highly centralised organisational model. With the American occupation after World War Two, Japan was strongly influenced by the American model, and by American concerns to support democratization and decentralization. As a result it became the second country in the world to move towards an all-graduate profession for teachers. Higher education was restructured in ways that absorbed some of the former normal colleges into university faculties of education. Others were developed into prefectural level universities with a strong focus on education.

In effect, the Japanese adopted an open model of teacher education, which allowed universities of all kinds, public and private, national and local, to provide courses for teachers' professional development as long as these courses were approved by the Ministry of Education. Furthermore the actual certification of teachers for primary and secondary school teachers was put into the hands of prefectural authorities, who selected the very best of those qualified by universities and colleges through competitive examinations for positions in their schools. The fact that teachers are civil servants, with commensurate salaries and benefits, has made the profession highly attractive.

Like the USA, Japan thus ended up with academically strong faculties of education at major national universities, which mainly prepare secondary school teachers, and prefectural level universities which focus on education as a major field, as well as having programs in social sciences, liberal arts and new inter-disciplinary fields such as environmental studies and women's studies. These institutions prepare the majority of primary and early childhood teachers. Many of their graduates work in fields allied to education in their local communities, since only a minority are successful in competing for teaching jobs (Shimihara 1995).

These institutions have been given the name "universities of education" (*kyoiku daigaku*), a term that is rarely used in the Western World and that might be viewed as a Japanese invention. According to one scholar who is familiar with the origin of these institutions, the American educational advisors of the 1950s were strongly opposed to the use of the term normal (*shihan*) because the pre-war normal schools were viewed as having some responsibility for fostering an over-charged nationalism that contributed to Japanese aggression in East Asia.[1] The Japanese response to this American view was to create the university of education rather than follow the American model of the local comprehensive university.

Local and regional universities of education have a particular commitment to setting high standards for the teaching profession, and have clearly incorporated many of the values of the normal school, including a focus on professional practice, close links to the local community and a range of integrated inter-disciplinary knowledge areas, such as environmental studies, community development, women's studies and adult and lifelong education. The approach to knowledge in these universities of education covers all the subjects taught at primary and lower secondary levels in school. In addition, the field of education is developed in ways that

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[1] Personal communication with a professor at South China Normal University, who spent 10 years as a doctoral student and scholar in Japan, May, 2013.

serves both the formal teaching profession and the needs of other organisations and agencies for training, lifelong learning and adult education. It is thus a model quite distinct from that of the comprehensive university, and one which may be undergirded by elements of the Confucian knowledge tradition.

13.7   The Chinese Experience of the Normal School and University

Like Japan, China found the model of the European normal school highly appropriate in the preparation of teachers, both women and men, for its early modern schools. A combination of European and Japanese influences between the late nineteenth century and the early 1920s resulted in the development of a large number of normal schools, which gave the opportunity for higher education to young people from impoverished rural families, who could not afford more expensive forms of higher education. Some of these were called higher normal schools and a few developed into full-fledged normal universities. Thus Beijing had a men's normal university by 1922 and a women's normal university by 1924, with the two being merged in 1931 and later moving to Lanzhou during the Japanese occupation. It is interesting to note, however, that the normal schools that were upgraded to university level in the south, where American influence tended to be strong, became comprehensive universities, the best known case being Nanjing Higher Normal School, which became a part of Dongnan University in 1921 (Hayhoe and Li 2010: 91).

The Nationalist government gave minimal support to Beijing Normal University, yet it was to come into its own after the Revolution of 1949 under Soviet influence. Five more national normal universities were established in China's major regions in the early 1950s, and they have given the country important educational leadership ever since. At the same time each province established a normal university, and normal colleges and schools were established at the prefectural level for the training of early childhood and primary school teachers.

In spite of the enormous influence of Anglo-American models of higher education internationally, China's Ministry of Education made a firm decision to maintain and further develop its normal universities in the mid-1990s. At a time when specialized institutions in medicine and engineering have been merged to form larger comprehensive universities in China, five of the six leading national normal universities have retained their title and enhanced their leadership in education. While they were not permitted to enter into mergers with universities in areas such as engineering or medicine, they were encouraged to bring in nearby colleges of continuing teacher education, primary and early childhood teacher education, thus upgrading the academic and professional levels of these programs (Hayhoe and Zha 2011).

Not only are they now responsible for teacher education at all levels, from early childhood to tertiary, they are also taking on important leadership roles in adult education, lifelong education, education for the professions, and new areas such as

public administration, media and the arts. This is in addition to their major programs in the humanities and social and natural sciences, and the new programs they have established in areas such as business, management and IT. Thus the original model of the normal university in the French context has been broadened and the field of education has been given a wider mandate and higher prestige.[2] The decision to maintain and enhance the normal university, in spite of pressure from some institutional leaders for permission to change their title to that of comprehensive university, since it would be better understood in Anglo American circles, stems from a recognition on the part of the national leadership that education is crucial to China's success in the global knowledge economy. I would like to argue that it may also express an awareness of how well this type of higher learning institution fits with China's underlying Confucian ethos. As noted earlier, the term *normal* in French is expressed in the words "teacher as a model" (*shifan*) in Chinese, and it evokes a deep connection to the Confucian knowledge tradition.

At a time when China is seeking to reach out to the world with its program of Confucius Institutes, and entrusting the development of these institutions to partnerships between its universities and a range of institutions around the globe, the normal university may be in a position to play a particularly significant role. Beyond the negative stereotypes of passivity, conformity, memorization and an overweening respect for teachers, what are the underlying values that have enabled so many students to learn well, to be highly motivated and to adapt successfully when they move into global higher education circles? What further possibilities are there in Confucian pedagogical traditions to enhance the learning process?

13.8   Implications for a Confucian Pedagogy

In this final section of the chapter, I will introduce an ongoing debate over the nature and possibilities of Confucian pedagogy, as a stimulus for the comparative discussions on teacher education in this volume, and close with some thoughts on why the university of education and the normal university may be worth studying in greater depth as distinctive Asian institutional models for the organization of effective programs of teacher education.

In a controversial and much debated article entitled "Interpretation, Autonomy and Transformation: Chinese pedagogic discourse in a cross-cultural context," influential Chinese scholar of linguistics and language education Wu Zongjie has sketched out two opposite pictures of the way in which the classics are taught in China – one through an overlay of Western epistemological and analytical assumptions that have become part of an unchallenged world culture, the other a snapshot of the Confucian learner and teacher taken directly from *The Analects* (Wu 2011).

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[2] The East China Normal University in Shanghai provides an interesting example of how one Chinese normal university transformed itself. See the portrait in Hayhoe and Zha (2011). Others, such as Beijing Normal and Northeast Normal have taken different approaches.

Wu sketches out an impressive picture of autonomy in the early Confucian learner, who is vividly depicted in *The Analects* as having both an inner frenzy (愤) to learn, and a facial expression that expressed intense effort (悱). This is a learner who initiates dialogue with the teacher, and fills out the contours of a vision for the growth of knowledge that involves inner transformation as well as a deeper understanding of the external world. It is the picture of a learner for whom words are simply a vehicle through which to get clear insight into the nameless whole that is the understandable universe in which we live. Wu argues that this quality and spirit of learning has been entirely lost in the overlay of "modern epistemology" from the West that shaped the development of Chinese education over the twentieth century. He illustrates this with a depiction of a current Chinese lesson in the classics, in which the text is discussed as a series of propositions established within a system of signs, along lines of a linear logic that is associated with Western language systems.

Wu's essay stimulated a lively set of responses from senior scholars who were invited to comment. Some raised points regarding the continuity of the early Confucian tradition, the question of whether its insights into the relationship between language and thought or understanding might be more Daoist than Confucian, and even the desirability of a revitalized Chinese pedagogy that is rooted in China's early education classics. Others argued that the rigidity of China's celebrated civil service (*keju*) examination system had stifled the creativity and unique characteristics of Confucian pedagogy long before Western influences came in to shape China's patterns of curriculum and learning (Cheng 2011; Curran 2014).

Wu was invited to make a final response to the various commentaries offered on his original piece, and his essay, "Speaking in the place of the sages" goes directly to the issue of the *keju* examinations by analyzing the assessment of an eight-legged essay from the late nineteenth century, not long before the examination system itself was abolished in 1905. In this paper he suggests that pedagogy might be seen as a process of meaning making and that the purpose of education was primarily to establish a language rather than knowledge, so that the learner could speak/act in the place of the sages. He goes on to comment that this could be an intellectual tool to construct new visions of pedagogy that resonate with both the Western and Eastern pasts (Wu 2014).

Wu then illustrated the way in which the Chinese examination tradition required students to use the classics to construct meanings by presenting the assessment of this successful nineteenth century examination which emphasized the profundity of meanings that emerged through the student's ability to comment on the text. It was no less than a subtle rephrasing of the classics to make the past speak again in order to throw light on the present, or to put it in simpler words, "I comment on the six classics and the six classics comment on me" (Elman 1997: 7). The Chinese character for language, *wen* (文), which might be interpreted as texture, pattern or fabric and stands for the textual or visual awareness of language, "refers to the deepest sense of intelligibility and clarity felt in the heart" (Wu 2014: 327). Confucian pedagogy thus embraces an integrated learning of the mind, body, spirit and emotions that goes deeper than propositional or logical representations of truth and nurtures a profound sense of responsibility to serve the good of family, community, and the

world of nature (Hayhoe 2014). From this perspective, Western readers may reflect on experiences of reading the Bible less for its propositional truth than its spiritual and moral inspiration, also on the repetition of liturgical prayers and readings in the environment of Christian worship services that have some resonance with Confucian ritual practices.

I hope this brief discussion of a lively set of interactions over Eastern and Western approaches to pedagogy will stimulate readers to explore the interchange in these two issues of the *Journal of Curriculum Studies* for themselves. It remains for me to note how the organization of knowledge in the curriculum of the university of education, a model invented in East Asia and spreading from there, may be more conducive to this kind of pedagogy than that of the global research university. Its emphasis on applied knowledge oriented towards the social good, and its tendency to integrate disciplinary knowledge with an understanding of human development processes that engages moral and aesthetic understanding as well as cognitive ability resonates with the Confucian tradition. The normal university, an invention of eighteenth century France that is taking on a new form in contemporary China, might be seen as a hybrid that can knit together curricular features of both Western and Chinese higher education in ways that could support elements of this Confucian pedagogy and enrich current debates over pedagogical reform.

Let me close with a final thought from Wu's text, and my own personal experience. *Wen*, the Chinese term for language, depicts words not as signifiers or concepts but as the track of life and the *Analects* may then be seen as Confucius' footprints in the world. For Christians the parallel experience of following the footprints of Christ in the world through reading the Gospels may be far more important than the theological propositions later put in place by ecclesiastical authority. These texts from the East and West can thus be seen as complementary approaches to nourishing "a disclosure of virtue, a heart for learning and a care for all knowledges" (Wu 2014: 328).

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Chapter 14
Connecting Higher Education and Schools: Building Partnerships for Capacity Building and School Improvement in England

Qing Gu

Higher education institutions' involvement in schools and the community is not a new phenomenon (Wiewel and Broski 1997). Much attention has been paid to enhancing the significant role of higher education in supporting the professional development and lifelong learning of teachers and, through this, improving learning outcomes for school students (Brady 2002; Day 1997, 1998; McLaughlin and Black-Hawkins 2004; Watson and Fullan 1992). However, as yet, despite the growing rhetoric of the importance of university-school partnerships in raising aspirations and attainment of learners, there has been a lack of consensus on the purpose, nature and form of effective models of partnership, and the ways in which they contribute to collective capacity building in schools.

This chapter will focus on a new form of University-School partnership which is established as a positive response to the recent UK government-led deep structural and cultural changes in "relaunching" failing and underachieving schools in disadvantaged urban areas. Drawing upon case study evidence from a Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) funded research project on the practices of partnership enterprises between higher education institutions and their local schools and communities, the chapter will explore the nature of university-school partnerships and examine the challenges and issues embedded in the process of creating, building and deepening sustained and sustainable partnerships for capacity building and school improvement. Partnerships are defined in this chapter as joint enterprises for the mutual benefit of those involved and in which each partner has a distinctive contribution to make towards the achievement of an agreed purpose. The findings have implications for professional development, school leadership and the quality retention of teachers in schools.

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14.1   The Changing Educational Landscape: Setting the Scene

> We all have a part to play in giving every child and young person the best possible start in life. Government, schools, colleges and children's services have a key responsibility in partnership with children, young people and families, but if we want to achieve our aspiration for a world-class system then we need others too. Employers and Higher Education Institutions in particular have a key role to play in helping to create a culture which values educational achievement and talent, in which all young people have high aspirations and understand their routes and opportunities to achieve them, and in which young people can access skills and expertise to enrich their learning and set it in a real world context. (Balls and Denham 2008: 4)

A key social, economic and political focus of governments throughout the industrialised world is "raising educational attainment and enhancing employability". More than a decade ago, four published research reports in the UK together demonstrate graphically the continuing educational and life disadvantages experienced by children and young people in the UK and the value of schools in contributing to the importance of these:

1. Research commissioned by The Sutton Trust presents "unequivocal" evidence that "the attainment of otherwise similar pupils in deprived schools lags significantly behind those in the more advantaged schools" (The Sutton Trust 2009: 3) by as much as two grades at General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) level; and that they were "five to six times more likely to enter examinations other than full GCSEs" (2009: 12).
2. A report of research into child wellbeing and child poverty, also in 2009, found that the UK was placed 24 out of 29 European countries, "well below countries of similar affluence. Only Romania, Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania and Malta do worse" (Child Poverty Action Group 2009: 2). The wellbeing index which informed the research conclusions was made up of seven key indicators: health (24th); subjective wellbeing (22nd); children's relationships (15th); material resources (24th); behaviour and risk (18th); education (22nd); and housing and environment (17th).
3. Research funded by the Department for Education (DfE) (then Department for Children, Schools and Families 2009) found "very strong correlations between many of the attitudes and behaviours of young people (and to a lesser extent, their parents) and a variety of teenage education and behavioural outcomes." Particularly important, according to this research, were the young persons' beliefs in their own abilities, whether they liked and found their time in school worthwhile, and their educational aspirations.
4. Large scale, longitudinal research into schools in a range of communities shows that whilst some "add value" to pupils' personal, educational and social achievements, other do not (Day et al. 2009a), and research into teachers' work and life in successful schools serving disadvantaged communities has found that there

are associations between teacher wellbeing, pupil achievement and school improvement (Day et al. 2007; Day et al. 2009b).

Schools play an integral part in the spiritual, intellectual, emotional, and physical and citizenry development of their pupils and by extension, the communities in which they live. The UK Government's "Every Child Matters" agenda and the National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal have placed additional responsibilities upon schools in socio-economically disadvantaged communities in urban and rural areas. The publication of the "National Council for Educational Excellence [NCEE]: Recommendations" in October 2008 has paved the way for an integration of different schools' sectors, business and higher education institutions to help raise all children's aspirations and educational attainment, and through this, promote the country's economic and social wellbeing. This document can also be seen in the light of a movement in the policy and practice debate on social justice and economic competitiveness – "from a focus on which universities' students attend, to one about the vast number of able students who never progress to higher education" (NCEE 2008: 10). These government announcements resonate with Harkavy's earlier proposal which stressed the importance of involving universities, together with schools, in community building and education reform because "they have both the interest and ability to make a profound difference" (1998: 29). Forging links between schools, colleges, business and higher education institutions is thought to be the way forward.

In November 2010, the publication entitled *The Importance of Teaching* marked a new era of school-university partnerships in England. School leaders and teachers have been expected to "use their increased autonomy to explore new ways of working together", drive collaboration and strategic partnerships between educational organisations, and through these, lead a self-improving school system (DfE 2010: 52). As a deliberate act of policy, the government has made resources available to create and establish a national network of teaching schools. There are now over 600 teaching schools in England which are "the fulfilment" (Matthews and Berwick 2013: 5) of the UK Government's vision to create a national network of "outstanding" (based upon national inspection judgment) schools which "lead and develop sustainable approaches to teacher development across the country" (HM Government 2010: 23). They are at the heart of a movement towards a self-improving school system where "more control and responsibility passes to the local level in a spirit of mutual aid between school leaders and their colleagues" (Hargreaves 2010: 23). In addition to teaching school alliances, schools can also be involved in many other forms of formal and informal overlapping networks and partnerships such as multi-academy trusts, federations of schools, and academy chains. As Matthews and his colleagues observe,

the pattern of education in England is shifting. Schools that once were islands are becoming connected. Indeed, it is increasingly rare to find outstanding schools that do not have a web of links with other schools. Competition remains, but now co-exists with collaboration and the creation of formal alliances through federations and chains. (Matthews et al. 2011: 5)

In today's global knowledge economy where knowledge transfer is high on national agendas, it would be in the universities' best interest to reformulate their mission and "societal rationale" (Wiewel and Broski 1997: 2) for themselves. However, this radically changing and fragmented school organisation landscape has been perceived to pose significant challenges to the university sector seeking to foster partnership working with schools: "the development of academies and other new school types increases individualism and autonomy in the school sector…(so) individual institutions will wish to weigh carefully the resources required and the advantages to be gained before entering into substantial partnership commitments" (Higher Education Academy 2012: 3). The usefulness, rigour, and relevance of university research has also been called into question and under close finance led, ideologically determined public scrutiny (Day 1998; Handscomb et al. 2014). Traditional research-focussed institutions in particular are under pressure to transform their role by becoming "part of a larger and denser network of knowledge institutions" which extends into industry, government and the media (Gibbons et al. 1994: 71). The UK Economic and Social Research Council argues that "academic researchers collaborating with business, the public sector and/or the third sector on projects of mutual interest is one of the most effective mechanisms for knowledge exchange and transfer" (ESRC 2009). Within such policy contexts, universities are expected to extend their services to adjacent communities through outreach programmes which aim at creating opportunities for dialogue, knowledge application, and idea sharing between the research community and its targeted users.

It is within such policy contexts that this HEFCE funded research was conducted to explore the nature of university-school partnerships and key issues with regard to its growth and sustainability in times of change.

14.2 Understanding the Nature of Partnerships

14.2.1 The Definition Problem

Partnerships between individual universities and schools are not new. What adds to the difficulty is that the nature of these "partnerships" has been changing over the years. Yet, as Clark pointed out more than 20 years ago, understanding the meaning of the terminology is crucial in discussing partnerships:

> One of the complications of investigating this subject is that different terms are used to describe similar activities, and on the other hand, different meanings are attached to the same term. Authors speak of partnerships, collaborations, consortiums, networks, clusters, inter-organisational agreements, collectives, and cooperatives, frequently without definition and often without distinguishing their chosen description from other possible terms. (1988: 33)

14.2.2   Defining Partnerships

According to the *Oxford English Dictionary*, a partner is "a person [or organisation] who takes part in a business or other undertaking with another person or group" (2006: 543). A partnership thus entails engaging with one or more partners for the benefit of all. Bradley (1988) describes a partnership as an "operational relationship in which people work together towards the achievement of their goal." However, what appears to be missing in his definition is the reference to a formalised system established through or for the partnership – within which participants negotiate processes, power relations, and outcomes.

For the purpose of the research and to clarify our use of terminologies, we define the partnership as *the enterprise*. In the enterprise, the work does not belong to any one individual or one interest group. Rather, it is jointly owned by each of the participants. *Structures*, *relationships*, and *intervention* are three indispensable components of a partnership enterprise and play an integral part in determining the direction, growth, and sustainability of the partnership. The structure refers to the formal organisational arrangements which are unique to each partnership. The relationships refer to how the participants act within the structures, and how they interact with each other. Both contribute to the culture of the partnership (i.e. "the way we are and the way we do things around here").

Tushnet identified three types of partnership:

1. Primary or limited partnerships: 'managing partner with other organizations providing services either to it or to clients'
2. Coalition partnerships: 'participating organizations divide the labour in order to seek common goals'
3. Collaborative partnerships: 'equal partners divide both labour and decision-making on a continuous basis'(1993: 6).

Each of these may be found in the case in this chapter. However, Tushnet is describing structures, and it is the nature of the relationships and quality of the interventions within partnerships that are crucial to their success. McLaughlin and Black-Hawkins argue that "in the models which are school-wide, and even more so in those which go across institutions, the nature of the relationships is crucial" (2004: 279). Because purposes differ, there is unlikely to be a single "right way" to establish and sustain a partnership (Callahan and Martin 2007: 143). There are, however, a number of core components which, if present in partnerships, are likely to enhance the possibilities for their success. For example, a range of research suggests that clearly defined collaborative structures provide systems which enable different parties to work together towards shared goals which "cannot be reached by either party independently" (Barnett et al. 1999, cited in Callahan and Martin 2007: 136), and that, within these, trusting relationships, strong leadership, and respect are necessary to achieve lasting success. In a healthy university-school partnership, each partner brings to the partnership their unique, complementary expertise,

experiences and qualities, and it is important that, as Wiewel and Broski argue, each partner's unique strengths, weaknesses, and needs are acknowledged (1997: 6).

Callahan and Schwandt's (1999) identification of four themes of the dichotomous characteristic of a school-university partnership provides further elaboration on the elements that are likely to be present in such successful partnerships. The first is *culture*; this is about the "shared understanding of the culture, values and assumptions" (Callahan and Schwandt 1999: 139). It pertains to the nature of the participation within the partnership, the relationships, and the bonds of interaction. These can be either localised or dispersed. The second theme is *action and experience*, which is about "reflection in order to achieve goals" (1999: 139), the modes of learning involved, and the ways in which events are dealt with. This can be either continuous or periodic. The third theme is *knowledge systems* and regards "dissemination and diffusion" (1999: 139). Dissemination is considered to be formal knowledge transfer, such as policies and organizational reporting structures, while diffusion refers to informal communication, networks. The final theme, *adaptation*, "implies some change in behaviour" (1999: 139). This concerns the nature of change patterns within the partnership and "the ways in which social systems adapt to their environments" (1999: 141).

