

**LEARNING TO TEACH AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR  
THE CONTINUUM OF TEACHER EDUCATION: A  
NINE-COUNTRY CROSS-NATIONAL STUDY**



**AN CHOMHAIRLE MHÚINTEOIREACHTA**  
*The Teaching Council*

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## Abstract

The purpose of this Report is to inform discussions, policy formulation, and strategic planning on teacher education in Ireland. The research gives priority to initial teacher education (ITE) and induction, their interface, and implications for the continuum of teacher education, including continuing professional development (CPD). The study involved a two-pronged approach: a narrative review of recent and relevant literature and a cross-national review of teacher education policies in nine countries, namely, Ireland, Northern Ireland, Scotland, England, Finland, USA, Poland, Singapore and New Zealand. Adopting a broad, balanced and comprehensive understanding of the role of the contemporary teacher, it provides a framework for developing quality teacher education in Ireland. The Report incorporates exemplars of good practice and notes their implementation challenges for the Irish context.

Chapter One provides a framework for conceptualising quality teacher education and the continuum. Key features that emerge from the literature are discussed: teachers' practice, quality teaching, the professional life-cycle, teacher learning and relationships.

With more specific reference to the continuum, Chapter Two overviews initial teacher education, induction, learning outcomes and accreditation in the selected countries, including Ireland. Key features of policy in the various countries are summarised. Individual country profiles, incorporating descriptions of socio-political, teaching and teacher education contexts, are further detailed in Appendix A.

Chapter Three analyses relevant literature on initial teacher education, induction, learning outcomes/professional standards and accreditation. Along with previous chapters it provides the basis for recommendations for teacher education that are presented in Chapter Four.

Chapter Four draws together the findings emerging from the cross-national review in terms of the contemporary context of teacher education in Ireland and identifies key challenges and possible lines of policy development as well as recommendations for the Teaching Council and other teacher education stakeholders. Each generation has an opportunity to provide the vision and resources for renewing teacher education in light of ambitious social, economic and educational aspirations to meet perceived societal and education challenges (as occurred in the 1970s). Despite the publication of two key reviews of initial teacher education a number of years ago, there is considerable scope for further reform of teacher education. However, significant changes have occurred to teacher education course provision and content over the last 100 years. In this report, we have stressed the need for, and called for investment in, greater system and programme coherence, mentoring to support assisted practice, knowledge integration, critical reflective practice, inquiry and the development of vibrant partnerships between higher education institutions and schools as the basis for teacher education reform across the continuum.

This Executive Summary presents the Report's context, key findings and recommendations emerging from the analysis.

## Executive Summary

### **0.1 Policy and cultural context: The continuum of teacher education in Ireland and the knowledge society**

#### **0.1.1 Policy context**

In Ireland, teaching is well respected and there is a long-standing recognition that teacher education is of a good quality. Unlike some other countries, there have not been widespread calls for major reform of teacher education, although over the last decade teacher education has been the focus of two major reviews (i.e. of primary education and post-primary teacher education – both initiated in 1998) as well as a report completed as part of consultative process for the OECD's *Teachers Matter* (2005) study. These three documents provide a valuable source of policy directions and data on teacher education at both primary and post-primary levels. Each acknowledges the generally high status accorded teachers in Ireland, which is the result of the professional respect earned through the commitment of thousands of teachers working over generations, as well as their teacher educators. Significantly, all three reports identified the need to bring greater coherence and integration to the continuum of teacher education as a key feature of developing higher quality primary and post-primary education in Ireland. Now, however, a decade later and given the fact that all three reports were undertaken prior to the establishment of the Teaching Council, there is a need to develop comprehensive policies for the continuum<sup>1</sup> of teacher education to meet the challenges of globalisation, sustainable development and the knowledge society (1.1; 4.0.1–4.0.4<sup>2</sup>).

#### **0.1.2