In their discussion of university-school-community partnerships, Wiewel and Broski (1997) pointed out that universities could bring partnership experts in many fields access to multiple sources of funding and to other potential partners, their relatively neutral academic standing and the ability to take a long-term perspective, whilst schools and communities could provide local knowledge of what approaches might be acceptable, grassroots legitimacy, and their long-term stake and commitment. However, to do so successfully, they and their staff will need to change. Although academics will always have distinctive contributions to make and unique sets of research expertise to bring to the partnerships, these are of no more importance than those which others bring. The point is, as was noted more than a decade ago, "to ensure informed dialogue, and, through this, influence" (Day 1997: 201). In essence, pluralism and dialogue are needed to engage in the task of creating, building and sustaining partnerships which are founded on principles of equity, justice, and respect and which make a difference:

> Building and sustaining productive partnerships is very difficult. Successful partnerships are tenaciously resilient in an ever changing policy and system environment. They require commitment which is regularly rededicated, a purpose which is often reaffirmed, and an identity and dynamic which are continually replenished. Partnerships depend on the adherence and obligation of their members; they thrive on trust and the continuing housekeeping attention that partners invest in them. (Handscomb et al. 2014: 32)

14.3   The Research

This chapter is based upon a 5-month, HEFCE funded multi-perspective investigation into the nature and models of university service in local, socio-economically disadvantaged communities. The investigation was led by the School of Education

of the University of Nottingham in conjunction with Nottingham University Samworth Academy, the Active Communities Team, and the Widening Participating Team and was set within current national policies in which promoting the development of sustainable relationships between schools and higher education (HE) was seen as vital to "raise the educational attainment of learners, widen participation and promote learner progression to the full range of HE available" (HEFCE website: http://www.hefce.ac.uk/pubs/circlets/2009/cl01_09/). The study examined contexts, purposes, processes, and outcomes of three strategic partnerships, each at a different stage of development – nascent (Nottingham University Samworth Academy), developing (Active Communities), and mature (Widening Participation). The purpose of the study was to provide evidence of: (i) how different partnership models worked; (ii) organisational, cultural, and relationship issues within partnerships in different phases of development; and (iii) costs and benefits of university, school, and community partnerships. This study should be seen as a first stage in creating a taxonomy of different forms of HE and School/Community/Individual Learning Partnerships, including the economic, social, and individual costs and benefits, together with different kinds and levels of intervention.

Whilst the three partnerships themselves are examples of the university's responsiveness to HEFCE funded policy initiatives, they are also a testament to one Russell Group university's sustained commitment to make a difference to the health, education, and welfare of the local community, and central to its aim to provide equality of opportunity to maximise the benefit to the university from the diversity of its workforce and student population. The three partnerships were selected as case studies because they all focus upon interventions in areas of socio-economic deprivation, where participation in HE is low, and address the academic, social, and well-being development needs of three key disadvantaged sections of the community: that is, those of statutory school age, those who are excluded or who exclude themselves from school, and those who are beyond school age but educationally and socially marginalised.

> We're a global university but I do want colleagues to respect the fact that our roots are here. We are embedded within the local community and we should be doing what we can to support and develop and enrich the community in which we operate…
>
> The payoff for us is ultimately two things: one, the university being valued by the local community, them being proud that they've got a university of this quality in their city; and then secondly: making a difference seeing things happening that wouldn't otherwise have happened without us here. (Vice Chancellor, University of Nottingham, 2009)

Begun in April 2009, the research team collected and analysed qualitative and documentary stakeholder data from each partnership to understand the nature, work, and effectiveness of the aims and approaches, staff structures, and strategies within each partnership. A Steering Group was appointed in consultation with external partners, and with representation from them, and from the areas within the University involved in the partnerships. Followed by the first Steering Group meeting in early April, the project was conducted in five stages:

1. selection, collation and preliminary analysis of data;
2. discussion of initial findings with the Steering Group;
3. refinement of the research focus and structure;
4. discussion with the Steering Group in the light of further findings; and
5. agreement on report structure and recommendations.

By adopting a multi-perspective approach, the research was able to take into account the ethical, policy, and practical factors that affect the capacities of the participants within each partnership to engage with each other over time, including funding, infrastructure and staffing, competing resource demands, and competing performance indicators.

In addition to collection and analysis of existing documentary data, a series of interviews was carried out with University staff, staff and students at schools and colleges, and other key stakeholders. Interviews and other forms of qualitative data were coded, categorised, and transferred into analytical matrices which were used to refine emergent themes, identify patterns, focus subsequent data collection, and synthesise key attributes at and across individual partnership levels. The interplay between these analytic procedures progressively integrated and triangulated the various forms of data, provided grounds for continuing problem reformulation, and extended understanding of emergent themes relating to the essence of partnership models over the course of the study.

For the purpose of this chapter, I will focus on the case of the Nottingham University Samworth Academy (NUSA) which represents a type of formal school-university partnership established in England as a means of turning around under-performing schools and raising educational standards. This strand of research comprised analysis of a range of materials produced by the University Academy Project Unit (APU), including films and other materials produced by the visioning and steering groups during the Academy Procurement Process, in addition to online documents on the websites of the existing school and NUSA. Semi-structured interviews were carried out with 11 individuals representing different aspects of the partnership: the academy project manager, the vice chancellor, and three senior academics (one of whom was a member of the new governing body for NUSA). Externally, the research team interviewed the representative of David Samworth (the co-sponsor), the principal and vice principal of NUSA, as well as two members of the teaching staff who were members of the existing 'failing' school before it was re-designated as an academy.

14.4   The History of NUSA

The Nottingham University Samworth Academy (NUSA) is a new secondary school, replacing an existing school judged to be failing in the quality of its educational provision, which opened in September 2009 in the community of Bilborough in Nottingham. Academies are state schools established and managed by external sponsors. Whilst academies are not maintained by the local authority (LA), they are

set up with the LA's backing. The LA also has a seat on the Academy's governing body. Core funding comes from the Department for Education, with external sponsors providing the vision and direction, including the appointment of the majority of the governors. In the case of NUSA, the co-sponsors are the University of Nottingham and David Samworth, a retired local businessman.

The decision to open an Academy in Bilborough lies within an educational policy context which aims to redress cycles of underachievement in schools serving areas of high socio-economic deprivation within the maintained sector. In this sense, it is driven by the same policies of the Labour Government of 1997 as those which promote the Widening Participation and Active Communities initiatives. The decision by Lord Adonis in 2005 to endorse this Russell Group University as a co-sponsor of the proposed Academy marked the first stage in the development of a new model of sustained partnership between the university and its local community, with the shared aim of raising educational standards for the children within that community.

The university's involvement with the project came about as a result of a discussion, in May 2005, between the local Member of Parliament (MP) for the community, the (then) Schools Minister, and the Vice Chancellor about the feasibility of the university sponsoring a new Academy in Bilborough. The decision to take up this opportunity was partly driven by the Labour Government's policy for the establishment of 'new' Academies to replace failing schools in disadvantaged communities and, importantly, by the university's strong sense of social and moral obligation:

> It's about being open to your neighbours and your community and, more widely, with the knowledge and the expertise that you have and with the kind of very positive, supportive community that the university can be, to perhaps bring out the best in another community. (Academy Project Unit [APU] Director)

There is a pervading sense that the opportunity to work with one community in this unique way, to be involved in establishing a brand new school, has the potential to be a reciprocal partnership with gains for all involved. Of particular significance has been the commitment at this stage for NUSA to be considered a 'research school' in partnership with the university.

14.5   Building Partnership for Capacity Building and School Improvement: Issues of Growth and Sustainability

14.5.1   A 'Meeting of Minds': Managing Differences in Cultures

The cultures of school and university are very different. To achieve a mutually beneficial partnership between the two cultures, the challenge, as Richmond argues, "is to understand the cultures of the various players and to foster a sense of belonging, regardless of the cultures involved" (1996: 217). One of the major challenges facing

schools and universities in establishing a partnership is to manage the difference in cultures. Brookhart and Loadman (1990) identified four key dimensions of differences: "(1) work tempo and the nature of professional time; (2) professional focus, from theoretical to practical; (3) chosen reward structure; and (4) sense of personal power and efficacy." Nonetheless, as Watson and Fullan (1992: 218) assert, "we can learn from each other, but we also need to change some aspects of both types of cultures".

> [W]orking in isolation from each other, both schools and universities tend to accept uncritically their own views of education. In working together, universities may become more focussed on outcomes and accountability, while schools and school systems may become more reflective and coherent in their approaches. Working closely together requires not only communication and understanding, but also shifts in behaviour. It is difficult to avoid stereotypes and build on an acknowledgment of differences, but commitment to a partnership, with constant interaction around joint tasks, may lead to reconceptualizations of responsibilities, to the mutual benefit of both. (Watson and Fullan 1992: 218)

This view is echoed by Samworth's representative:

> The partnership is probably at its best and most effective when united by a determination to resolve critical issues facing the Academy.

There were tensions that arose from university academics working with the school: "we haven't found that we've had a really, really good dialogue with the majority of the teaching staff in the school in terms of what we could have achieved" (APU Director). The "Roman" day is an example of this (where the university was asked to help the school after it had been let down by another provider, and university staff found there was a lack of direction from the school in terms of the expectations of their input); this has led to procedures being drawn up for future involvement from the university with events such as this. The Vice Principal reflected on the relationship between the existing school and the university in the early days of his appointment in the following way:

> I think the process of engaging the university has been fairly patchy to the point where there will have been everything from enthusiastic support to outright opposition and there are still pockets of mistrust. (Vice Principal)

14.5.2 Relationships Matter: Linking Social Capital

Since NUSA's infancy, developing, building, and capitalising social relations for improvement are a key feature of the partnership between the school and the University. The Principal of NUSA sees the model of partnership as one based on a shared understanding of core values rather than structures.

> In the heart of it, there is a single desire and a shared agreement about what it is that we are doing. (Principal)

The development of a school-university partnership may be seen as a move away from hierarchically dominated structures to relationship dominated processes,

though the development of NUSA remains under the oversight of the university. Relationships are at the heart of this partnership model. The growth and sustainability of a partnership relies upon the creation (and endorsement) of a series of interrelated activities and opportunities which bring together individuals from different sides of the partnership so that core values are communicated and shared.

> What our aim is, is to build up a number of one to one relationships and this is why we've got the action research; so six months from now I would hope the evidence from that will be that there will be a number of projects going on with the university, and that's how you build things. (Principal)

In the web of relationships that have been established and developed over time, the Principal, as the representative of NUSA, describes himself as the child of two parents – the University of Nottingham and Samworth – who have the same set of shared ideas and vision, but who also have their own individual priorities and agendas. His presence on the Common Visioning Group allows him to work with them as co-sponsors with a shared aim of working through the stages of procurement. In addition, he has formed a relationship with them as individual "parents" with occasionally differing views.

> We're like the baby of two parents who may not be living together: both parents want the very best for their child but they may not always agree at a fundamental philosophical level, but the one thing they both agree on is that they want their child to be happy and I think that's very much the way that I would see the relationship, and whenever there are issues which my two parents feel different on, I always know – because there are some. There have to be because you couldn't have a relationship without some fundamental core differences. In terms of the way they deal with the Academy, they are always, from both sides, trying to do the best for us; it's just that their view of what is best for us differs. (Principal)

The Vice Principal's perspective on the model of partnership was shaped by his previous involvement with the university, particularly with the School of Education. He felt comfortable working with academics and with teachers in the school. He acted in a brokerage role at times to explain why the teachers were wary of working with the academics, and he sought opportunities for collaboration between the school and the university on behalf of the teachers. His title is Vice Principal of Research and Development, and so he actively looked for ways to work with the university on research which would be mutually beneficial to both sides of the partnership. He believed the partnership will only continue to work if it builds upon existing connections, and was a "redemptive process", developing what was already good to make further improvements.

He explained that one of the obstacles was the size of the university as an organisation, and again, this was why existing relationships across the partnership were essential as starting points for future growth. Can a model of partnership be sustained across these two constructs? The Principal explained how initially this had caused him to question how such a partnership might work. It became clear to him that it worked through a series of relational ties:

> I started to understand what it was and that I was not forming a relationship with the university. I'm forming a relationship with some remarkable individuals. And then I got to meet more of them and I got better and better relationships. (Principal)

These relational ties are strengthened by shared goals and a common sense of purpose for the partnership (something which is echoed throughout the interview data), "as the partnership itself evolves… sharing common understandings and values is important, as is acknowledging and respecting differences in perspectives" (McLaughlin and Black-Hawkins 2004: 279). Such commonality of purpose and sense of equality give rise to an "authentic partnership" (Catelli et al. 2000: 227).

The individuals with responsibility for creating sustainable bonds across the partnership are the APU Director and the Vice Principal of NUSA. Both described the ways in which these differing cultures manifest themselves. The Vice Principal's brokering role has helped to progress the situation from one of (at times) mutual mistrust to a clearer understanding of these differences.

> Another thing that happened recently was that one of the centres of excellence for teaching and learning at the university had a conference about our brief and about universities in schools and [the Vice Principal] was one of the speakers – one of the better speakers actually because everybody was full of praise for what he had to say. But he was saying things like school teachers don't really approve of or admire academics – they want to believe that those who can't, teach teachers. Now that's a sort of difficult thing to say, but once it's been said, you can see how you feel about it, and what you can do about it, and how we are going to get round it, and not upset each other. I think those are the sorts of questions that we just need to be very frank about. And there are physical things like having a space at NUSA, which [the Principal] has kindly agreed, that we should have and so university staff doing stuff are welcome and have a place to be. So, we will be there regularly, and I'm sure that [the Principal and Vice Principal] will spend significant amounts of time here because partnerships need time and space. The model has to be a dialogue between the university and NUSA. (APU Director)

The APU Director's outline of the ways in which the school and university will work together, using the Vice Principal as a conduit from NUSA, and the APU as a conduit for the university, represents the creation of a "new inter-institutional structure that will permit change and improvement to occur at both levels, and strive toward a new seamless system of education" (Catelli et al. 2000: 207).

14.5.3   Building Structures for Sustainability

Whilst argued earlier in this chapter that the partnership success has been built through relational ties, these have been developed and are part of the developing, though still nascent, structures. The Vice Principal described how the partnership with the University gave him the backing and the authority to resist some of the "top down" management processes that individuals setting up another school would not necessarily have. A partnership solely between business and an academy would be very different, he argued.

The director of the APU has had a pivotal role in the partnership to date and in the model for the future (with her and the Vice Principal acting as intermediaries). However, if a partnership is overly reliant on one individual, then its sustainability

is called into question. In the NUSA partnership model, over time, systems are being put in place which counter such over reliance on individuals.

> The idea for NUSA over time is that, as relationships build up and as structures become more stable, they won't need the intermediaries, and the head of a department at NUSA will ring the head of a school here and arrange things themselves. At the moment, [the Principal] can't afford that very open school model because he needs to know exactly what is going on, and it needs to be planned for so that the Academy doesn't collapse under the pressure of well-meaning offers of support or, indeed, end up with nothing because nothing has been properly planned. But the close control at the moment isn't planned to be there forever. (APU Director)

The Vice Chancellor spoke of the university's commitment to the partnership as a long-term one. This is an important predictor of success since: "partnerships which rely upon the temporary provision of external resources are very likely to fail in the longer term" (Day 2003: 23). However, the author also warns that universities have traditionally been unlikely to support such "commitment-led, labour intensive work" (2003: 27). There will therefore need to be further structures put into place to support the staffing commitment required by the university to sustain the partnership in this way.

14.6 Partnerships as Organisations of Trust: Connecting Higher Education and Schools for Improvement

> Partnerships, their character and consequences, are forged at the contested interface between localised networks and central agencies, and they are framed by the broader relations that play through partnerships as well as between partnerships and the wider political order. Like schools, partnerships are sites of struggle. (Seddon et al. 2005: 582)

The university-school partnership reported here illustrates the ways in which the university acts which are different from the norms of teaching, research, and administration that traditionally characterise university work. Its development journey illustrates forms of intervention in which those from within the university actively seek new ways by which they can relate to the needs of, in this case, teachers and schools, serving communities of socio-economic disadvantage through the provision of dedicated resource and through different forms of engagement. In partnerships such as this, the university as interventionist aims to ask questions which are perceived by the clients as relevant to their needs, to investigate answers to these questions collaboratively with the clients, and to place the onus for action on the clients themselves. For such partnerships to be mutually beneficial to all parties involved, it is particularly important that those in HE learn to act in different ways "to converse in new languages and to listen to different voices" (Day 1991: 69).

There is not yet one simple model which represents the NUSA partnership. Rather, as in the early stages of any relationship involving a number of stakeholders, there are different perspectives and experiences as trust is built, past experience

reconsidered, and old and new ways of working reconciled. Bringing together the different cultural traditions of academics and universities – well known for their independence and individuality – and schools, which depend for their success upon collaboration, and communities of disadvantage which contain elements that are, by definition and practice, fractured and dysfunctional, is no easy task. To begin to map the dynamics of relationships in such innovative partnerships is therefore important in understanding how change for improvement may be achieved.

Commitment by universities is as much about contributing altruistically to the life chances and well-being of the young people and their communities, to whom these partnerships are dedicated, as it is to the instrumental achievement of the performance indicators which are a necessary part of sustaining the necessary resource; for the successful implementation of social change is dependent as much upon building and sustaining trust over time as it is upon legislation or policy advice.

> Trust is established through a commitment period during which each partner has the opportunity to signal to the other a willingness to accept personal risk and not to exploit the vulnerability of the other for personal gain…As participants begin to feel more comfortable with one another, there may be a tacit testing of the limits of trust and influence and attempts to arrive at a mutual set of expectations…. (Tschannen-Moran 2004: 42)

Whilst external funding and internal university support are essential conditions for establishing the mechanisms through which university-school partnerships are able to be created, they do not, in themselves, guarantee that such partnerships will be successful. This is dependent upon leaders who are able to face inwards (towards their colleagues in the university) and outwards (towards potential partners outside the academy), and engage with both to develop organisational structures, cultures and relationships appropriate to the fulfilment of the expectations and intentions of the funders and their clients.

To do so successfully in changing economic and social contexts in which sources of funding have fluctuated and in which ways of measuring success have become more complex requires considerable strength of purpose, resilience, strategic vision, and the possession of a range of organisational management and interpersonal skills. Strategies, for example, must be fit for purpose and context sensitive. One clear feature of each partnership in our research is forward movement. Successful partnerships are living organisms, rather than fixed points. Uncertainties – recruitment of students (WP), effectiveness of community engagement (AC), and the success of new curricula (NUSA) – are a present and continuing feature of such partnership work, and must be managed.

Finally, an analysis of interviews and other data show clearly that each partnership leader and member recognises the critical importance of trust:

> Effective organisations depend and thrive on trust. In relationships and organisations, trust amounts to people being able to rely on each other, so that their world and relationships have coherence and continuity…Trust is a resource. It creates and consolidates energy, commitment and relationships. (Hargreaves and Fink 2006: 212–213)

In writing about sustainable leadership, Hargreaves and Fink (2006) cite Reina and Reina's work on "Trust and Betrayal in the Workplace" (1999). They identify

three forms of trust, each of which may be found in the three school-university partnerships:

1. **Contractual trust** is expressed through impersonal, objective and often written agreements – in shared performance standards, agreed targets, clear job descriptions… Contractual trust requires us to meet obligations, complete contracts, and keep promises.
2. **Competence trust** involves the willingness to trust oneself and other people to be competent and the willingness to provide sufficient support and learning opportunities for people to become competent. Delegating effectively and providing progress and growth and development for others are strong indications of competence trust.
3. **Communication trust** is evident in human interactions that communicate shared understanding and good intentions. Clear, high-quality, open, and frequent communication are the hallmarks of communication trust. So too are sharing information, telling the truth, keeping confidences and being willing to admit mistakes (Hargreaves and Fink 2006, pp. 212–213).

Each of these partnerships has been built upon the premise that trust matters. From the outset, the leaders had to change attitudes of many outside the university who regarded it as distant and self-interested. Extending, deepening and embedding different, more positive attitudes takes time but without doing so, the participation of individuals, schools, and communities required to fulfil the vision of school justice and improvement which each partnership has at its heart would have been impossible.

14.7 Partnerships as Sites of Learning and Knowledge Exchange: Implications for Teacher Professional Development and Capacity Building in Schools

The case example of NUSA shows that building, establishing, and sustaining effective successful school-university partnerships is challenging. There are many cultural, structural, and logistical barriers to schools (teachers and leaders) and universities (academics and other key stakeholders) working together. However, it also shows that when organisational trust is established and organisational priorities are aligned, such partnerships can offer significant benefits and/or opportunities for teacher development and capacity building for school improvement.

The school community have a vested interest in accessing research, information and resources which are practitioner-oriented, accessible, and applicable to their everyday practice. Teachers within NUSA saw benefits from having access to the resources that the university could bring. They also recognised that having such a high profile sponsor could lead to an improvement in terms of their reputation within the community and beyond. One teacher from the existing school explained that the

university is a respected institution in the community, and the fact that it had attached its name to the school was important "because everything they do turns to gold."

In England, increasingly, evidence-based teacher enquiry and joint practice development between schools are perceived by schools and networks of schools as impetus for continuing professional development and part of the mainstream school-to-school improvement. Universities are seen as having much to contribute to this development, and partnerships with higher education institutions are perceived by schools to have provided promising research and development opportunities for them and their teachers (Gu et al. 2014). Thus, this recasts *professional development as a collaborative enterprise within the school-university partnership*. In this research, there was recognition that the university could be an exciting source of professional development for the teachers who were able to engage with research projects directly and through these, improve their own practice. There was also a sense that there were opportunities for a synergetic relationship where the university could benefit from having such immediate access to one school and community for a site of research.

Evidence such as this supports Sharples' (2013) observations that "perhaps one of the most significant shifts over the last ten years in relation to practitioners' use of research has been the realisation that simply passively disseminating research – 'packaging and posting' – is unlikely to have a significant impact on people's behaviours (Nutley et al. 2007; Levin 2011)" (Sharples 2013: 18). More recently, much more has been written about the need for a mindset shift in schools which fosters learning cultures that are enquiry-oriented and evidence-based, so that schools are able to adapt research evidence to suit their specific contexts, and create their local knowledge that informs decision-making and improvement in practice (e.g., Levin 2010; Petty 2006; Scott and McNeish 2013). *School-university partnerships as research communities will have much to offer to this culture shift*. In agreement with Nutley et al. (2007), Sharples argues that network-based approaches, "which support direct engagement and dialogue between researchers and users, are proving to be particularly effective" (2013: 18). However, it is only when school leaders make it a priority that partnerships can be used as external sources of support (Levin 2010), that joint learning and research communities can become sustainable, and most importantly, that influences in the thinking and development practices of teachers can be long term. This is because, at least in part, school leaders create cultural and structural conditions which enable joint research partnerships to develop collective and organisational capacity, and spread and sustain practice change (Campbell and Levin 2012).

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Chapter 15
Accountability, Standards and Activism: A Challenge or Opportunity for Teacher Education

Judyth Sachs

15.1 Introduction

The writing and development of this chapter has been influenced by two complementary but unrelated activities, each has a considerable influence on my thinking about the ongoing education and development of teachers. First was reading Diane Ravitch's (2010) book, and her epiphany "*The Death and Life of the Great American School System*. At the age of 75 Ravitch has rethought some of her positions about the value of testing regimes and the effectiveness and impact of national school reform initiatives. As a passionate, if not conservative advocate for public education she was increasingly becoming disaffected with the choice movement and the accountability movement. In her own words "As I watched both movements gain momentum across the nation I concluded that curriculum and instruction were far more important that choice and accountability" (Ravitch 2010, p. 12). Sarah Mosel (2010) in her review of The Death and Life of the Great American School System wrote

> Ravitch is absolutely right to caution that trying to evaluate teachers solely on the basis of crude standardized tests is too reductive and will likely only alienate the kind of creative, dynamic people the profession hopes to attract in greater numbers. But the question remains: How do we lure more, talented people to the profession and give them – and the many superb teachers who already exist – the support and respect they deserve?

Governments in New Zealand and Australia and elsewhere should take heed of this observation, especially in terms of their seeming addiction to testing regimes to 'prove quality learning outcomes' and the challenges they are facing in recruiting talented and committed teachers.

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The second input was working with a group of university colleagues on the development of a teaching standards framework for higher education. This project demonstrated the difficulty in defining standards- what you wanted them to do, the challenges in developing a common language that could be understood and enacted across the sector and how you could make these standards acceptable to various stakeholders (government and the universities themselves). In developing these standards we believed that universities had to be proactive- develop the standards ourselves or we would have to live with a bureaucratic formula that served an audit and compliance purpose rather than a development and improvement one. These standards were developed at a time when teaching standards for Australian teachers were also being developed.

These triggers made me reflect on the relationship between accountability, standards and activism; and to consider if it is possible to be engaged in activism in an age of compliance and bureaucratic regulation and what relevance did the development of standards have on the education of teachers – both their initial education and their on-going professional development.

On first thought, accountability, standards and activism appear to be oppositional and of little relevance for teacher education. From a taken-for-granted perspective accountability and standards speak to the bureaucratic control of the activities and practices of teachers and the teaching profession. Activism on the other hand invokes defiance and speaking against bureaucratic strictures – something negative in the minds of many. The question that arises though is such opposition in the best interests of developing a strong and confident teaching profession? For me it is more a question of balance, accountability and trust in the system, which includes teachers, is important. Similarly teachers need to speak out and in so doing make their practices public and transparent which ensures that they are accountable to their students, communities and their peers. Through on-going professional development teachers gain up-to-date discipline and content knowledge as well as the extension of professional capabilities to ensure quality learning outcomes for their students.

In this chapter I argue that issues of accountability and transparency are at the core of an active teaching profession. In particular, I suggest that teachers collectively have a primary responsibility to contribute to public debates about the quality of teaching and the quality of student learning outcomes and should be central to debates about teacher education. To this end, teachers need to have a voice in shaping the form and content of teaching standards and to be actively involved in ensuring that their practices are accountable and transparent. Consequently, the nature of how teachers make judgments about student learning and curriculum design and delivery needs to be understood, especially how these judgments rely on the intersection of experience, theory and reflection. A robust and intellectually challenging approach to teachers' professional growth and learning is fundamental.

The chapter is arranged in three parts – part one deals with the relationship between accountability, testing and standards; part two focuses on teaching standards as mechanisms to ensure accountability, part three indicates how standards and activism need to be included in deliberations about teacher education so that teachers, teacher educators and other stakeholders can work towards complementary ends, namely the development of competent teachers.

15.2   Accountability, Testing and Standards

Diane Ravitch (2010, p. 224) captures the current policy situation as it relates to testing regimes and accountability in the US. Her comments are equally apposite for New Zealand and Australia and other parts of the world. She argues:

> The policies we have been following today are unlikely to improve our schools. Indeed, much of what policy makers now demand will very likely make the schools less effective and may further degrade the intellectual capacity of our citizenry. The schools will surely be failures if students graduate knowing how to choose the right option form four bubbles on a multiple-choice test, but unprepared to lead fulfilling lives, to be responsible citizens, and to make good choices for themselves, their families and our society, (p. 224)

While she is focussing specifically on schools, when you focus on teachers her comments suggest the emergence a teaching profession of compliant technicians. It is important to remember that standards, in their most positive and effective form, are a tool to ensure accountability and to build confidence and trust in the learning outcomes of our students.

15.2.1   Accountability

A good accountability system must include professional judgement, not simply a test score and other measures of student achievement, such as grades, teachers' evaluations, student work, attendance and graduation rates (Ravitch 2010, p. 163).

Accountability, like standards, is a concept that is often invoked by politicians when questioning the quality of education and student learning outcomes. Both concepts are defined in different ways in theory and in practice, and applied according to political need and interest. Proponents of the 'new accountability' argued that educators could be held accountable by making their work more visible to public scrutiny (Taylor Webb 2005, p. 193). *Clearly,* accountability is an evocative concept that is all too easily used in political discourse and policy documents because it conveys an image of transparency and trustworthiness. In practice being accountable is seen as a virtue, as a positive quality of organizations or officials (Bovens et al. 2006, pp. 226–227). Moreover, it is expected and demanded by governments and the community alike.

Halstead (1994) distinguishes between two forms of accountability: contractual and responsive. Contractual accountability is concerned with the degree to which educators are fulfilling the expectations of particular audiences in terms of standards, outcomes and results. This form of accountability is based on an explicit and implicit contract and tends to be measurement driven. The factors to be measured are selected to fit perceived preferences and requirements and focus mainly on outcome measures and rely on external scrutiny to achieve its ends. Student test results, literacy and numeracy rates are some examples. Responsive accountability on the other hand, refers to decision- making by educators, more concerned with process

than outcomes, and with the stimulating involvement and interaction help to secure decisions to meet a range of needs and preferences and relies on self-regulation to achieve its goals.

Recognising that these forms of accountability have different purposes and outcomes is important as these differences have implications for policy development. The former is particularly evident in regulatory environments, where the intent of government is compliance and control, while the latter is about inclusion and the use of the collective wisdom of the profession to self-regulate practice. At its worst, (contractual) accountability threatens to punish educators through a sophisticated network of surveillance (Taylor Webb 2005, p. 190.) and can lead to what Levitt et al. (2008, p. 16) refer to as 'accountability overload'. This is the result of inadequate clarity between performance requirements or the contradictory obligations they generate, and is the basis for the criticism proffered by Ravich.

Such regimes can lead to external regulation where the actors (educators) have little agency or where self-regulation does exist it, acts towards a formal form of self-surveillance by teachers and their peers. As a consequence it erodes trust and develops risk adverse dispositions towards practice. Systematic external observation thus becomes part of the taken-for-granted aspect of education practice.

15.2.2 Standards

Defining the scope and content of standards has been a difficult task. Sometimes there is reference to teacher standards and others teaching standards or teacher professional standards. While these are complementary, there are differences between the two. Teacher standards refer to levels of competence expected of individual teachers, either for entry into the profession or for measuring ongoing performance. The scope and remit of *teaching standards* is the teaching profession *rather* than individual teachers.

The issue of standards is neither straight forward nor unproblematic. Mahony and Hextall (2000, p. 30) capture this complexity:

> In examining standards it is important to examine them for their clarity, consistency and coherence, as well as the values, principles and assumptions that underlie them. They also need to be examined in terms of fitness of purpose – are they capable of doing the work they are intended to do? And is this consistent with the broader purposes of their institutional setting? Procedurally, standards can be investigated in terms of their establishment and formation, with all the issues of accountability and transparency that this entails. They can also be questioned in terms of the manner in which they are translated into practice and the consequences, both manifest and latent, which follow.

In The New Zealand Teaching Council Report *Standards for Teaching: Theoretical Underpinnings and applications* (Kleinhenz and Ingvarson 2007) the terms teaching and teacher standards are sometimes used interchangeably. They differentiate between teacher entry standards for certification and standards for accomplished teachers as used by the American National Board for Professional

Teaching (NBPTS). Three different types of standards are presented: (1) Standards as *professional values* which they suggest unite people around shared ideas and values. (2) Standards as *measures* which make judgements about teacher and student performance. And (3) *Content Standards* which are used to describe the content and scope of teachers' work. The Graduating Teacher Standards: Aotearoa New Zealand (undated) is a mixture of content values and practice standards.

Recently the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) (2011) promulgated a set of Professional Standards for Teachers. These Standards identify what is expected of teachers across three domains of teaching: professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement and can be applied across a teacher's career stages – Graduate Teachers, Proficient Teachers, Highly Accomplished Teachers and Lead Teachers. These are essentially content standards – that is, they express in a clear and transparent way what teachers need to know and be able to do. These standards "provide consistent benchmarks to help teachers assess performance, identify further learning requirement a means of identifying and recognising teachers who excel against the national Standards" (AITSL 2011).

For Mahony and Hextall (2000) standards and standards regimes need to be examined within the context of broader education policy and practice, in particular the imperative for more transparency and accountability. The question that needs to be asked is what are underlying assumptions and purposes of teacher standards? For AITSL this answer is, "Because the Standards are explicit and public they allow teachers to demonstrate levels of professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement". The power of standards is "not in the words and sentences they contain, but rather in the scope they offer to build a shared understanding of what it is an accomplished teacher knows and does, and in the processes that sit behind the expression of accomplishment, representing the opening of professional practice to debate, discussion and improvement" (Groundwater Smith and Mockler 2009, p. 59).

In practice, standards may be seen to be an opportunity for governments either to control education activity through the reporting requirements of student learning outcomes and teacher performance or to improve the provision and outcomes of schooling. The former focuses on regulation, enforcement and sanctions to ensure compliance (Sachs 2005). The latter is more focussed on development and improving teacher quality.

Elsewhere (Sachs 2005) I argued that many of the assumptions associated with standard setting are derived from a commonsense and populist approach to education, focussing on minimum levels of achievement in various aspects of practice. Their focus is on defining what teachers should be able to do and what they should know. Such as preoccupation on the technical capabilities of teachers led Groundwater Smith and Mockler (2009, p. 8) to comment "It is our fear that the current standards regimes and the policy contexts out of which they grow have, at their hearts, a desire not to build an understanding of the complexity and nuance of teaching practice or to celebrate the diversity of teachers and learners, but rather to standardise practice, stifle debate and promise the fallacious notion of 'professional

objectivity". If this is the case then the possibility for an activist teaching profession is significantly reduced.

Earlier I referred to contractual and responsive accountability, aligned with these forms of accountability are two kinds of standards: regulatory and developmental standards (Mahony and Hextall 2000). Regulative standards align with contractual accountability and responsive accountability with developmental standards.

Regulatory standards	Developmental standards
A focus on accountability	A student centred approach to teaching and learning
A technical approach to teaching	Systematic forms of monitoring for the purposes of accountability
Monitoring teacher performance	A view that teachers should be career long professional learners
External imposition of standards by a government instrumentality (Sachs 2005, p. 583)	A commitment to teachers improving their professional knowledge and practice

15.3   Two Approaches to Standards

Put simply, regulatory approaches focus on performance, as measured through external tests which make claims about the quality of student learning outcomes. Not surprisingly, this approach supports government agendas – tests supposedly provide objective data! We can see this in how governments respond to PISA data and other international benchmarks. Go down a ranking and there are consequences, even if there is a valid explanation for the change. This is the practice of 'if it moves you measure it'. The problem here though is it is not necessarily an indicator for improvement.

Developmental standards are concerned with improvement, usually of teacher performance and student learning outcomes. They emerge through consultation among various stakeholders and are, in the main, profession led, rather than bureaucratically imposed. They are also context specific, acknowledging that different systems and contexts (inner city, rural, metropolitan, remote etc.) should be considered when making judgements about teacher and student performance.

In the current situation with its focus on regulation, the opportunity for teacher professional standards to be a catalyst for authentic professional learning is not being realised. Rather the focus is on compliance and accountability, driven by an administrative rather than a developmental imperative. This has short, mid and long term effects. In the short term it means that teachers and school administrators are often held captive to the short term political rhetoric and interests of a particular government at the time. Failing schools and students give rise to questions about teaching quality and these make for poor headlines, and thus political intervention. It also leads to a compliant teaching profession who are constantly reacting to government fiat. In the mid-term this makes teachers risk-averse, limits

decision-making and starts to move towards a 'teach to the test' mentality. In the long term it leads to a teaching profession who are timid in their judgements, whose skills are reduced and whose perception in the community is that of technical worker. In this environment the application of standards becomes ritualised to meet the needs of government with the focus on audit and perhaps the next election.

Governments put great store in arguing that standards and quality go hand in hand. Groundwater Smith and Mockler (2009, p. 59) capture the paradox of standards:

> Professional teaching standards do not alone and will not ever improve the quality of teaching and learning. Much as a rubric developed to assess student performance on a task is effective not because it captures in a water tight manner what student performance will 'look like' at various levels of achievement, but rather because it provides a starting point for making assessment *explicit and transparent*, so too is it with professional teaching standards.

To this point I have been talking about standards and accountability and how they work in complementary political and practical ways. The matrix below distinguishes between different types accountability and standards regimes in education. It can be seen to be a heuristic that enables us to sharpen our thinking and distinguish the relationship between standards and accountability.

Accountability

Contractual accountability
Standards imposed, managed and regulated by government

	1 Regulatory	4 Developmental	
Surveillance/control			Transparency/autonomy
Development	Regulatory 2	Developmental 3	

Responsive accountability
Standards developed by profession and self-regulated

15.4 Standards and Accountability

Quadrant 1 Accountability practices result in the external control of teaching through externally mandated means such as testing regimes and standards protocols. Standards are developed to control the teaching profession through external regulation

Quadrant 2 Accountability practices are internally driven and focus on self-regulation. Standards are imposed on the teaching profession through self-regulation

Quadrant 3 Accountability practices are internally driven with the interests of
   teachers and students are the central purpose. Standards are improvement driven
   and developed by teachers and the teaching profession
Quadrant 4 Accountability is externally driven but moderated by a degree of agency
   through participation on the part of teachers and students. Standards are devel-
   oped by government with improved professional practice as the outcome.

If the aspiration is to bring activism, accountability and standards together then
quadrant 3 best describes what this would look like. However, I am not so naive to
assume that this can be achieved easily. Clearly different interest groups (govern-
ments, teachers' unions and professional associations and teachers themselves) will
have different priorities – government bureaucracies would be located in quadrants
1 and 2 while the teaching profession would want to situate itself in quadrants 3 and
4. An activist teaching profession would be located in Q3. I now turn to talk about
how activism is positively disruptive strategy which can help to policy makers and
teacher educators rethink how teachers are educated and, and a consequence, repo-
sition how teachers work with each other and other interested stakeholders.

15.5   Activism as a Disruptive Practice

Primarily activism is about change – whether this is social, political, cultural or
economic. It is about contesting taken-for-granted assumptions about everyday life,
and in the main its focus is on shifting the status quo. At first glance standards and
activism would appear to be oppositional. Standards are concerned with regulation
while the political project of activism is to work against the grain.

At its core teacher activism should be about building trust in the teaching profes-
sion and about having confidence in the practices of competent teachers to produce
students who are literate, numerate and able to participate as active and responsible
citizens. For Ravitch (2010, p. 224) "the greatest challenge of this generation is to
create a renaissance in education, one that goes well beyond the basic skills that
have recently been the singular focus of federal activity, a renaissance that seeks to
teach the best that has been thought and known and done in every field of endeav-
our". While her critique is of contemporary education reform in the US, its focus on
testing and 'supervisory accountability' can equally be applied elsewhere.

To work against compliance regimes requires courage, which like fairness, hon-
esty, care and practical wisdom is a necessary virtue in teaching (Sockett 1993). As
we know principals and teachers work in situations that are often emotionally, phys-
ically and intellectually difficult. Their capacity to be resilient and optimistic is
often challenged. "It takes courage not to be discouraged when teaching practices
must be changed, new curricula absorbed, new rules of conduct met that seem to
emphasise bureaucracy at the expense of teaching" (Day 2004, p. 34).

Activism, accountability and professional judgement go hand in hand. Teachers
make judgements everyday about the quality of student learning, how to organise

learning, and how best to assess this learning. They are involved in conversations about practice with their peers inside and outside of the school and with parents and members of the community. Sometimes the language they use is pitted with education jargon, which at its worse can exclude outsiders, but on other occasions it makes their taken-for-granted assumptions about practice, public and transparent. As a consequence this develops a professional confidence of teachers such that they feel capable and knowledgeable in their capacity to engage in public educational debates. In the context of standards, the standards provide a starting point for discussion of what accomplished professional practice 'looks like', p. descriptive as standards might be, they do not at face value convey a quantifiable, replicateable 'essence of a teacher' (Groundwater-Smith and Mockler 2009, p. 59).

The broader project of teacher activism revolves around rethinking professional identity and engagement (Sachs 2003). First and foremost it requires a sustained effort to shed the shackles of the past, thereby permitting a transformative attitude towards the future. It also requires that teachers individually and collectively work towards a positive activist agenda. The compliant technician is not in this picture.

Given that activism is often associated with violence and dissent, what then is an example of successful activism that may help us reposition an activist teaching profession? I have had an interest in the activities of an Australian organisation called *Getup*[1]! -they were particularly active during recent federal and state elections. Obviously there are supporters and detractors of this organisation, but they do seem to have had some success in mobilising communities by questioning orthodoxy and putting forth alternative positions on issues of general social and political interest. They are very successful in using social media to build constituencies and coalitions. Organisationally *GetUp!* is an independent, grass-roots community advocacy organisation giving everyday Australians opportunities to get involved and hold politicians accountable on important issues. They use a variety of media to engage with political and social issues. Whether it is sending an email to a member of parliament, engaging with the media, attending an event or helping to get a television ad on the air, *GetUp!* members take targeted, coordinated and strategic action. Getup! aims to build an accountable and progressive Parliament – a Parliament with economic fairness, social justice and environment at its core.[2] An activist approach by teachers would have equity and inclusion at its core and be responsive to the needs of individuals and communities. They would also use social media to communicate and connect with communities.

A social movement or organisation that represents teachers and the teaching profession can learn much from the strategies for mobilisation of community action groups such as Getup!. Being non-aligned to any political party will ensure wider membership, the focus will be on improving education rather than being diverted by an agenda of a specific political party. Democratic principles provide the philosophical foundation for action, facilitating social transformation. Local issues are often at the forefront but these collectively can contribute to a broader agenda, not

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[1] This organisation is based on the North American Move On!

[2] Accessed from the Getup website www.getup.org.au on 6 April 2011.

quite a revolution but at least social change. Importantly, an activist teaching profession would seek to have some influence in policy formulation and implementation. Perhaps in an advisory role at first but later being at the table to ensure that the interests of teachers are represented and heard. Teachers need to take targeted, coordinated and strategic action on matters of educational importance either at the local, state or national level. This also requires commitment and courage and strong engagement from teacher educators working inside universities.

In the current climate, where teacher compliance and bureaucratic control is becoming the norm, a major shift in focus is required for teachers and teacher educators to become activist agents for the development and renewal of their profession. This in turn would mean reshaping the public's perception of teachers' work and their expertise. In short, it means accepting the importance of the teaching professional to broader community and to society. To achieve this end requires a major change, some would call it a seismic shift others would see it as a logical extension of the professionalization of the teaching profession. Moreover, it would require significant changes in teacher education and professional development.

In order then for there to be an alignment between accountability, standards and activism the shift will require the following,

Moving from	Moving to
Contractual accountability	Responsive accountability
Imposed by government	Developed by teachers
Regulation	Development
Imposed accountability	Individual and collective responsibility
Government directed and controlled	Profession developed and managed
Mistrust	Trust
External-regulation	Self-regulation
Compliance	Activism

Clearly the status quo is no longer tenable, a shift needs to occur. The question is how do we do this? Below I identify a number of areas where action can be taken to facilitate a more transformative outcome where accountability and activism are complementary.

1. *Having a desire for and commitment to change*

   Change readiness is important. In this regard sometimes an idea emerges that is right for the times and is embraced quickly and gains immediate acceptance. Nevertheless, the change must be seen to have some value for people to take it up. To achieve the desired outcomes for educational improvement requires that issues and interventions are prioritised. Some early quick wins provides direction and energy for future actions.

2. *Collective and connected action*

   Activism is premised on collective action and collective responsibility. It involves mobilising teachers and members of the community around issues of mutual interest and importance. To be effective it requires that a small number of

issues are identified- these may be of local school based interest, regional or even national interest or importance. Social networking technologies facilitate connecting with various constituencies to get the message across. It also involves a sense of immediacy and community building.

3. *Commitment to on-going professional learning*

   We need to learn from our experiences- this can be in either a formal or informal sense. Teachers, like all professionals, need to keep up to date in their professional knowledge. This is not just content knowledge of their discipline but also knowledge about trends in assessment and technology among other areas. Learning should be at the core of our practice; it should be active and replenishing at the individual level and focused on improvement at the profession level.

4. *Having confidence in our practice*

   The wisdom of practice is that teaching is a private activity. As long teaching is seen to be a private act opportunities to improve practice through peer observation, reflection and practitioner research will be dismissed. For Ravitch (2010, p. 229)

   Schools cannot be improved if we use them for society's all purpose punching bag, blaming them for the ills of the economy, the burdens imposed on children by poverty, the dysfunction of families and the erosion of civility. Schools must work with other institutions and cannot replace them.

   When we are confident in our practice we can defend schools and teachers. We can act as advocates for quality teaching and improved learning outcomes.

5. *Developing a scholarship of practice*

   The scholarship of practice ensures that there is a shared language and methodology to investigate activities in schools and classrooms. It makes some of the taken-for-granted assumptions about practice transparent, and accessible to those outside of schools and classrooms. Importantly it helps to make us more accountable as teachers in as much as we are communicating in an understandable way to a variety of stakeholders. The scholarship of practice also helps to reinforce teacher learning and acts as a repository for good practices for from which others can learn.

15.6   Conclusion

In this chapter I have brought together what seem to be three competing concepts currently shaping debate and practice in the arena of teacher education. Accountability, standards and activism do not need to be oppositional. Rather by pursuing an organic, profession developed approach to standards, the external demands for accountability of government can meet the internally driven needs of teachers and their students and the communities which they serve. Activism is not a strategy of defiance but rather a way to contribute to informed debate, influence and policy response. It is not only teachers that need to be accountable; it is politicians

and bureaucrats as well. At the centre of accountability and activism is the commitment to making practice transparent, developing confidence in the teaching profession and improving student learning outcomes. This is the way for the teaching profession to shape the future agenda for education and schooling.

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Chapter 16
Understanding Professional Knowledge of Teaching and Its Importance to Scholarship in Teacher Education

John Loughran

Lovat and Clemant (2008) have persuasively argued that the nature of teachers' professional knowledge is fundamental to 'creating conditions where both students and teachers are actively, critically and reflectively engaged in knowledge-making' (Lovat and Clemant 2008, p. 2). Therefore, to better understand what quality in teaching and learning looks like, it is important to understand what teachers 'know and are able to do' (i.e., their professional knowledge of practice). In so doing, insights into teaching about teaching and the scholarship of such sophisticated business comes into sharp focus.

This chapter explores the nature of teachers' professional knowledge by considering two fundamental assertions about practice and builds on each to make an argument about the development of scholarship in teacher education (where expertise in the teaching of teaching should reside). In doing so, it shines a light on how quality in teaching and learning might be better recognized and understood and also illustrates why scholarship in teacher education is crucial to the development of the teaching profession more generally.

16.1 Assertion 1: Teaching Is Problematic

> Quality teaching is … concerned with identifying the factors that impact most directly on student achievement and wellbeing. … it entails the application of contextually suitable and appropriate pedagogies to engage the full learning capacities of students. … teaching and learning are not perceived to be simply the transmission and reception of knowledge … (Lovat and Clemant 2008, p. 1)

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Despite decades of research demonstrating that quality teaching is complex and sophisticated, a contrary and often overwhelming public stereotype persists based on a view of teaching as the transmission of information. It is widely acknowledged that there is not one way of doing teaching, yet an expectation that the right or best way can be found continues to confuse understandings of the real world of practice. Considering the fact that amongst any group of students there is a diversity of learning needs, and that research has highlighted the multitude of learning approaches that exist, the notion of a mixed-ability classroom is much more complex in terms of teaching than curriculum and policy documents can genuinely respond to or portray. Teachers are confronted by a multitude of competing demands in the classroom, hence informed decision making is crucial. Therefore, it is not difficult to see why quality teaching is not about the delivery or transmission of information, activities or actions, but rather is a complex web of decision making embedded in a sensitivity to the dynamic relationship between teaching and learning *and* learning and teaching. Understanding quality is therefore bound up in recognising teaching as being problematic. It is neither static nor linear and cannot be script bound.

The use of the term 'problematic' sometimes carries connotations of negativity. However, it is far from that. Understanding teaching as problematic means that it is dilemma based and, because by definition dilemmas are situations that need to be managed (not necessarily solved), it means that teachers are continually making judgments about what might be appropriate and helpful to learners in a given situation at a given time. Because teaching is problematic it also means that what a teacher does in one situation does not mean it will have the same impact in a different context, or at a different time. Hence, doing 'the same thing when confronted by a similar situation' is not what learning to be responsive to pedagogical experiences is all about. Rather it means that teachers' personal professional judgment is paramount in responding to their students' needs and concerns. Informed decision making is crucial, and being informed is embedded in a learning about practice that goes way beyond routines and protocols. It is the very nature of the pedagogical demands inherent in classroom practice that makes teaching problematic and is why deep understandings of practice matters.

Understanding teaching as problematic is easier said than done. To become comfortable with the uncertainty of working with the problematic is a challenge. There is always a gap between intentions and actions in practice; working to minimise that gap is demanding. However, although there may well be recognition that there is not one correct and best way of doing teaching, this does not mean that actions in accord with that belief always prevail. There is a certain comfort in 'sticking to a routine' – as beginning teachers well recognize. To challenge routines requires a confidence in the ability to act 'in the moment' to enhance student learning, and that does not come easily. Nor can it always be planned for; learning to do so is embedded in experience:

> I can see important changes that have occurred in my practice as a result of confronting the gaps between my rhetoric and the reality of my teaching. … The process of coming to terms with teaching dilemmas is, of course, neverending. (Zeichner 1995, p. 20)

Looking into teaching from the outside can be confusing. To the untrained observer, it can look as though there are 'answers' about what to do and the best way to do it. Seeing teaching as problematic rather than rule driven is difficult when looking in from the outside because the pedagogical reasoning, the underpinning of practice, is not explicit or on show to others – especially to students.

A long time ago, Dan Lortie coined the term the 'Apprenticeship of Observation' (Lortie 1975) to describe what students come to know about teaching from years of observation from the 'other side of the desk'. What Lortie's work illustrated was how difficult it really is to see into, and better understand, teaching. On the surface, teaching appears to be quite straightforward and simple. The reality is that good teachers make teaching look easy. Russell (2007) explains this situation in the following way:

> In sharp contrast to the everyday views of teaching held by those who do not teach, most teachers have a sense that they are working quite hard, not just when planning lessons or assessing work, but also when actively engaged in a lesson … Most teachers do not involve their students in activities that would indicate the complexity of teaching. Most teachers do not take the time to indicate the rationale for either a lesson's content or the way that it is taught … [therefore] much of what happens and how it happens in a classroom appears to be arbitrary, left to the teacher's personal or professional whim and certainly not requiring careful analysis. While teaching is definitely not easy, every member of a society who attends school is inadvertently and unintentionally taught several things about teaching:
>
> 1. Teaching is relatively easy.
> 2. Teaching involves a great deal of talk by the teacher.
> 3. Management of students has nothing to do with how they are being taught.
> 4. Schools must ensure that children meet standards, but how schools operate should be the same as one's own schooling; innovation and change are too risky. (p. 32)

The 'Apprenticeship of Observation' suggests that teaching is a relatively orderly process. However, from a teacher's perspective, there is an undercurrent of competing concerns, dilemmas and tensions all of which influence what happens, how and why, but few if any of those decisions are able to be observed from a non-teaching position. Donald Schön (1983, p. 1) described teaching as an 'indeterminate swampy zone'; more recently, Berry (2004, p. 1312) described it as 'a complex and messy terrain, often difficult to [map and] describe'. Teaching is not as smooth and straightforward as it may appear, but because it can appear to be that way, it inadvertently reinforces public views of teaching along the lines of those suggested by Russell (above). Unfortunately, the complexity in teaching is not easily seen – although teachers continually feel it in their practice.

Because of the 'messiness of teaching' and the fact that its complexity is not easily seen from the outside, recognising and developing quality in practice is bound up in accepting the challenge, and being engaged in, mapping the indeterminate swampy terrain. One way of doing this is through a focus on professional learning. That requires an acceptance of a personal learning agenda in which learning how to adapt, adjust and construct teaching (i.e., developing knowledge of practice) is facilitated by gathering evidence of the impact (or not) of that developing knowledge on student learning.

Mason (2002) used the term 'noticing' as a way of encapsulating such an enquiry approach to personal professional learning. He was of the view that a teaching situation is not really seen until it is seen differently and argued that teaching is rarely the same thing.

> At the heart of all practice lies noticing: noticing an opportunity to act appropriately. To notice an opportunity to act requires three things: being present and sensitive to the moment, having reason to act, and having a different act come to mind. Consequently, one important aspect of being professional is noticing possible acts to try out in the future … A second important aspect is working on becoming more articulate and more precise about reasons for acting. The mark of an expert is that they are sensitised to notice things which novices overlook. They have finer discernment. They make things look easy, because they have a refined sensitivity to professional situations and a rich collection of responses on which to draw. Among other things, experts are aware of their actions. (Mason 2002, p. 1)

Because teaching looks easy, the uncertainty of practice is not so obvious and so what an observer might perceive and interpret in a pedagogical situation is very different to that which the teacher knows and feels when teaching. One way of beginning to see into that which a teacher experiences is made explicit through cases (for a full description of cases see, Barnett and Tyson 1999; Mitchell and Mitchell 1997; Shulman 1992). Cases are constructed around a dilemma, critical incident or problematic situation. Cases begin to illustrate what it is that causes a teacher to stop and look again at what is happening and to begin to reconsider their actions and their students' learning. The following abbreviated case is an example of how such thinking and learning is brought to life.

Letting go

Walking into the lab I was feeling confident that today's lesson was going to be different and the girls were going to like it.

No notes today (at least not written by me). Today I was going to stand back and let the girls take control.

We were starting our new topic Mixtures, and as the girls got settled I said:

'Ok ladies today you are going to teach each other. In groups of four you are going to take one of the sub-topics from the board, research it and then present it to the class.'

Think, pair, share

As I was going through exactly how a Think Pair Share works, the hands started to go up.

'Can we pick our own groups?'

'Are we going to get marked on this?'

'Are we presenting them today?'

Not the response I was looking for … Although the learning styles of some students are suited to this type of teaching, I wanted to take the focus of our lessons off me, my notes and my structured discussions and start to challenge my students' ideas about learning.

So these questions weren't helping me feel confident about changing the focus of my lessons.

'Hands down! You can ask questions later,' I say and as today's the day I'm passing the control of the lesson over to my girls, I let them pick their own groups.

'Yes!!' I hear them whisper. Down goes my confidence again.

But as I watched them in their pairs I was pleasantly surprised. Almost everyone appeared to be on task.

'Five more minutes and then it's time to discuss in your group of four.' I instructed confidently.

As I wandered the room, I fought my natural urge to interrupt their discussions and steer their thoughts in a more productive direction but I did ask one group:

'How's it going? Are you enjoying this activity more than our usual science classes?'

'Yeah, this is so much better,' was the overwhelming response.

'Wow! that's exactly the response I was after,' I thought to myself trying not to feel too crushed about what it meant about my 'normal' lessons.

'Maybe this is working. The girls are taking some control over their own learning and they are enjoying it. I'll give them a little more time, then it's back to the centre and away they'll go with their presentations.' I told myself.

The first group got up and without any prompting they began their presentation.

'Not bad,' I thought to myself.

Then the next group and then the next. Before I knew it they had all done their presentations.

As their classmates were presenting, the girls were attentive and to my surprise writing notes as they went.

'So they don't need me writing endless notes on the board,' I thought to myself.

Even more surprising was that every girl had a go at presenting. I was sure that a few of the quieter, less confident girls would try and get out of having a go.

It had all gone rather well, we had covered a lot of content and the girls seemed to really enjoy the different approach to the lesson. Up went a hand.

'Are we having a test on this stuff?'

'Yes, but not for a while. Don't worry about that now though please.'

'Will you give us proper notes for this stuff though?'

'What? You've got good notes,' I thought.

Apparently if the notes are not from me they are not 'proper notes'.

At this point I realised some of the girls had missed the point. They were totally capable of taking control of their own learning. They had just been doing it. I had seen it for myself. These girls, and so many others like them at our school, are spoon fed information and don't think they have accomplished anything unless they have pages of writing to prove it.

'Am I going to be able to change their thinking overnight?' I thought to myself. 'No way.'

Could I chip away at it using activities such as this one to try and make them see their learning from a different angle? 'Sure!' I told myself with a sense of satisfaction and confidence … (Rowe 2008, pp. 93–95)

This case illustrates the tensions and dilemmas that teachers experience on a daily basis. Questioning the taken-for-granted though – as illustrated through the case – requires teachers to see into their practice with new eyes; to start noticing. As made clear in the case, the decision making, the competing demands, the dilemmas and issues a teacher faces begin to shed new light on the complexities of teaching and learning, and what it takes to accept the challenge of actually doing teaching in ways that go beyond a script or routine.

Through experimenting with practice in the way demonstrated by Rowe (the teacher author of this case), it is not difficult to see how 'noticing' can make a difference to the quality of a teacher's practice. In reflecting on and articulating aspects of practice, the unseen becomes seen and a teacher's professional knowledge begins to be captured, developed and portrayed. As a consequence, student learning is brought into sharp focus and is more likely to be enhanced.

Because teaching is understood as problematic, teacher thinking can be seen as a shaping factor in the quality of the resultant practice – which in turn influences the quality of student learning. As is outlined later in this chapter, this understanding of teaching is important in shaping scholarship in teacher education because it is a basis for considering teaching and learning about teaching as being embedded in the crucible of practice. However, before embarking on that aspect of this chapter, the second assertion underpinning these ideas needs to be considered, i.e., that professional learning is enhanced by researching practice.

As the next section explains, professional learning can enhance a teacher's understanding of the relationship between teaching and learning, and researching practice is one way of engaging in meaningful professional learning and fostering the development of knowledge of practice. Unpacking those ideas is also important for understanding the nature of scholarship in teacher education.

16.2 Assertion 2: Professional Learning Is Enhanced by Researching Practice

The daily work of teaching is demanding and a common view of what teaching comprises is pictured in the image of someone out the front of a classroom directing the work of students. Teaching itself is often envisaged as an ongoing array of such scenes, lesson by lesson, across a school day. However, teaching as comprising preparation, thinking about practice, discussing professional knowledge, researching ideas and practices, testing them out in a variety of contexts, reflecting and reviewing is not such a common view. Generally, if teachers are not seen to be in class 'doing teaching' they are not perceived to be teaching. The unfortunate outcome of such a view is that little value is placed on aspects of teaching that are dependent on *not* being in the classroom doing teaching. As a consequence of the busyness of the face-to-face teaching routine, teachers often feel pressured to pursue short-term goals that revolve around finding what Appleton (2006) described as activities that work. As a consequence, the constant search for activities that work influences how teachers talk about teaching and what they tend to look for most in relation to their own professional learning.

Teachers share much of their thinking about practice through stories and experiences of teaching and student learning. They share how they do things, the types of responses they get from students and the ways in which they adjust and change practice as a result of interpreting those experiences. It is therefore not hard to see why a constant search for teaching activities, procedures and ways of doing teaching can dominate and obscure what teachers' professional knowledge might really look like, how it might be articulated and portrayed. However, as the literature demonstrates, when teachers are given opportunities within their work to research their practice, new ways of seeing into their professional knowledge of teaching quickly emerge.

When experimenting with new or different teaching procedures there is a natural tendency towards a heightened sense of awareness about the nature of the pedagogical experience. However, as noted above, there is a difference between how we might feel about a given situation and actually collecting data to seek evidence on which to base particular conclusions. There is a difference between thinking about and reconsidering practice as opposed to researching that practice.

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2004) have been strong advocates of teacher research. They have argued that teachers' ways of knowing are different to that which is more typically depicted through traditional educational research. Teachers' learning about teaching *and* learning is inextricably linked to their classroom experiences. They do not necessarily seek 'imported' knowledge from external sources but tend to trust the 'authority of their own experience' (Munby and Russell 1994, p. 86). They do that because they have a privileged position in terms of understanding classroom dynamics and how those dynamics shape practice – their practice. Teacher researchers focus on what they want to know more about and what they see as real and meaningful measures and outcomes in relation to student learning. The type of questions and inquiries they are interested in and choose to pursue are fundamental to enacting meaningful educational change. Long ago, Stenhouse highlighted this very point:

> … it is difficult to see how teaching can be improved or how curricula proposals can be evaluated without self monitoring on the part of teachers. A research tradition, which is accessible to teachers and which feeds teaching must be created if education is to be significantly improved. (Stenhouse 1975, p. 165)

A common goal of teacher research is improved classroom practice – a clear and strong professional learning driver of development and growth and a clear sign of quality. However, despite the obvious value of teacher research, little if any encouragement or extrinsic reward is associated with that effort. Generally, teacher research is an additional extra on top of existing classroom demands and so requires a commitment that extends beyond the normal expectations of teaching. Herein lies a major issue for the profession and the bureaucracies that direct the work of teachers.

Education systems tend to seek out 'measureable' outcomes that they can ascribe to teaching, i.e., to measure cause and effect in teaching and learning. Yet the outcomes that teachers find convincing do not necessarily fall so neatly into such a linear and consequential (or short term) pathway. That is not to say that teacher research goals are better than the goals of education systems, but rather that respective views of research and how they impact practice are quite different. For example, in teacher research, the initial inquiry commonly leads to the need for action. Hence, results derived from questioning a pedagogical situation almost always lead to deeper considerations of what to do as a consequence, thus enhancing quality; as noted by Baumann:

> my research efforts were most often compatible with – and enhanced – my teaching … My initial purpose for keeping a journal was to document classroom events and my reactions to them so I would have a daily record of my research experience. However, I soon realized

that dictating entries on my drive home from school each day had an immediate, positive impact on my teaching … Had I not been conducting classroom research, I probably would not have kept a journal and thus would not have been as thoughtful about what was working and was not working in my teaching … The research process, therefore, was compatible with my teaching … problems in classroom inquiry, conflicts or tensions become a natural, if not healthy, aspect of the research evolutionary process. (Baumann 1996, pp. 31–34)

From a teaching perspective, there is little point in becoming more informed about practice if appropriate change does not follow. Teachers' professional satisfaction is intimately tied to the quality of their students' learning and that offers a greater impetus for inquiry and change than that which might be mandated or directed from 'outside or above'. It therefore stands to reason that paying serious attention to learners is crucial, and again, offers access to the nature of quality.

16.2.1   Listening to Students

In his return to high school teaching, Jeff Northfield[1], an experienced and well-credentialed teacher educator and researcher, was taken aback by his students' views of school teaching and learning, which could be summarised as:

- Learning is associated with gaining right answers. Thinking and personal understanding are different and often frustrating ways of achieving the required outcomes.
- The learning process and thinking is difficult to associate with school work. Texts and notes are important indicators that *school* learning is occurring.
- Linking experiences is very demanding and unreasonable when added to the classroom demands for students.
- The final grade is the critical outcome and the basis by which progress is judged.
- Enjoyment is not always associated with school learning – real learning is hard and not usually enjoyed.
- Learning is done to students and teachers have a major responsibility for achieving learning.

The students' view (above) stood in stark contrast to his personal views of what he hoped for as a consequence of his desire to engage them in quality learning, which he summarised as:

- Where possible students should have opportunities to be active and think about their learning experiences.

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[1] Jeff Northfield was a Professor of Teacher Education who accepted a teaching position in a high school for a year to research and learn more about how to teach students in ways that might help them to become more active learners. He did that through a focus on teaching for metacognition. His experience was documented in the book *Opening the Classroom Door* (Loughran and Northfield 1996).

- Students should experience success in learning and gain the confidence and skills to become better learners.
- Linking experiences from both within and outside school greatly assists learning.
- Effort and involvement are important outcomes of school activities and students need to gain credit and encouragement for their efforts.
- Enjoyment and satisfaction with learning are important outcomes.
- Learning involving the above features requires learner consent.

Northfield's (yearlong) study of his efforts to enhance the quality of his students' learning was insightful, but as a very strong example of teacher research, it also served another worthwhile purpose. It was a readable and informing account that was accessible and meaningful to other teachers (Connell 2002), which is an important point, because it has been noted many times in the literature that much of the research in education has little influence on teachers' daily practice. There are many reasons for that situation, but one of note is the inability of teachers to identify with the type of work conducted by external researchers and the ways in which their results are portrayed. However, teacher research can be seen as offering a way of addressing that situation.

Northfield's account of his pursuit for quality in teaching and learning was the catalyst for another teacher to research her classroom in a similar manner (see Cate Baird, chapter 10, Loughran 2010). Baird embarked on a study in which she decided to focus on listening carefully to her students' experiences of learning (all recorded in her journal over a semester) and found that she was compelled to respond in ways that were specifically designed to address their learning needs. By being uncomfortable with how her students constructed their role as school learners, and in being confronted by the ways in which they developed classroom behaviours that inhibited their learning, she could not help but pursue pedagogical responses designed to improve their learning outcomes. As a consequence, she not only assisted her students in developing more positive images of themselves as learners, she simultaneously became a more innovative, creative and responsive teacher.

As she worked to engage her students as learners, her own professional knowledge of practice was enhanced. Through her account, the underlying drive for quality in teaching and learning stands out in a myriad of ways. At the core of her effort was a concern for the quality of student learning and how that was influenced by the ways in which she approached her professional role as their teacher. Her professional learning – and the expectations for that learning in the future – were key to her ongoing development.

> I have been in a position both within my school and in external teacher forums to share the experience gained from this project and to therefore discuss with other professionals some of the strategies and difficulties encountered along the way. Similarly, I have been asked for, and received, both formal and informal feedback from colleagues that has allowed me to further my own professional development and opening up new possibilities for other teachers to think about their practice.
>
> I am now aware of the areas in my practice that I would like to further study and gain help in through specific professional development for these are now the areas that will add

meaning and value to my personal teaching experiences and most importantly the learning skills and outcomes of my students. This is also consistent with a growing need to enhance the teaching and learning process overall. (p. 182)

There can be little doubt that how students construct their view of themselves as learners has a major impact on the quality of their learning. When teachers seek to better understand those views, particularly when done in systematic ways through teacher research, the result is more often than not, positive and productive pedagogical experiences for all. Supporting teachers in ways that encourage them to recognize and develop their professional knowledge lies at the heart of developing a 'quality agenda'; the same applies when thinking about the notion of scholarship in teacher education.

16.3   In Pursuit of Scholarship in Teacher Education

The detailed explanations of the two assertions (detailed above) have been designed to illustrate the complex nature of teaching. That complexity stands in stark contrast to the 'teaching as telling, learning as listening' view that tends to dominate less informed views of practice. I am arguing that teaching is complex, sophisticated business and that generally, it is poorly and/or superficially understood outside the profession – and sadly, sometimes within. If that is the case, then it seems reasonable to assert that teacher education is equally misunderstood and undervalued.

Teaching of teaching must do considerably more than simply impart information about practice. However, if views of teaching are dominated by notions of transmission then the overall effect of that view is likely to be magnified when considered in relation to the expectations and practices of teacher education. In contrast, understanding teacher education as being based on expert knowledge *and* practice of teaching and learning about teaching, there is a greater likelihood that attention will be focused on a requirement for, and pursuit of, scholarship in teacher education. But what might that scholarship look like and how might it be articulated and portrayed?

A pedagogy of teacher education (Bullock 2009; Korthagen et al. 2001; Loughran 2006; Russell and Loughran 2007) has been described as the way of developing, defining and advancing the expert knowledge and practice of teaching *and* learning about teaching. A pedagogy of teacher education is based on a view that teaching is shaped by (at least) the two assertions at the heart of practice outlined earlier in this chapter. As a consequence, the ways in which students of teaching are confronted by deeper understandings of practice and the manner in which teacher educators create the conditions and experiences for so doing, offers insights into the scholarship at the heart of a pedagogy of teacher education.

Teacher educators, like other members of the academy, are expected to be knowledge producers in their field. Such knowledge production becomes complicated when teaching is understood as problematic because it is inevitable that a simple

linear cause and effect model cannot offer 'the solution' to questions about practice – yet that may well be what drives the initial hopes and expectations of students of teaching. However, when researching practice is the basis for informing production of knowledge about practice, real opportunities emerge that are responsive to the problematic nature of teaching and begin to illustrate new ways of understanding what it might mean to be informed about, and to develop, expertise. Central to a pedagogy of teacher education is inquiry into pedagogic experiences in order to see into, and better understand, the complexity of teaching and how that influences the nature of learning.

In order to open up for scrutiny the nature of teaching *and* learning, teacher education practices must be serious sites of inquiry. That means that how a teacher educator creates conditions for learning about teaching, what those conditions are and how they influence (or not) understandings of practice, must be central to how knowledge production is not only developed and understood, but also enacted. If that is the case, then the documenting, analyzing, learning from and use of such knowledge and practice in teacher education offers a window into scholarship. Embedding such an expectation in teacher education is what is needed to advance a scholarly agenda:

> I believe it is important for those of us who say we want to prepare teachers who are reflective practitioners to make more visible to our students our deliberations about our own work. They can then see 'up front' how a teacher experiences the inevitable contradictions and tensions of the work and goes about trying to learn from his or her teaching experience. … We all know that both teaching and teacher education are much more complex than they are often made out to be. We ought to let our stories about our work as teacher educators appear to others to be as complex as they really are. (Zeichner 1995, pp. 20–21)

What is difficult for students of teaching (and teacher educators) is that to learn simultaneously as observers and participants, in and through their shared pedagogic experiences, is challenging. One response to that challenge is through Mason's (2002, 2009) conceptualization of 'noticing'. Mason suggests that a situation may not *really* be seen until it is seen differently, and doing so can be very difficult when participating in roles that are continually changing, i.e., teacher, learner, participant and observer. The difficulty of the situation is further exacerbated when considering the differing perspectives of experts and novices (all shaped by needs, expectations, wants, etc.). Mason captures the essence of this argument when he explains that:

> To notice an opportunity to act requires three things: being present and sensitive to the moment, having reason to act, and having a different act come to mind. Consequently, one important aspect of being professional is noticing possible acts to try out in the future … A second important aspect is working on becoming more articulate and more precise about reasons for acting. The mark of an expert is that they are sensitised to notice things which novices overlook. They have finer discernment. They make things look easy, because they have a refined sensitivity to professional situations and a rich collection of responses on which to draw. Among other things, experts are aware of their actions … (Mason 2002, p. 1)

When a teacher educator is able to: create conditions for learning about teaching in which the competing learning agendas are able to be recognized, managed and

negotiated; model how, as an expert pedagogue, those challenges are managed and responded to in action; and, use the shared pedagogic experiences of students of teaching and teacher educators together as the site for inquiry, development and refinement of knowledge *and* practice of teaching, the scholarship of teacher education, genuinely stands out. In adopting such a teacher education stance, the problematic nature of practice is clear, accessible and explicit, and the professional learning as a result of thoughtful inquiry is able to be used to shape and inform not only what is done, but also how and why, thus giving insights into pedagogic understandings that go well beyond teaching as telling and learning as listening.

Such scholarship in teacher education needs to not only be captured and portrayed, it needs to be a driving force for conceptualizing the nature of teacher education itself. If that were the case then teacher education might be more able to develop professionals who could see beyond teaching as telling and learning as listening; professionals who really can lead educational change and make a difference through the quality of the teaching and learning fostered as a result of their professional endeavours.

16.4　Conclusion

This chapter set out to illustrate that to understand scholarship in teacher education, teaching itself needs to be much better understood and valued. In order for that to be the case, there is a need to recognise and respond to the complexity of practice in ways that acknowledge the sophisticated knowledge, skills and ability that underpin expertise in teaching. Quality is derived of better aligning teaching intents with learning outcomes and that requires teachers to be inquirers into the pedagogic experiences they create for, and with, their students; the same must apply in teacher education.

The knowledge which underpins practice is a key to accessing the nature of quality in teaching and learning. Teacher education should rightly be the beginning point in making teachers' professional knowledge of practice clear, articulable, useable and meaningful in, and for, the work of teaching. In so doing, scholarship in teacher education then is not only able to be recognized, but more importantly, enacted.

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Chapter 17
Quality Teaching as Moral Practice: Cultivating *Practical Wisdom*

Deborah L. Schussler and Peter C. Murrell Jr.

17.1 Introduction – What Makes Quality Teaching a Moral Concern?

The struggling urban school system had received national praise for its successful and dramatic turnaround. Once floundering schools showed marked improvement in standardized test results. But questions surfaced. The story took months to unfold. Then the headline read, "Grand jury indicts 35 in school cheating scandal." In this district serving 50,000 students, educators participated in widespread cheating under threats of termination for failure to produce results, by whatever means necessary. The turnaround was a sham. (Carter 2013)

In another part of the country, a student teacher working in a high-achieving suburban high school began to cry in her college seminar course. "I just don't know what to do. Many of my students don't understand the material. But I only have so much time to teach it. I have to move on. All the teachers in the math department do the same thing on the same day. And my cooperating teacher does *not* fall behind. But I don't know how they will understand the *new* material without *this* material!" (Schussler 2010)

Many teachers enter the profession out of an altruistic desire to help others (Hargreaves 2000; Sanger and Osguthorpe 2013). People become teachers because they want to 'do good in the world'. They want to 'make a difference.' They perceive teaching as a 'calling' (Palmer 1998). They certainly do not become teachers

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out of an eagerness to grapple with the politics of teaching and learning, either on the national policy level or the level of daily experience in their schools and their classrooms. Most assuredly, they did not sign up for being continuously confronted with dilemmas requiring a forced choice between serving their students and complying with mandates. Yet many educators find themselves in situations similar to those described above.

Despite their desire for beneficial outcomes for their students, many teachers in the American context became entangled in a web of contradictory goals requiring dubious actions, like cheating on a high stakes test or teaching in ways that marginalize certain students. It is not teachers' content knowledge or pedagogical skills that drives how they respond in such situations. Rather it is the tenacity and vigor of their principles, their ability to prevent their moral compass from becoming obfuscated. To engage in quality teaching, teachers require more than just the technical skills of their craft; they require moral capacities to achieve worthwhile aims. This is what makes quality teaching a moral question.

As illustrated above, the persistent tension between actually promoting the academic development of one's students on the one hand, and meeting accountability-driven curriculum and testing mandates on the other hand, poses persistent and frequent moral dilemmas.[1] At the very least, the fundamental dilemma creates a dissonance within professional practice, which, in our view, is at the heart of the teacher quality debate. The current state of teacher education reform in the United States foments this dissonance between compliance and compassion. In particular, there is a drive to account for the quality of a teacher in terms of how well he or she moves the needle on the high-stakes achievement test performance of his or her students. Use of value-added modeling to rate teachers and rank schools based on student test performance have gained considerable traction over the past decade, despite substantive concerns about sampling error, bias, and validity (Amrein-Beardsley 2008; Koretz 2008; RAND Research Brief 2004). Yet the aims that motivate teachers to enter and sustain in the profession, encompass a broader array of interests than test success.

17.2   Issues of Quality Teaching in the United States Context

The problem in formulating what constitutes quality teaching is the same in both the American context and the Chinese context. As illustrated above, we believe that quality teaching is only partly determined by what a teacher knows. Beyond knowledge, quality teaching envelops how teachers conduct themselves purposefully and meaningfully in the moment-to-moment episodes of human interaction in their teaching practice. Because this latter quality is enigmatic – difficult both to define

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[1] We would note here the distinction between *problems* and *dilemmas*, the latter of which always requires a decision between competing alternative actions, and a discernment of which is the best choice.

and to measure – it is excluded from the discussion. Yet it operates as a keystone. We refer to it as *practical wisdom* (Schwartz and Sharpe 2010), and we propose that the development of this capacity is the core of quality teaching.

In policy conversations about teacher quality in the United States context, much has been made about the comparisons of teacher preparation systems in countries that are top of the list of high performing systems on international K-12 achievement tests such as the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) (Associated Press 2010). Among the many lessons to be learned when comparing teacher education in the United States with teacher preparation programs in Finland, Singapore, Netherlands, and Canada is the value and investment countries outside the U.S. make in concerted cultivation of quality in future educators. Better performing countries did not set out to have a very good teacher here and another good one there. They were successful because they developed the entire teaching profession by ensuring that candidates acquired the ability to improve *in practice* and *with practice*. We contend that what's missing in the United States context is a consideration of how moral practice is a foundation for quality teaching.

Unfortunately, quality teaching frequently is reduced to easily measurable indices and a simplistic logic model. Just as student performance in the United States context is measured almost exclusively by test scores, so have the quality of teachers and their teacher education programs been measured by impacts of aggregate student test score performance. In other words, teacher performance is measured increasingly by their students' performance. In fact, many states now mandate that student test scores determine a portion of a teacher's overall evaluation. According to prevailing logic in this test measurement paradigm, if students achieve acceptable test scores, the teacher is deemed as having engaged in quality teaching. By this same logic, teachers as well as teacher educators can be held accountable based on seemingly objective criteria. So powerful is this accountability-by-testing movement that it has driven underground the question of whether test score performance is an appropriate, legitimate, or wise choice of an indicator for the quality of teaching and learning.

With all of this effort, it is ironic that neither practitioners nor policy makers in the United States context are satisfied that they are actually on a path to realizing better student performance or better teacher preparation. In fact, the pursuit of accountability through measurement and standardization has impeded progress toward cultivating better teachers, better teacher education, and better practice. Policy designed to promote large scale improvement of the quality of teaching in the United States context have fallen prey to what Fullan (2011) calls the "wrong drivers" and thereby are committing what Kennedy (2010) calls "attribution error" by studying what is easy to measure rather than what fully captures quality practice. The United States continues to rank average or slightly below average on reading, math, and science on the PISA (OECD 2011) and there are, at best, lackluster results on the $4.3 billion Race to the Top initiative, which in large part sought to raise student test scores by revamping teacher evaluation and thus improving teaching. In effect, the adoption of a narrowly defined focus not only results in lowering the possibility of fostering higher student achievement, it also creates a disintegration of

the moral fabric surrounding teaching and learning enabling situations like those presented at the beginning of the chapter.

Another irony can be found in Finland. Although policy makers in the United States covet the PISA scores Finland has achieved in the last 10 years, it is clear that Finland approaches accountability and quality teaching very differently than the United States. In Finland assessments and testing do not drive practice (Sahlberg 2012). Students do not receive comparative scores within their schools until the 5th or 6th grades. Quality teaching and therefore, assessment of quality teaching, takes place at the local level, within individual schools. "Parents, students, and teachers prefer smart accountability that enables schools to keep the focus on learning and permit more degrees of freedom in curriculum planning, compared to the external standardized-testing culture that prevails in some other nations" (Sahlberg 2010, p. 130). Creating this learning-centered as opposed to assessment-centered culture is possible, in part, because the public trusts their teachers and invests in rigorous teacher education to cultivate quality teaching. The focus for both students and teacher candidates is on learning, rather than on assessment.

Historically, one of the mechanisms for cultivating quality teaching in the United States has been through efforts to accurately frame the knowledge base of teaching (Holmes Group 1986; Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium 1992; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards n.d.; Reynolds 1989; Shulman 1987). These efforts were, at least in part, a reactionary response to criticism stemming from the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) report, *A Nation at Risk*, which gave a scathing appraisal of public schools and the preparation of K-12 teachers. Subsequent reports from the Carnegie Corporation (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy 1986) and the Holmes Group (1986) attempted to bolster the academic integrity of the teaching profession, while the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (1992) and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (n.d.) incorporated the knowledge required for quality teaching as well as the skills and dispositions. In addition, a number of researchers attempted to more clearly define the requisite knowledge base (Eraut 1994; Reynolds 1989; Richardson 2001) with Shulman (1987) focusing on what teachers can put into practice coining the idea of "pedagogical content knowledge." Kennedy (1999) also describes the challenge of acting upon teaching knowledge in what she labels the "problem of enactment" (p. 70).

Despite some tensions in framing the knowledge base of teaching in the last 30 years, the challenge in articulating a compelling standard for quality teaching has not been a problem of applied knowledge. Certainly demanding rigorous content knowledge, honing the craft of pedagogical skills, and refining our understanding of application and transfer in the "gritty particularities of situated practice," (Shulman 1998, p. 519) are important aspects of cultivating quality teaching. An emphasis on "evidence-based practices" is warranted and, in many instances, is falling short of reaching full implementation, both for in-service professional development and preservice teacher education. However, if direct instruction in evidence-based practices dominates the teacher education curriculum, we will continue to fall short of realizing quality teaching on the broad scale we seek. As the opening scenarios illustrate, the

challenge to envisioning quality teaching is less a matter of "having the right stuff" than it is a matter of developing the capacity to "do the right thing the right way" even under challenging circumstances, *especially* under challenging circumstances.

Teachers who become accomplished teachers do not merely learn and then mimic proven pedagogical techniques. Teachers well-versed in evidenced-based practices will fall short of achieving quality teaching if this is the extent of their teaching capacities. Quality teaching is not merely a matter of knowing techniques, but which technique to choose, under what conditions, with which students, and to achieve what outcomes.

Furthermore, engaging in quality teaching requires careful consideration of what aims are most worthwhile. What goals should the teacher pursue? By "goals," we mean macro-level goals that intimate the broad purposes of education, goals that have implications for the kinds of individuals we desire individual children to become and the kind of society we hope to shape. Surely few would limit the broad purposes of education to the cultivation of students as test-takers. In fact, the United States maintains a history of education goals that span academic, socio-emotional, and civic purposes (Dewey 1916; Powell et al. 1985; Sizer 1984), as do many industrialized countries boasting high academic achievement (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Sahlberg 2010). The teacher engaged in quality teaching is not only purposeful about choosing particular pedagogical techniques to achieve particular outcomes, this teacher also understands how those choices influence the broad purposes of education.

It is our argument that the most significant substrates of teachers engaged in quality teaching lies within the deliberative exercise of deep seated moral values – a quality termed "practical wisdom" (Schwartz and Sharpe 2010). *Practical wisdom* involves the cultivation of teachers' inclination to "do the right thing" and to know how to engage in actions that animate that desire. Teachers employing practical wisdom engage in constant discernment, on both micro- and macro- levels. Teachers conduct their work in ambiguous environments that require constant practical decisions with moral implications. Therefore, having both a clear understanding of educational aims and being able to engage in consistent reflection on how those aims play out in every day situations is necessary if teachers are to cultivate the intellectual, social, emotional, and moral development of their students. In this chapter we argue for a theory of moral purpose in teaching as an essential element of quality teaching. This theory is grounded in the concept of practical wisdom. Because practical wisdom entails wisdom in practice, we describe how teacher educators must leverage authentic field-based practice to develop quality teaching.

17.3 A Theory of Moral Purpose in Teaching

We have argued that quality teaching is more than knowledge and implementation of pedagogical techniques. It also involves a keen perception of when to implement particular techniques and an awareness of the broad purposes of education that the

enactment of those techniques fulfills. Reflecting on the broad purposes of education involves considering what is most worthwhile, in essence navigating education as a moral endeavor. Evidence-based practices are important for enacting quality teaching, yet they are insufficient. Therefore, we look beyond the cultivation of evidence-based practices and advocate a framework for developing teachers' practical wisdom (Schwartz and Sharpe 2010). Practical wisdom includes refining what Schwartz and Sharpe call the "moral will and the moral skill" necessary to negotiate the complex terrain of teaching in the modern era. Content knowledge and pedagogical skill as well as reflective judgment and discernment comprise the moral skill of practical wisdom. One's inclination, or moral will, is also necessary, for ability does not always equal performance (Dottin 2009) and competencies do not always lead to competence (Korthagen 2004). In other words, the teacher *capable* of making good things happen for her students *may not succeed* in making them happen. Why that occurs and how it can be prevented sheds light on the importance of cultivating practical wisdom.

Clearly teaching involves a complex interplay of knowledge and skills encompassing such diverse areas as child development, subject area knowledge, culturally relevant pedagogy, classroom management, and a host of others. Yet quality teaching moves beyond the teacher's possession of knowledge and skills in these areas. For quality teaching to occur, the teacher must decide which knowledge and skills to employ in a particular context both to reach immediate goals and to work towards the broader purposes of education. The teacher must be *inclined* to put her knowledge and skills to use to achieve desired outcomes and must develop *discernment* so she is aware of what a particular context requires in order for those outcomes to be reached. Because achieving desired outcomes and realizing broad purposes of education constitutes making values concrete, the teacher also must discern how her values are manifesting through her actions. Schwartz and Sharpe (2010) draw from Aristotle's concept of "phronesis," which depends on "our ability to *perceive* the situation, to have the appropriate *feelings* or desires about it, to *deliberate* about what was appropriate in these circumstances, and to *act*" (p. 3). *Phronesis* is both immediate and experiential in that it involves the inclination and ability to discern what to do in any given moment, and it is also moral and reflective in that it involves discerning what is worth doing. Hence, practical wisdom encompasses moral will and moral skill.

In general, most teachers already possess the moral will to engage in quality teaching. As mentioned earlier, teachers enter the profession inclined to engage in what is perceived as a worthwhile undertaking. They possess intrinsic motivation and a sense of responsibility to guide student learning and promote their healthy development. The "appropriate feelings or desires" already exist. External incentives are unnecessary to motivate teachers toward these virtuous, broad purposes. Deci and Ryan's groundbreaking research leading to the theory of *self-determination* illustrates how the three pillars of "competency, autonomy, and relatedness" best support teachers' motivation to engage in quality teaching. According to the theory, individuals are most deeply engaged in an endeavor when they possess capacities to engage in a task of their own choosing to achieve the goals they find most meaning-

ful. The "self" in self-determination theory is fundamental as the motivation to engage in a task originates from within the individual, not from an outside source. In fact, educators, psychologists, and behavioral economists have found that external sources of rewards or punishments are not only viewed as less effective than the cultivation of intrinsic motivation, they frequently have been found to be counter-productive, especially in relation to anything other than simple, rote tasks (Ariely 2008; Deci et al. 1999; Kohn 1993).

Given the complexities of teaching, it is not surprising then, that using a carrot and stick method to drive accountability has failed to result in quality teaching. When beginning educators enter the profession viewing teaching as a calling and placing the betterment of students' lives as the overarching purpose they want to achieve, finding the means to nurture and realize these inclinations should constitute the main goals of policy makers, administrators, and teacher educators. The focus should consist of creating conditions that affirm teachers' natural inclinations to promote students' learning and healthy development, not incentivizing them extrinsically. There is no need to waste resources attempting to instill a moral will that already exists. As discussed earlier, a myopic emphasis on test scores contradicts the creation of conditions that promote quality teaching. It strips teachers of their ability to employ practical wisdom and coopts student learning.

Since practical wisdom includes having both moral will and moral skill, another means of nurturing teachers' natural inclinations to promote student development is by nurturing their moral skill. *Discernment* is essential, and discernment is rarely addressed in teacher education. A quick word search in standards documents, program mission statements, and teacher evaluation protocols demonstrates the absence. A more substantive search reveals not much more. Teacher education programs have placed increased emphasis on teacher candidates' selection of instructional techniques and their reflective abilities to choose specific techniques. Such reflection moves teachers in the right direction as it encourages critical examination of when to select one technique over another as opposed to focusing on teacher's knowledge or use of a specific technique when explicitly prompted. However, it remains within the realm of technical-rationality, which is useful for thinking through how to solve concrete problems, but not for discerning which problems are most worth thinking through. For example, teachers of all age groups frequently wonder which consequences they should institute to eliminate off-task behavior. This is a useful question to consider, but often a more fruitful line of questioning could involve considering whether the task was something worth doing or whether the teacher had not adequately met a particular child's needs. Considering only the behavior as opposed to the impetus for the behavior can be akin to a doctor treating a symptom rather than the underlying cause for the symptom. Both the teacher and the doctor must use their practical wisdom to discern the most useful questions to ask and to determine the essential problems at hand.

Therefore, the teacher's moral skill must include her capacity to open-mindedly and open-heartedly perceive a situation and the willingness to the inclination to consider how her actions will align with both immediate and also broad goals. Ultimately she must conjoin her *intention*, *perception*, and *practice* (Schussler and

Knarr 2013). Aligning one's intentions, perceptions and practice involves thinking through one's values, how one achieves desired ends, and how one relates to others. Candidates who learn a decontextualized repertoire of knowledge and skills will struggle to discern which knowledge and skills are required to reach desired goals in particular situations. Therefore, their intentions may be disconnected from their practice, and their articulated values may conflict with ways they interact with others. Discernment includes becoming aware of what one intends to accomplish in the immediate situation, evaluating what knowledge and skills will meet that immediate goal, understanding the larger implications of these actions – what is frequently referred to as the "implicit curriculum," – and considering any assumptions or perceptual biases that may impede one from perceiving the situation accurately.

Reflecting on techniques, on immediate goals, on broader purposes, and on one's values and assumptions and insuring alignment of each aspect is such complicated work that it moves beyond even a difficult cognitive task. It involves the whole self, which is why we prefer the term *discernment*. Discernment as an essential aspect of practical wisdom, can not be didactically taught. It must be cultivated, nurtured, guided. For this reason, the development of practical wisdom must occur within the context of practice as opposed to separated from practice.

In the United States context, policy makers and leaders in the profession have recently begun to distinguish between what a teacher knows and what a teacher has the capacity to enact in practice. For example, a number of teacher preparation institutions, state governments, and the national organization of teacher education (American Association for Colleges of Teacher Education) have embraced performance-based assessments such as the edTPA (Educator Teacher Performance Assessment) for beginning teachers and National Board Certification for experienced teachers. With these assessments, candidates' readiness is demonstrated not so much by what they do in the classroom, but the decisions that they make and why they make them. Decision-making becomes the cornerstone of quality practice as the assessments are designed to reveal what the teacher candidates understand about their professional action. As such, many believe performance assessments like the edTPA or National Boards identify the core of professional teaching practice.

Although these performance-based assessments represent a step in a positive direction, they still do not get at *practical wisdom*. A demonstration of core proficiency at assessment time is not the same as applying proficiency appropriately, strategically, and ethically as a practicing teacher. While the recent movement in performance assessment has taken us from a conversation about the knowledge and skills possessed by the *quality teacher* to thinking more about the professional actions that signify *quality teaching*, it does not address candidates' consideration of which aims are most worthwhile and under what conditions. Performance assessments may begin to help nurture the teacher's ability to discern what to do, but they are not addressing teachers' capacity to discern what is worth doing. Because such discernment is a developmental *moral practice*, it must develop over time and be situated in the contexts and dilemmas teachers find themselves in.

17.4   **Teacher *Discernment* as Moral Practice**

Let us end with an illustration of the discernment aspect of teaching quality as moral practice. According to the practical wisdom perspective teaching morally is a matter of figuring out – on a daily and moment-by-moment basis – to discern appropriate actions to desired outcomes. This *discernment* includes how much time to spend with each student and how to tailor what is taught to each student's particular strengths and needs. This *discernment* is a matter of continually balancing conflicting aims such as treating all students equally, giving struggling students more time, energizing and inspiring advanced students.

This case illustration comes from a critical episode from a research endeavor in which one of us (Murrell) was a collaborator and researcher (Murrell 1994). This setting was a comprehensive qualitative study of mathematics learning in sixth and seventh grade in an urban middle school in a large industrial midwestern city. I (Murrell) was collecting data in this classroom over a period of weeks to examine the efficacy of a mathematics program that emphasized the development of understanding through discursive engagement. For the purposes of the study, Ms. Mather,[2] along with the other participating teachers, were asked to designate three ability levels in her class according to their mathematics achievement. The children were, of course, not made aware of these groupings nor did any aspect of the teacher's conduct or classroom practice reveal these groupings.

Each of Ms. Mather's class periods was typically organized into three phases. In the first phase was a challenge problem that students were presented with as soon as they entered the room, picked up their personal folder and found their seat. The second phase was marked by collaborative work among teams of students working on a set of problems that were either working on extensions and elaborations of the challenge problem or on a new core concept. The third phase was marked by a community discussion of their discoveries and answers. Typically, Ms. Mather would have students come to the front to the overhead projector to demonstrate their answers. As a matter of routine, the third phase of an instructional activity setting for the class period always ended with students sharing the results of their work and explaining how they got the answer they got.

The materials they used at their desk were a set of pattern blocks that included in the set yellow hexagons, blue rhombi, red trapezoids, and green triangles (see Fig. 17.1). One of the great things about pattern blocks as mathematical manipulatives is the way they induce (among 'children of all ages', I've found) pattern making in ways that stimulate openness to variety of shapes and textures. At the front there was a single set of pattern blocks that were translucent so that their colors luminesced on the overhead projector (in the mid 1990's, overhead projectors were a standard instructional device in every classroom). Students demonstrated their solutions to problem prompts of the type "if this figure (e.g., the yellow hexagon) is a

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[2]All proper names used are pseudonyms.

Fig. 17.1 Pattern blocks

Fig. 17.2 The "whole" prompt
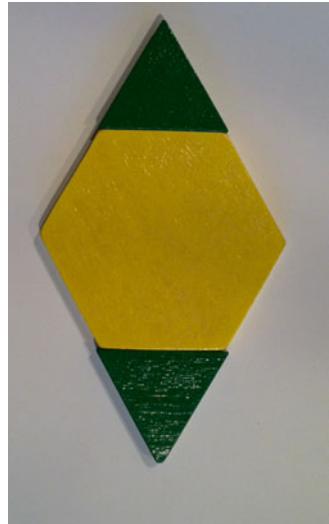
whole, show/construct a figure that is one-half" – using the translucent pattern blocks on the overhead projector.

Ms. Mather had been preparing a group worksheet for each of the last couple of days with problem prompt questions of the type: If a yellow hexagon is a whole, show one-half. Students were to trace or draw the shape as their response on the worksheet, but the team at the table had to agree with both the response and the rationale. Moreover, the teacher reinforced each class period that anyone of the member of a team might be called upon to come up to the front to explain the rationale for their responses.

Today Ms. Mather ran into a problem. She introduced "wholes" that were either larger or smaller than the yellow hexagon – such as Fig. 17.2. Even though her students were middle schoolers and should have been far advanced of learning fractions, and developmentally far beyond being dominated by the visual dominance of the yellow hexagon representing a whole, today there was a problem in seeing the configuration in Fig. 17.2 as "a whole." When only the yellow hexagon represented

a whole, the class had no difficulty in representing fractional amounts with the pieces. But when a whole was constituted by a composite of figures put together in a new way – such as the two green triangles and yellow hexagon in Fig. 17.2 – some students had difficulty designating what constituted a half.

Moreover, as Ms. Mather walked around the room she noticed that students were having difficulty finding the fractional amounts when the quantity representing "one half of the whole" when the whole was a shape other than then the yellow hexagon.

Children just entering the concrete operational stage in cognitive development are still, to some extent, dominated by the visual representations of shapes. Children in third grade, when they are first learning fractions and fractional equivalents, might be expected to be challenged by a task to ask them to regard what visually looks like a fraction of something (like a red rhombus or a blue trapezoid) as a whole. But the students in Ms. Mather's class are well into concrete operations, and approaching the stage of formal operations. At any rate, they should not have been challenged by this task cognitively. And yet some seemed to be. Admittedly, for the students in this under-resourced district, their experience of fractions was poor. The sixth grade team was participating in a special program designed to accelerate what aspects of ratios and fractions they seemed not to have had.

Ms. Mather decided to stop and ask groups to begin discussing the responses to the items she posed on the activity sheet. She started with Hakim's table and Hakim was the designated presenter by the tablemates, consisting of two African American boys in the same ability group. She placed a transparency of the set of "problems" she had given the class. Hakim was called upon to go to the front to of the class demonstrating what part of the figure (see Fig. 17.2) was a half. Hakim proudly began his explanation that of the pieces that constitute one-half of the figure pictured in Fig. 17.1:

> To get the figure that is one half you need to be *halving the pieces* (emphasis added). Well, see here, it takes three pieces to make this whole…See?… Here's this piece (indicating the yellow hexagon) and these two (pushing two green triangles to complete the figure). So to get one half of this figure you have to have three pieces that are half the size of the original pieces …these pieces…See? So here… you go pick pieces that are half the size (picks up the red rhombus on lays it on top of the figure and then also places to green triangles).

Hakim's logic is correct but his procedure did not match the logic, yielding a figure too large to be one-half of the original prompt. He was correct to select the red rhombus for "halving" the hexagon portion, but he overlooked the fact that the green triangle is the smallest piece and therefore has no easy "halving" replacement. One way of "halving the pieces" was based upon size, and another way of "halving the pieces" is reduction of the number. The only error he made in his presentation was that "halving" could have been accomplished by leaving off one of the two green triangles constituting the original figure.

Members of his group nodded proudly in agreement as did several students from some of the other tables. It was a confident and impressive presentation. Harold, a tall, older athletic Caucasian boy was usually the first to speak up when Ms. Mather

called for comments and feedback when a classmate presented their solution up on the overhead projector. But today, Harold's challenge was unusually mean.

Harold:	That's not right. You did it wrong.
Hakim:	(Silence)
Ms. Mather:	Harold, perhaps you can indicate what you see as the problem in the reasoning.
Harold:	You can't just have halves of everything. It doesn't work.
Hakim:	Sure it does. What are you talking about?
Ms. Mather:	(sensing that Hakim was feeling challenged): Yes, Harold. Let's focus on where we might have gone awry with the reasoning.
Harold:	It's that halving stuff. It's not right. They (indicating Harold and his two table mates, both of whom were African American) always get it wrong.
Hakim:	No we don't! No more than you!

Ms. Mather frequently uses the discussion of reasoning strategies successfully as children discover turns in their own thinking and reasoning in conversation with other children. For this reason, she normally encouraged this direct interaction between students during solution presentation, but this time the give-and-take between Harold and Hakim was starting off hostile. The confrontation between Harold and Hakim presented Ms. Mather with another moment-to-moment ethical decision-making typical in the lives of all teachers requiring discernment at different levels. On the global level, she needed to balance the needs of the entire class with regard to her pedagogical attention against the needs of the two boys in dispute. One ethical question is whether students should receive attention based upon individual need, or should students "share equally" the teacher's attention and interactional time? In many school settings these are two competing notions of fairness, where the pressures of the mandated curriculum favor pushing ahead to serve the greatest number of children, and address the needs of the one or two students later off-line. But determining *justice* in this instance, requires discernment from Ms. Mather.

Was this dispute personal or mathematical? If it was personal, was there a racial undertone or was it a typical adolescents' interpersonal conflict? Everyone knew Hakim as a "man of words" in the tradition of African American culture. That is, he found his identity and authority in this classroom setting through is ability to speak, to hold the floor and to argue persuasively. This he did on a regular basis, despite the ways the children in the higher ability group challenged him. He particularly did so when there were racial micro-aggressions directed toward him from the handful of white students in the class, clearly evoked by Harold by his invective "they" in a clear allusion to the fact that Hakim and his team were Black.

Aristotle, Schwartz and Sharpe remind us, construed that the morally developing individual is acquiring both the *moral skill* and the *moral will* for a right outcome. Both confront Ms. Mather. The moral skill is not just about knowing her students and knowing her mathematics, it is also about the skill in understanding the mathematical and conceptual confusion in her learners in a way that she can help them overcome it. There also a moral skill in understanding structured inequality and the ways that racial privilege plays out in children's daily experience, as well as how it

operates powerfully and pervasively among children, even as young as 2 years of age (Van Ausdale and Feagin 2001). The pedagogical skill required for helping Hakim realize his error is made much more complicated by the fact he has been made vulnerable by the micro-aggression.

As Schwartz and Sharpe have argued in a similar critical episode with well-known teacher educator Deborah Ball, this aspect of discernment on fairness is endemic in a teacher's professional life, and the consequences of her choice have significant consequences for the sense of being, identity and safety – especially for 'othered' children. The moral and technical expertise required to promote mathematics learning and just action in this situation cannot be anticipated by classroom lecture or text materials. It cannot be prescribed or scripted. The challenge is not merely the unpredictability and the uniqueness of a presenting dilemma situation that requires discernment. It is also that the possible paths in resolving the dilemma have moral consequences that always require moral reasoning and judgment – the weighing of alternative actions.

For Ms. Mather, a single situation presented multiple concurrent dilemmas requiring discernment. One of them was pedagogical. How much time will she devote to have children discover missteps in reasoning or cognitive construction rather than just telling them the answer? Another dilemma was social. How much time Ms. Mather will spend trying to de-escalate and adjudicate social tension among a handful of students versus the time she needs to devote to the rest of the class? In an apparent battle of ideas, Ms. Mather must discern how much of the contestation is based on conceptual disagreement and how much is on patterns of classroom dynamics. And a third dilemma was relational. Ms. Mather knew that there were a few white students in her class who were accustomed to opposing Hakim on anything he said or did. Ms. Mather had to discern whether this episode was also an issue of relationships to be addressed, and how to navigate delicate racial dynamics so as to validate all her students as learners with legitimate voices to be heard.

17.5   Conclusion

In the United States context, the heated debates persist about what counts as evidence in demonstrating quality teaching, as well as about what the evidence indicates. The prevailing position in policy and even among some advocates for teacher preparation (e.g., Sleeter 2014) is that quality teaching must be linked with student learning outcomes. In this chapter, we have problematized the prevailing view by suggesting there is a critical element of excellence – practical wisdom – that is not easily accounted for in the performance of students on academic tasks. Although everyone would agree that children should develop in schools in ways not limited to academic performance, few seem to incorporate this into their definition of teacher quality. We value education that promotes social emotional development, a sense of identity and well-being, moral action and agency in children. Yet, there is

little or no attention to how the quality teacher moves the needle on any of these things, only on test score performance. In this chapter we make the case for broadening our collective view of quality teaching by opening consideration of practical wisdom, and a vision of improving in practice as the development of the capacity for discernment.

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Chapter 18
Teacher Education, Students with Diverse Needs and Social-Emotional Education

Paul Cooper

18.1 Introduction

The term 'diversity' when used in relation to social contexts tends to refer to an inexhaustible range of possible characteristics human beings might present with that may provide a basis for differentiating between individuals and groups. These include (but are not restricted to): differences associated with culture, ethnicity, race, religion, gender, sexuality, and a wide range of personal attributes, of a physical and/or psychological nature that may manifest themselves in non-typical forms of behavior or non-typical patterns of commonly observed behavior. Diversity becomes a focus for concern when it is associated with social stigma, which involves the active or passive exclusion of individuals or groups on the basis of assumed 'differences'. Stigma leads to marginalization, reduced social and educational opportunities, impaired life chances and is associated with emotional problems, such as poor self-image, low self-esteem, anxiety and depression. The ability of teacher educators to help prepare their students to recognize and address the needs of students with diverse characteristics is, therefore, an area of major concern.

It is noted that, at the time of writing, 470 countries have signed The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN 2006) and its optional protocol (http://www.un.org/disabilities/), a core commitment of which is:

> To promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by all persons with disabilities, and to promote respect for their inherent dignity. (http://www.un.org/disabilities/convention/conventionfull.shtml)

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With regards to the educational sphere it is now 21 years since publication of the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO 1994). At the core of this endeavor is the following statement:

… Schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, emotional, social, linguistic or other conditions. (Article 3, Salamanca Framework for Action)

This last quotation is important because it highlights the way in which Inclusive Education is conceptualized to embrace the needs of <u>all</u> people of school age. As Ainscow (2005: 2) puts it:

[IE] is a reform that welcomes and supports diversity amongst all learners. (2)

This recognizes that whilst some groups and individuals are more at risk than others, all students in schools are at risk of marginalization and exclusion, and that it is the business of schools not only to prevent this but to ensure the active and positive social engagement of all students at all times. This is a very challenging proposition because education systems have a tendency to be hierarchical and elitist: characteristics that militate directly against the egalitarian principles that underpin Inclusive Education. Furthermore, these characteristics of school systems contribute significantly to the very problems that inclusive education seeks to challenge, to the extent that student 'deviance' can be sometimes seen as a social construction of the schools system (e.g. Hargreaves et al. 1975). As will be shown, this situation creates a particular set of problems for teacher education, which, by definition is concerned with providing teachers with the knowledge, skills and understandings required by schools.

18.2 Education Policy, Competition, Elitism and Diversity

A key feature of many modern education systems is the phenomenon of marketization, which is based on the premise that competition between schools leads to the rejection of poorly performing schools by the consumers of educational services in favor of more successful schools. This, it is argued, leads to a process of continuous, market driven improvement which benefits all consumers.

The experience of marketization in education, however, belies this simplistic rhetoric. One of the consequences of applying free market principles to education systems is the commodification of students whereby schools compete to recruit higher performing students who will achieve the best results in examinations, thereby contributing to the school's status and perceived value (Lim and Tan 1999). Because of the strong associations between socio-economic status, cultural capital and educational performance, marketization increases social segregation and decreases diversity in elite schools which increasingly become the preserve of privileged groups (Bates et al. 2011; Lim and Tan 1999).

This tendency against the widening of participation in elite schools is encouraged by the current devotion shown by politicians in many countries to international

comparative tests of educational performance, such as the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA). In spite of serious negative appraisals of the validity of these tests, there is now an increasing tendency for simplistic interpretations of such test results to be taken as indications of the overall quality of different education systems (Alexander 2012). This leads to the situation whereby some education ministers and their cohorts target the highest performing jurisdictions and seek to transplant what they see as the relevant educational practices into their own systems. This happened, for example, in the UK in 1990s when the then chair of the government's 'task force on numeracy' visited Taiwan and other high performing countries, and returned with recommendations including a greater emphasis on whole class teaching (Reynolds 1998). More recently the UK's Secretary of State for Education visited Singapore, Shanghai, Beijing and Hong Kong (Gove 2010) and declared on his return:

> […] latest international education league tables showed […] places like Shanghai and Singapore put[ting] us to shame.
>   […] [this exemplifies] flaws in our education system.
>   […] We can't afford to waste time while our students fall further behind in the race for the best university places and jobs.

The misplaced belief that the 'snap shot' findings from international surveys of performance in a narrow range of skills can be taken, first as a measure of the quality of a nations' entire education system, and second, can provide a basis for educational reform is alarming (Alexander 2012). Yet, a recent study of the policy effects of PISA in England, France, Canada, Norway, Shanghai, and Switzerland, found a 'considerable policy impact' in these countries (Baird et al. 2011: 1).

When we consider the implications of this for issues of diversity there is even greater cause for concern. As Baird et al. (2011) put it:

> As a methodology, comparisons through international tests do not celebrate difference – they are more likely to produce convergence in terms of what is seen to be valuable in educational terms.

One of the problems with such convergence is that it tends to ignore the role of wider systemic and socio-cultural factors out of which education systems grow (Alexander 2004). In particular, the greater the level of inequality in a society the more inequality there is within schools and in educational achievement. Simply transplanting teaching methods from one society to another is not going to address such inequalities. If anything, such an approach is likely to exacerbate inequality by reducing scope for home grown responses to local needs, not least because it tends to de-professionalize teachers by dictating to them the teaching methods they should employ. More insidiously, this kind of 'top down', results oriented approach leads to a self-fulfilling prophecy whereby teaching careers can be shaped by the pursuit of appointments to prestigious schools which, by definition in a marketized system, tend favor students from relatively more privileged backgrounds (see above). In the UK and other countries these schools also have a tendency to offer better working conditions, place less reliance on untrained staff; have more challenging students and, of course, better prospects for further promotion. As a result, poorer performing,

schools which cater for a disproportionate number of students with special educational needs, experience staffing shortages and a disproportionate reliance on untrained Teaching Assistants and temporary 'supply' staff and, because they are under-subscribed, their finances are further stretched by having to spend a higher proportion of their per capita income on administrative and other costs (Cook 2011).

18.3 The Challenges for Teacher Education

Against this political and policy backdrop the challenges for Teacher Education in relation to student diversity are enormous. Major pressures are placed on education systems throughout the world to focus their energies on the pursuit of academic 'excellence' to the detriment of students who experience challenging social and personal circumstances. A result many mainstream schools, and teachers are discouraged from working with students who present with diverse needs (e.g. MacBeath et al. 2006).

Added to these problems is the fraught issue of the operational meaning of the term 'Inclusive Education', as Curcic states, based on an international review of inclusive education practice:

> In spite of a number of legislative moves, inclusive education has been surrounded by debates for various reasons. First, what is declared in legislation is not necessarily adequately implemented in practice […], or evenly within the borders of one country […]. Second, some debates centre on the very nature of inclusion […]. Researchers do not uniformly agree on what, in fact, constitutes inclusive practices. (Curcic 2009: 517)

So whilst such debates rage, teachers and teacher educators are faced with a range of problems. Among these is the difficulty of providing students with a coherent educational rationale for making sense of sometimes confused and confusing policies and patterns of educational provision, such as the role and status within an Inclusive Education policy of non-mainstream (and potentially exclusionary) forms of provision for students whose needs are not being met by mainstream schools, such as special schools, Pupil Referral Units (in the UK), and facilities for pregnant school students.

In Hong Kong, for example, the policy on this is to maintain a fairly rigidly segregated system of categorical special schools (i.e. catering for specific types of disabilities, such as Mild, Moderate and Severe 'Intellectual Disabilities', 'Hearing Impairment', and 'Social Development') which cater for approximately 1 % of the total school aged population, with the declared intention of maintaining this state of affairs for the foreseeable future (Hong Kong Bureau of Education 2014). In this jurisdiction, inclusion seems to be defined in terms of extending the mainstream curriculum to special schools, with efforts to enable mainstream schools to become more responsive to diverse student needs receiving less attention. As a consequence, teacher training in Hong Kong remains primarily subject based with 'Special education' being dealt with in discrete programs and courses. At the Hong Kong Institute

of Education, for example, (which provides 80 % of the city's primary phase teachers) all students following undergraduate teacher preparation programs are required to take a course in basic Special Education, whilst others pursue a specialist BEd program in Special Education.

In England, on the other hand, where the policy framework is based on a non-categorical approach to SEN, there has been a substantial increase in the numbers of students presenting with special needs in mainstream schools and a concomitant decline in the number of special schools (Norwich 2008), reflecting a commitment to all students' rights to mainstream education along with a recognition of the value of a continuum of provision which depends upon the systemic integration of mainstream and specialist provision. Having said this, the majority of teachers in England receive their initial teacher education through 1 year Post Graduate or Graduate Certificate of Education programs after they have taken an undergraduate degree in a subject relevant to the national Curriculum. These programs are focused on the development of pedagogical skills in relation to the delivery of the National Curriculum and involve a combination of university based education and school based training under the supervision of practitioner mentors (DfE 2014).

The differences between the diversity policies and approaches to teacher training in these two jurisdictions may be tempting as a basis for comparative analysis. It would, however, be a mistake to take such comparisons too far. As Alexander (2012) observes differences in scale alone between an education system serving 50+ million people (such as England) and one serving 7 million (such as Hong Kong) are significant in themselves. One obvious issue relevant to this area of consideration is culture. England (and the UK in general) has been defined as an 'individualistic' culture, whilst Hong Kong falls into the category of 'collectivist' cultures (Hofstede et al. 2010). Crucially, individualistic cultures emphasise the pursuit of individual fulfilment, whilst in collectivist cultures individual achievement tends to be valued in terms of its contribution to the good of the collective (Gambrel and Cianci 2003). This means that different values are placed on the conditions of conformity and non-conformity in different cultures. Of relevance here is the way in which shame (i.e. the loss of public 'face') tends to be an accepted and prominent feature in some Eastern (collectivist) child rearing practices, whilst guilt (i.e. the internalized awareness of or belief that one has breached a moral precept) is more prominent in the child rearing practices of Western (individualistic) cultures (Fung 1999). Cultural differences, such as these, have important consequences for understanding and addressing diversity in educational setting.

Having cautioned against over interpretation of differences between England and Hong Kong, it is important to observe that the policy driven move away from undergraduate teacher education in favor of 1 year PGCE can be construed as reflecting a diminished view of the value of pre-service training for teachers. As Darling-Hammond (2006: 301) puts it:

> … many laypeople and a large share of policy makers hold the view that almost anyone can teach reasonably well – that entering teaching requires, at most, knowing something about a subject, and the rest of the fairly simple 'tricks of the trade' can be picked up on the job.

In fact the move towards the PGCE in England has more recently been supplemented by the government's 'Free Schools' initiative by which groups outside of local government control can set up self-governing schools which are government funded but which do not require teaching staff to be formally trained. This situation creates a climate that adds to the pressures and challenges faced by teacher educators and their students because it casts doubt on the very value of teacher education.

Dilemmas for teacher educators about what and how to teach students about the nature of student diversity can result in ideological clashes which have an important place in the critical study of education. Sometimes, however, in the face of competing policy demands and time limitations there is a tendency to eschew engagement in such debates in favor of purportedly pragmatic approaches to teacher education which are inevitably selective and, sometimes, intellectually superficial (Cooper and Jacobs 2011b). This, in turn, can leave participants in these courses facing 'dilemmas' about how to engage appropriately and effectively with students presenting with diverse needs (Norwich 2008).

18.4   The Knowledge, Skills and Understandings Teachers Need for Dealing with Diversity

18.4.1   Attachment to Schooling

As has been noted there is a tension between the quest for equality in schools and educational policies which emphasize competition and the pursuit of high level academic achievement. One way of thinking about this is in relation to the concept of 'attachment to school' (Smith 2006) which refers to the degree of commitment toward and engagement with schools experienced by students. Students with high levels of attachment to schools find engagement with schooling rewarding both in the present and in terms of their future prospects. Weak attachment to schooling is characterized by indifference or hostility towards schooling and skepticism regarding its value. Significantly, attachment to school has been found to be a protective factor in the lives of young people at risk of delinquency (Smith 2006), making it an extremely important issue in relation to social policy.

The active promotion of attachment to school is particularly important for students who experience various forms of disadvantage. A UK study by Barnardo's (2006) showed that 'looked after' students (i.e. students in the care of Local Authorities) were far less academically successful than their peers, with only 6 % achieving 5 or more A–C passes at GCSE level, compared to over 40 % of all eligible students. Furthermore, 36 % of care leavers sat no GCSE examinations, compared with 10 % of the general student population. A more recent study carried out by The Inclusion Trust (2015) found that only 1 % of students educated in non-mainstream 'alternative' settings go on to achieve five good GCSE's. Such findings

highlight the serious levels of educational inequality in UK schools and the negative impact of such inequality on the most disadvantaged students. Prominent in this disadvantaged population are students who present with Social, Emotional and Behavioral Difficulties (SEBD), which may be the result of underlying mental health problems (BMA 2006) or secondary effects of social disadvantage, educational failure or other problems. Students in this group are also prone to the exacerbating effects of bullying, school exclusion and other forms of rejection (Nicholson 2014; Cooper and Jacobs 2011b).

SEBD is, of course, a very loose term that is taken to refer to students who present with:

> Behaviours or emotions that deviate so much from the norm that they interfere with the child's own growth and development and/or the lives of others. (Woolfolk et al. 2010)

This broad construct, which appears in various forms (e.g. Emotional and Behavioral Disorders; Challenging Behavior; Behavioral, Emotional and Social Difficulties; Emotional Disturbance/Behavioral Difficulties) in educational literature and policy documents throughout the world refers to a very wide range of presenting features. In the school setting these can include: inattentiveness in lessons; non-compliant behavior and oppositionality; anti-social behavior including physical and verbal aggression; bullying, extreme shyness and social withdrawal; test and performance anxiety; stealing; school refusal and truancy, and general disaffection. It is important to note that SEBD may be the result of a mental health problem, including specific diagnosable disorders, but that this is not always the case. SEBD may be problems emanating from the relationship between the student and the educational environment which can be alleviated by adjustments to the educational environment or the student's manner of engagement with it. In such cases SEBD are not full blown mental health problems. However, if such problems are not dealt with in an appropriate manner they may well develop into mental health problems affecting students' lives in more pervasive ways.

There is also a relationship between minority group membership, stress and mental health problems. For example, it has been shown that Lesbian, Gay and Bi-sexual individuals tend to exhibit a higher prevalence of mental disorders than heterosexuals. This is attributed to the stigmatization, prejudice, discrimination, hostility and bullying to which individuals from these groups are often subject (Meyer 2003). For similar reason, Black and Ethnic Minority groups in the UK are over represented in the mental health difficulty figures (NHS Confederation 2012). In the U.S., mental disorders are correlated with disadvantaged social status, including being female, unmarried, having low socioeconomic status, and being non-Hispanic black (Kessler et al. 2006).

This indicates that there is a fundamental need for teachers to understand that there are potentially many barriers to attachment to school for individuals from minority backgrounds, which, if not addressed positively, can escalate into wider systemic problems that are experienced throughout schools and beyond. Furthermore, it is necessary to understand that attachment to school is essentially a social-emotional phenomenon which goes beyond the simplistic instrumentality of

schooling as a route to the acquisition of credentials. Following from Bowlby's (1975) Attachment Theory, the process of attachment involve the internalization of a sense of emotional safety that is built on the experience of interpersonal relationships that promote social and emotional growth and that nurture the development of self-esteem, positive self-image and resilience in the face of life's challenges. In this sense attachment to schooling goes far beyond the facilitation of personal orientations toward school that promote students' educational engagement – though this is one very important effect (Cooper and McIntyre 1996). More significantly, attachment to school is the product of a form of social-emotional education that is of intrinsic educational value because it fosters personal qualities that enable positive and constructive engagement with the kinds of problems and challenges that characterize life in the twenty-first century.

18.4.2 Social-Emotional Education

Emotional development is at the heart of the approach advocated in this chapter. This is based on the view that emotional growth precedes the development of social competence (Bowlby 1975; Greenhaulgh 1996). For this reason the term 'Emotional Education' (Cefai and Cooper 2009) has been used to emphasize the role that teachers and schooling have to play in nurturing emotional growth and social competence in their students. In the current context the term 'social-emotional education' is being used to highlight the point that the social dimension not only refers to competencies that are fostered in students, but also draws attention to the broader social context in which teaching, learning and other interactions in educational settings education take place.

In this sense Social-Emotional Education incorporates what used to be referred to as the 'hidden curriculum' (e.g. Hargreaves 1967), which refers to the apparently incidental learning that goes on in schools as a result of the patterns of social and interpersonal relations that develop between staff and students and among students, as a result of patterns of stratification and discrimination that flow from the narrow credential-centric focus of schools referred to above. The argument here is that whilst individual teachers can do little to affect the orientations foisted on schools by government, they can do much to moderate some of the more negative effects of these influences, and help foster positive social-emotional development among all students.

The importance of teachers' social-emotional understandings and skills is reflected in the long tradition of research showing an association between aversive relationships with teachers, SEBD and educational failure (Myers and Pianta 2008; Cooper 1993; Tattum 1982; Hargreaves et al. 1975). Conversely, teachers who show warmth, empathy and respect for students and create a nurturing environment are likely to prevent the development of disruptive behavior, and encourage positive self-regard and pro-social engagement among students. In contrast teachers who do not possess these competencies are likely to provoke disruptive behavior (Lodge and Lynch 2003; Cooper et al. 2000).

The efficacy of psychological (behavioral, cognitive behavioral, humanistic and eco-systemic) school based interventions, for preventing and dealing with social, emotional and behavioral problems in schools is well evidenced. Teachers who are skilled in behavioral contingency management, who use rewards and sanctions appropriately and effectively, and who communicate with students effectively tend to promote social harmony and educational engagement among their students (Chan et al. 2009; Cooper and Jacobs 2011a, b; Poon-McBrayer 2005). These efforts are rendered more effective when they are conducted within the context of a 'whole school' framework which emphasizes consistency, equity and social justice (Walker et al. 1995; Cooper and Jacobs 2011a). Furthermore, socially oriented conflict resolution strategies such as 'restorative practices' have also been shown to have a positive impact in schools and to contribute to the development of more harmonious, accepting and inclusive social environment for students.

It must also be emphasized that achievement in the formal curriculum is important for all students, and no less so for those who may present with SEBD or other difficulties, and can play an important part in facilitating attachment to school for such students (Royer 2013). It is always important, however, to locate success in the context of the individual's progress rather than against assumed norms. This qualification creates problems for teachers operating in a climate where comparative performance is a focus and give rise to dilemmas of the type referred to above (see Norwich 2008). This, in turn, brings us back to the central importance of teachers' empathy and their ability to promote trusting relationships with their students. It is within the context of such relationships that vulnerable students can begin to recognize their personal achievements, internalize personal goals and develop the confidence to pursue these goals (Cooper 1993).

A further vitally important issue here is that of the role of the student peer group. Where teachers are successful in facilitating warm and positive relationships with their students, they model pro-social behavior and create an environment that is conducive to social harmony. This provides a fertile ground for a variety of peer support strategies, such as peer tutoring (Karragianakis and Sladeczek 2009), peer counselling and other forms of cooperative engagement within the student community (e.g. Cowie 2009; Beaumont 2009). Strategies such as these help develop and mobilize social and communication skills that have consequences far beyond the immediate classroom context.

18.5 Concerns About the Limitations of Teacher Education for Diversity

Unfortunately, in spite of the plethora of teacher education courses at pre and in-service levels dealing with various aspects education for diversity, there are serious international concerns about impact in schools (e.g. ERIC Clearing House on Disabilities and Gifted education 2005).

Results from a recent, survey carried in Hong Kong schools (n = 226) found that difficulties dealing with emotional and behavioral problems in schools were cited by experienced teachers as creating barriers to the implementation of whole school approaches to Inclusive Education (Sin et al. 2011). The same study also noted concern among teachers about their lack of appropriate training in supporting learners presenting with the most challenging types of SEN, such as those associated with emotional, social and behavioral difficulties. These findings are echoed in the very different context of the UK, where a study of 22 mainstream schools where staff were characterized as espousing commitment to Inclusive Education (MacBeath et al. 2006) found that teachers' good intentions were often thwarted by the absence of appropriate training and support. This was found to be so to the extent that staff often expressed feelings of bewilderment and a sense of failure as their self-perceived failures to cope effectively with a diverse range of special educational needs (particularly SEBD) led, by their own accounts, to the spread of behavioral and learning problems to students whose needs were being neglected.

Examples such as these lead one leading academic in the SEBD field to concluded that:

> Pre-service and in-service training in educating EBD students remains indeed anaemic. […] best practices continue to be only partially used in today's schools. As a result many of our educators, from lack of proper training, often find themselves stressed, frustrated and at times, exhausted. (Royer 2013:479–80)

As this chapter has shown, that whilst there is no shortage of evidence about ways of preparing teachers for the challenges of widening participation in mainstream education and improving the experience of students from diverse backgrounds, there are systemic barriers in the way of fulfilling aspirations in this area.

18.6   Conclusion

In conclusion it seems appropriate to refer to one of the great foundational educational thinkers, John Dewey (1897), who declared in his 'pedagogic creed':

> I believe that education […] is a process of living and not a preparation for future living.
>
> I believe that the school must represent present life – life as real and vital to the child as that which he carries on in the home, in the neighborhood, or on the play-ground. I believe that education which does not occur through forms of life, forms that are worth living for their own sake, is always a poor substitute for the genuine reality and tends to cramp and to deaden.

The 'present life' for too many students in too many schools throughout the world is one of marginalization, stigma and rejection. For some of these students these experiences will lay the foundations for lifelong alienation, social-emotional difficulties and the perpetuation of the cycle of social exclusion. Schools alone cannot solve these problems in any simplistic sense, they can, however, be places where the forces of exclusion are moderated and challenged. The skills, knowledge and

understandings of teachers, discussed in this chapter, have key roles to play among the 'levers' for inclusion (Ainscow 2005). When these are implemented effectively within the context of supportive institutions, students experience the transformative power of the school experience in their 'present lives'. They learn the power of social and educational engagement. They learn that they are valued as persons with an enormous capacity for growth and improvement. They also learn that the choices they make have consequences for the quality of their own 'present life' and that which they share with their fellow human beings. When skilled teachers facilitate these kinds of outcomes they are helping to create communities that are welcoming, cohesive, and egalitarian. Such communities are 'inclusive' in the sense that they welcome, value and promote the engagement of all students. As Alexander (2012) suggests, a world facing unprecedented ecological, economic and geopolitical crises, needs more cooperation and recognition of interdependence, and less mindless conformity before the forces of elitism and competition. Teachers cannot change the world, but when there is a political aspirations such as these.

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Chapter 19
Teacher Education Between Two Worlds: Past and Future

Miriam Ben-Peretz and Tali Aderet-German

19.1   Introduction

The cardinal issue of teacher education in the twenty-first century concerns the importance of teacher education quality to ensure appropriate education of future citizens in a global and changing world. In this chapter, we portray the movement of teacher education on a timeline between past and future, and the impact of this journey on teacher education quality. Teacher education processes might be viewed as pertaining to the interaction of three sets of factors. The first factor relates to global and local influences. By global influences we mean the mainly Western approaches to teacher education, and the tension between them and local beliefs, norms and modes of education. The second important factor concerns the relationship between past experiences and anticipations for future developments. Changes in education occur over time and we view this process as moving from past to the uncertain future, through the present we live in. The impact of societal circumstances on the realm of teacher education constitutes a third meaningful factor shaping the nature of teacher education programs.

Using the case of Israel as an example, this chapter analyzes the ongoing quest for quality in teacher education programs, as related to the interplay among these factors. The conceptual frameworks guiding our inquiry are the schemes for research on teacher education programs (Katz and Rath 1985); the work of Anderson-Levitt on global and local aspects of schooling (2003), and the effect societal changes have in shaping educational institutions (Earnest and Treagust 2006). Though fundamental changes in teaching and learning are rare (Lueddeke 1999), deep societal changes have the power to impose such changes on a seemingly highly conservative system,

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namely, teacher education (Ben-Peretz 2000; Eilam and Ben-Peretz 2006; Ben-Peretz and Lotan 2010).

We focus on some parameters of teacher education in each of the periods, such as the ethos of programs, the nature of student teachers and teacher educators, content (the curriculum of programs), methods and regulations (Katz and Rath 1985). By highlighting these dimensions over time we notice changes and attempt to relate them to shifts in the societal context.

We start with a brief description of the education system in Israel, focusing on teacher education processes. The time before the establishment of the State of Israel is the first phase of the development of teacher education programs in a developing nation. The establishment of the State of Israel in 1948 posed cardinal problems for the education system and had, as well, far-reaching implications for teacher education in the present. These changes are interesting in view of the apparent general global uniformity in the conception of teacher education. Finally we turn to prospects for the future of teacher education. The chapter concludes with a discussion of insights gained through our inquiry.

19.2 Past and Present in Teacher Education in Israel

19.2.1 Israeli Society Background

Israel is a multicultural, multi-ethnic and multi-religious society. The majority of its population are Jews (75.3 %), about 24 % are minorities- Muslim Arabs, Christian Arabs, Druze and others. Because of the policy of the British Mandate, Muslim and Christian sectors of the population were granted autonomy in education, and maintained their own schools and teacher education programs. The Jewish population includes native Israelis, and immigrants from European and American ancestry, the former Soviet Union, Ethiopia, North Africa and Middle East origin. The identification with diverse religious orientation leads to several subsystems of education: state public schools, and state public religious schools, as well as, an ultraorthodox system funded by the state (Ben-Peretz and Dror 1992). In the context of this chapter we focus on teacher education in the Jewish population.

19.2.2 The Past: Teacher Education in Israel Pre-independence

During the British Mandate, before the declaration of the State of Israel in 1948, the pre-independence Israeli teachers were qualified through teacher education colleges, and temporary ad-hoc teacher education programs. Immigrant teachers with academic qualifications from abroad taught mainly in senior high-schools. The

regulation of the teacher education system began by organizing teacher education seminars, first, as a 5 year extension of the 8-grade elementary school, focusing on pedagogical education. Later, in the middle of the 1940s, the structure was changed, and a 2 year education program was required of student-teachers post-high-school graduation (Yonay 1999). Three different educational streams existed at that time in the Jewish sector: the general stream, the Labor-party oriented stream, and the religious stream.

Teacher education colleges were also divided ideologically and were associated with the various educational streams. The general colleges emphasized liberal and professional pedagogical principles, influenced mainly by Western conceptions of education; the Labor-affiliated colleges celebrated the values of the Labor movement, socialism, cooperation, mutual responsibility and equity, and were close to Marxist Russian ideology.[1] Religious colleges focused on religious studies and strict observation of religious laws and customs. The orthodox sector of society maintained its own institutions of teacher education. Teacher education in Labor affiliated colleges was similar to teacher education in the kibbutz movement. We turn now to a brief description of the kibbutz movement and its teacher education programs, as a major influence, and example of teacher education in the past.

19.2.2.1 Teacher Education in the Kibbutz Movement

The goals of the kibbutz movement, founded in 1910 in Israel, combined Zionism and socialism, influenced by the new immigrants' Marxist and humanistic ideology. A kibbutz (pl. kibbutzim) is a cooperative democratically governed small community. The first kibbutzim aimed for social and economical autonomy, striving to create a new different social order: all resources, property and funds belong to the commune; kibbutz members contribute their work for the welfare of their commune, which supplies all their needs – lodging, food, education, cultural activities and medical care (Ben-Peretz and Dror 1992).

Kibbutz education, called "collective education" embraced features based on psychology, child development, and progressive education, specifically influenced by American educators like Dewey, as well as, other great educational leaders such as the Italian Montessori, or Soviet educators like Makarenko. Collective education's main principles are (Dror 2002, pp. 32–37):

1. The child's individual and social education is carried out in a the frame of the students' peer group
2. The kibbutz's responsibility for education is to create an educational environment with strong daily ties to the community.

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[1] This ideology influenced other countries, as well, for instance, China. During a graduate course in Michigan State University a Chinese student and the first author were the only ones familiar with Anton Makarenko's work, one of the founders of Soviet pedagogy who introduced the concept of "productive labor" into the educational system.

3. Collaboration of all the educational components (parents, teachers etc.) constitutes an integration of educational factors.
4. Unity of education and instruction – integrating school life with social and work life, integrating formal and informal learning.
5. Active learning emphasizing interdisciplinary approaches is promoted.
6. Student autonomy ("guided independence") in their social group.
7. Continuity of collective education is carried out from infancy to young adulthood.
8. Teachers are granted autonomy in their educational work.

At the first stages of the development of the kibbutz education system the kibbutz movement established movement-wide and regional education committees. These committees were responsible for the educational policy and practical coordination in the movement. They had a large range of responsibilities, such as, advising on economic issues to the kibbutz educational institutions, training caregivers for preschool and after school arrangements, and representation of the movements' interests in the pre-state, and state education system. One of the central duties of the movement-wide education committee was formalizing the movements' educational philosophy and distributing it through various publications and gatherings, as well as through teacher education (Dror 2002).

In the first years of the kibbutz movement, the number of children in each kibbutz was very small, complicating the organization of schools and preschools. Most school and preschool teachers were minimally, if at all, trained, and their educational work was based on "on the job" acquired experience. Dror (2002) emphasizes that the educational needs of the children of the first kibbutzim (1910–1920) led to the organizing of an educational theory formulated in the 1930s. The need for teacher education according to "collective education" principles entailed the founding of a kibbutzim college of education in 1939 ("Seminar Hakibbutzim" – The Kibbutzim College).

The Kibbutzim College was established in Tel-Aviv "for training preschool and school teachers based on the pedagogical views of the kibbutz movement"[2] In the late 1940s another teacher education college for kibbutzim schools and preschools was founded, Oranim College, in Israel's northern region. These colleges qualified preschool and elementary school teachers (and from the 1960s, teachers for higher grades) (Dror 2002).

The aspiration for teacher quality in the pre-state period stem from different sources: Western, or Soviet pedagogical ideas, religious norms, and the emergent educational theories of the kibbutz movement. Kibbutz education and teacher education were highly influential on the nature of teacher education in Israel at that time.

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[2] From Kibbutzim College of Education website: http://www.smkb.ac.il/en/seminar-id

19.2.2.2 Concluding Comments on Past Teacher Education in Israel

What characterizes teacher education processes in Israel in the past before the establishment of the State of Israel?

The Jewish system of education during the British Mandate was autonomous, as far as the structure of schools, and the curricula studied in them, were concerned. The Arab population had its own schools and school boards and was autonomous and separated from the Jewish system. This autonomy had the advantage of preserving the culture of each community, but prevented the creation of a common cultural basis.

The overall population of the country did not require a large number of teachers; the few colleges prepared teachers mainly for the elementary school level – grade 1–8. Senior high school teachers were usually new-comers who had studied abroad.

There was no shortage of candidates for existing teacher education programs. There were only two institutes of higher education, the Technion in Haifa, and the Hebrew University in Jerusalem. Female high-school graduates had few opportunities to enter professions other than teaching and nursing. This situation changed dramatically after the establishment of the State of Israel. As to the content of teacher education programs, each stream of colleges focused on its major ideological domain, liberal or religious content areas. Each community had its own regulations about criteria for receiving a teaching certificate.

From this portrayal of past developments of Israeli teacher education, we move to the present.

19.2.3 Teacher Education in Present Times: The Impact of Societal Developments

The massive number of new immigrants who came to Israel after the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948, and the implementation of obligatory education from the age of 5 by law, necessitated the expansion of the education system. This expansion raised the need for more teachers, and the development of a comprehensive teacher education system which supplied quality training and education for large number of students. Thus, in the early years of the States' establishment many teachers were trained in expedited yearly programs, which included general and pedagogical education.

With the passing of the national education law in 1953, the sectorial orientation of teacher education institutions was resolved to three separately supervised sectors: public schools, religious public schools and independent schools. Some small seminars were merged into larger institutions, and some were closed. The sectorial nature of education in Israel contributes to a lack of basic national unity, and increases the sense of distance between communities.

The most important societal change after establishing Israel's statehood was demographic. Large numbers of immigrants entered the country and required appropriate educational opportunities. At the same time the rapidly growing economy called for educating manpower to fill diverse occupational roles. This situation called for a major reform in Israeli schools.

> During the late 1960's and early 1970's, comprehensive junior high-schools for grades 7 to 9 were first formed in Israel, only two decades after the establishment of the state. At that stage, the country was still attempting to form a unified nation of numerous immigrants from various countries, cultures, and backgrounds. The impetus for this structural educational reform stemmed from a perceived lack of academic rigor during the last two years of elementary school, a high percentage of failure and dropout at the post-elementary stage, a correlation between failure, and geocultural origin and the homogeneity and segregation of elementary schools (Inbar 1981)…The structural reform aimed to improve students' achievements and increase social integration. (Ben-Peretz 2009, p. 104)

The formation of a new structure in schools required appropriate teacher education programs. The number of teacher education colleges rose dramatically, and most underwent a process of academization.

At present teacher education programs are carried out in two main locations: colleges of teacher education (for K-6 and 7–9 grades) and departments of teacher education in universities that educate teachers for junior and senior high schools. In colleges of education subject domains are taught with concurrent emphasis on educational and instructional issues. In the university-based programs, candidates study professional courses and participate in the practicum after completing their subject courses and receiving a university degree (Ben-Peretz et al. 2012).

Since 1979 colleges for teacher education in Israel have undergone a considerable change, and are gradually becoming academic institutions (Ariav and Seidenberg 1992; Ariav et al. 1993; Katz and Colman 2001). One result of this reform has been an extension of the study program to 4 years and accreditation to grant a B.Ed. degree together with a teaching certificate (Fresko 1997, p. 1435; Katz and Coleman 2001, p. 224).

Since 2007, academic teacher education programs recognized by the Council of Higher Education in Israel must follow certain guidelines (Ben-Peretz et al. 2012, p. 18):

(a) Teacher education takes place in institutions accredited by the Council of Higher Education in Israel.
(b) Each teacher educator should have a Ph.D. or an Ed.D. degree in one of the subjects or disciplines relevant for teacher education.

Teacher education for orthodox schools is still carried out in non-academic institutions and lasts only 2 years.

19.2.3.1   Global and Local Influences on Teacher Education in Israel

Basic themes and structures of teacher education programs might be found in diverse programs of teacher education. Shulman's (2005) idea of "signature pedagogies" might explain the commonalities found in teacher education programs. Signature pedagogies are defined as: "types of teaching that organize the fundamental ways in which future practitioners are educated for their new profession" (p. 52). Thus, teacher education programs are generally, globally based on the following components: knowledge domains to be taught; general pedagogic knowledge; modes of instruction and a practicum. The different institutions of teacher education in Israel base their curriculum mainly on Western global conceptions of education. Global elements are, for instance, the structure of the disciplines, active learning processes, standardization, and assessment tools.

Yet, local contexts relating to ethnic, cultural, religious, economic and political elements influence teacher education programs (Ben-Peretz et al. 2012). Local elements play a significant role in the curriculum of programs. The following are some examples.

A strong local element in Israeli schools is the role of the "Mechanech" the Israeli form of the homeroom teacher. The "Mechanech" is expected to be close to his/her students and to help them with their instructional problems, and also with more personal matters. One of the roles of the "Mechanech" is to create a classroom community that might be involved in common projects. Teacher education emphasizing the role of the "Mechanech" might serve to create understanding and acceptance of the "other" in diverse sections of Israeli society.

Holocaust education is another local element in Israeli education. As a central part of Jewish history, the Holocaust, the intentional genocide of the Jewish people, has a special role in Israeli education. The study of the Holocaust in schools was made mandatory under a law enacted in 1963, after the Eichmann trial was held in Jerusalem. In 1980, the Knesset (the Israeli Parliament) made awareness of the memory of the Holocaust a central goal of education (Ben-Peretz 2003). Israeli high-school students are examined on the subject in the matriculation exams. The Ministry encourages high schools to send student delegations to Poland to visit the death camps (Porat 2004).

19.2.3.2   Professional Development of Teacher Educators

The rapid expansion in teacher education institutions required a parallel growth of faculty of teacher educators and their continuing professional development. A distinctive component of the local aspects of Israeli teacher education is the MOFET Institute, the institute for the professional development of teacher educators.

The Department of Teacher Education in the Israeli Ministry of Education decided to establish an institute whose main goals are research, writing and professional

development of teacher educators. The MOFET Institute was founded in 1983 as a Ministry funded non-profit organization. "The activities of the MOFET Institute are directed towards pursuing the optimal ways for teacher education and training to lead to the improvement of the teaching quality in the education system."[3]

To achieve these goals the MOFET Institute developed different channels of action available for teacher educators:

- The School of Professional Development offers short workshops on teacher education related and core topics, and has four 2- year specialization programs in: Instructing and Mentoring, Research and Evaluation, Academic Management, and Information and Communication Technologies; as well as three one-year programs in: Dialogue in Education, Visual Literacy, and Writing in Teacher Education
- The Publication Channel "aims to encourage teacher educators to transform their personal theoretical and practical knowledge into public knowledge"[4] via book publication (over 290 books were published to date in Hebrew and in English), a refereed academic journal on teacher education in Hebrew and a quarterly non-refereed professional journal, are part of this enterprise.
- The Research Authority, aims to promote and publicize research on teacher education and teacher educators, and to advance researchers in these fields.
- The Communications Center aims to provide and develop communication services and online technologies for the use of individual teacher educators, and academic institutions.

Recently, a study examining the perception of teacher-educators-students in the School of Professional Development at MOFET on their professional development, their motives to choose their specialization field, and its perceived contribution to their professional development was conducted (Reichenberg et al. 2013). The study's findings validated the framework of the School of Professional Development, including its goals, content, and structure.

19.2.3.3   Concluding Comments on Present Teacher Education in Israel

At present, teacher education programs in Israel are situated at special institutions, most granting academic degrees. The academization of teacher education had a large impact on the nature of teacher educators, who are required to have Ph.D. degrees and to add research to their professional duties.

One of the changes in present teacher education programs concerns the nature of student teachers. As the status of women in Israel changed, many occupations opened for women, and teaching ceased to be a preferred option, causing a scarcity of high level teacher candidates.

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[3] From MOFET Institute website http://www.mofet.macam.ac.il/eng/Pages/default.aspx

[4] http://www.mofet.macam.ac.il/eng/writing/Pages/default.aspx

Once the State of Israel was established clear regulations were set for acquiring certificates of teaching that are mandatory in the school system. Overall guidelines were set for the organization of programs. Still, the diverse streams of colleges tend to focus on their own conceptual and ideological content areas. The curriculum of teacher education programs is based on diverse global frameworks but includes, as well, local elements. The importance assigned to the professional development of teacher educators initiated the establishment of the MOFET Institute.

19.3 Teacher Education Programs: A Look into the Future

A large part of this chapter is devoted to teacher education at present times. This discussion is necessary because the present is the link between past and future and provides the starting point for anticipating changes, and even upheavals, in processes of teacher education.

How do we envision the future of education in Israel? Several issues seem to become governing forces in the development of the educational landscape. First and foremost the rapid growth of digital technology that seems to occupy much of the planning of teaching and learning about the future of schools, and the possible role of teachers in a digital world. The start of this tendency can be seen in present teacher education in Israel, but will probably be enhanced in the future, as expressed by the World Summit on the Information Society:

> The modern world is undergoing a fundamental transformation as the industrial society that marked the 20th century rapidly gives way to the information society of the 21st century. This dynamic process promises a fundamental change in all aspects of our lives, including knowledge dissemination, social interaction, economic and business practices, political engagement, media, education, health, leisure and entertainment. (World Summit on the Information Society 2003)

These developments pose grave problems for education, which strives to enable future citizens to live in modern society having control over technology, rather than being ruled by it. This endeavor is closely connected to the thoughtful and wise use of up-to-date diverse technologies. Literature shows that modern technologies have the potential to contribute to education in two areas: the learning process and the functions of teachers. Learners might benefit through advancing of cognitive abilities, higher motivation and encouraging collaboration with other students or teachers, inside and outside schools (Brown and Campione 1994).

The problem in the implementation of innovative technology is that there is a lacuna in the development of appropriate digital pedagogy, and in teacher education programs that include different ways of teaching and new roles for teachers. One way of attending to this issue is through greater emphasis on clinical experiences in teacher education.

The deficiency of present-day teacher education programs stimulates the search for different approaches to the preparation of teachers. Grossman et al. (2009), reconceptualize teacher education and suggest attending more to clinical aspects of

practice: "Taking clinical practice seriously will require teacher educators to add pedagogies of enactment to an existing repertoire of pedagogies of reflection and investigation." (p. 273).

Jo-Anne Reid (2011) discusses the "Practice turn for teacher education" and its implementation in an Australian Research Institute. This approach is based on the notion that expertise develops through bodily repetition over time (Dreyfus and Dreyfus 2004). Reid (2011) claims that new teachers are preoccupied with mastering the basic, core practices of teaching. The challenge for teacher education is in Ball and Forzani's words "To make practice the core of the curriculum of teacher education requires a shift from a focus on what teachers know to a greater focus on what teachers do" (Ball and Forzani 2009, p. 503). According to Reid (2011) a turn to "practice theory" is the right way to improve teacher education.

Another cardinal aspect relating to the future of teacher education programs concerns the deepening of the academization that can be seen in the present state of teacher education. More and more emphasis is put on research as one of the central components in the responsibilities of teacher educators "as conduits of professional socialization and professional knowledge, as boundary spanners between schools and universities, and as agents of change in the broader educational landscape" (Grossman 2013, p. v).

In our discussion of the future of teacher education we mention several major issues: the anticipated role of digital technology and the practice turn advocated by scholars like Grossman and Reid, as well as a strengthening of academization of teacher education. These issues are examples of global influences on education systems.

19.4 Discussion

By following the development of teacher education in Israel we have highlighted the major impact of global, mainly Western, ideas on the conceptions guiding this process. Anderson-Levitt (2003) raises the question whether education systems move towards a global culture with increasing uniformity, or are creating new frameworks, adapted to local circumstances. It seems to us that there is a trend to more uniformity and homogeneity in teacher education programs, regarding basic structures, as well as content and modes of instruction. For instance, the influence of kibbutz education on higher education in Israel has almost disappeared, even in the kibbutz teacher education colleges.

It is interesting to note that similar questions are raised in Turkey, a modern country with a strong eastern and Islamic tradition. Cakiroglu and Cakiroglu (2003) question Western influences on teacher education in Turkey, as the curriculum of teacher education programs in Turkey tends to be similar to the one in Western countries. The authors argue that major characteristics of Western civilization "may sometimes conflict with the structure of Turkish society, or at least are not understood in the same way." (p. 261). They go on to say "that knowledge in the field of

education is more influenced by the knowledge of Western cultures than by our own culture." (p. 261). In order for teacher education to match local situations, local issues have to be considered and included in appropriate forms of teacher education.

Global ideas might be re-invented locally through the interplay with local forces. Using a metaphor from physics, we can speak about two vectors – a global and a local one, interacting to create a "glocal" situation "…where tradition and modernity are (re) invented through the interplay of local and global forces" (Jungck and Kajornsin 2003, p. 28). Though local influences on teacher education tend to serve traditional modes of teaching and learning in diverse communities, they might lead to fragmentation, alienation, and mistrust among different components of the society. Yet, teacher education programs that ignore local history, culture, beliefs and norms of behavior, might become unsuited to local contexts.

The advantage of global aspects of teacher education is the creation of a worldwide profession of teaching and the growth of a common knowledge base. Globalization in education has the power to spread new ideas and new technologies, and to rejuvenate existing customs. On the other hand, globalization has a price, it tends to conceal, and even to obliterate, local forms of teaching, or classroom life, thus the wisdom of ages might be lost. Balancing between global and local influences on teacher education seems to be the most appropriate solution to the apparent tension between them. Programs in Israel that include local elements, such as the training of the "Mechanech", attempt to find a balance between local and global elements in teacher education (Ben-Peretz et al. 2012).

The description of the fluctuation of teacher education in Israel overtime accentuates the impact of different societal contexts on teacher education programs. The emerging statehood and the flow of immigrants to the young State of Israel called for more teacher education institutions and other ad-hoc solutions, in order to provide for more teachers for the quickly growing population. Each of these small institutions was associated with one of the political-ideological streams depicted above: general liberal, general religious, separate religious, or related to the Kibbutz movement, and their curriculum was shaped by the ideological association. This societal context resulted in an increasing separation between the different sectors of the Israeli society (Dror 1990).

With the large wave of immigration decreasing, and reaching some stability in the changing demographics (from the 1960s), the multi-faceted Israeli teacher education terrain was consolidated to several large institutions and political-ideological streams. The main goal was to focus on the common ground between the different streams of teacher education and the Israeli society in general. This development allowed for the start of the academization process of the teacher education field, as an attempt to upgrade the declining status of the teaching profession.

The story of teacher education in Israel reveals an interesting paradox. This is the paradox between the autonomy of streams in education to develop their own programs of teacher education, while imposing a central outline of the structure and content of these programs. It seems that the future of education and teacher education will continue to proceed between conserving unity and promoting diversity,

sometimes favoring one or the other, at other times trying to create a productive balance between them.

We turn now to a central issue of teacher education:

19.4.1   What Is the Relationship Between Teacher Education Programs and Teacher Quality?

The quality of teacher education programs determines the power of teachers to act as high quality professionals. The passage of teacher education from the past, through the present to the future, which is discussed our paper, raises the central issue of the relationship between teacher education programs, and the educating of high quality teachers. Darling-Hammond (2000) states that "An important contribution of teacher education is its development of teachers' abilities to examine teaching from the perspective of learners, who bring diverse experiences and frames of reference to the classroom." (p. 166). This ability of teachers is of great importance in view of the growing heterogeneity of student populations, and demographic changes. This model of teaching is close to the impact of the "effective teacher" who emphasizes the opportunity for all students to achieve their potential and contribute to society. According to Jackson (1986) there is no definition of teaching that is appropriate for all places at all times. Still, he argues that one common thread through all approaches to the quality of teaching is its "transformative" nature that means changing students in some manner and enable them to be adults in a changing society. The "transformative" teacher model advances a stance of responsibility for greater equity and environmental concerns.

Recent research on teachers has highlighted the critical role of the teacher in achieving quality education. Current literature is focusing, as well, on the importance of the role of the teacher educator. Linda Darling-Hammond (2013) views the teacher educator as a change agent who "can transform preparation programs and school environments, and-in some cases-the policy environment for learning to teach." (p. 98). To attain this role, Darling-Hammond believes there are three pedagogic cornerstones which are critical in the work of teacher educators: achieving tight coherence and integration between course work and clinical work in school, strategies connecting theory (course work) and (extensive, well supervised) practice, and creating new constructive relationships with schools.

These pedagogic cornerstones coincide with Loughran's (2013) perspective on teacher education pedagogy as "a sophisticated way of considering what it means to demonstrate and articulate expertise, *of* and *in* practice, while also responding to issues around the oft-bemoaned theory-practice gap" (p. 19). Loughran believes that teacher educators should be scholars, integrating research and practice in their role, focusing on "learning about the teaching of teaching" (p. 21). This role of teacher educators might aspire to integrate local with global elements in teacher education, and promote their relevance for changing societal situations.

19.5   In Conclusion

The Israeli case exemplifies the complex relationships between global and local ideas, and the expectations for teacher education in changing times and circumstances. Teacher education develops between different worlds – global and local, past and future, and is strongly influenced by societal changes. Awareness of the interplay among these forces is important for understanding the nature of teacher education programs, and their potential impact on the landscape of education. The development of teacher education in Israel, from the past through the present toward an anticipated future, is an evolutionary process, related to changes in Israeli society.

Attempting to answer the questions raised by Imig and Imig (2007) concerning the nature of high quality of teacher education programs and teacher educators, as well as the expectations of graduates of teacher education programs, we suggest the following themes:

1. Teacher education programs have to be congruent with changes in teaching and teaching modes.
2. Societal changes related to demographic and economic globalization require consideration in the preparation of teachers.
3. The societal dilemma of unity versus diversity cannot be avoided in teacher education programs.
4. Balancing global and local elements seems to be the most appropriate policy for planning teacher education programs in order to ensure adaptations to societal changes.
5. The ongoing professional development of teacher educators is one way of ensuring their high quality.
6. And, finally, graduates are expected to act as transformative teachers who are moved by the passion for a better world. In the words of Roosevelt:

> We have always held to the hope, the belief, the conviction that there is a better life, a better world, beyond the horizon.
>   Franklin D. Roosevelt
>   October 12, 1940

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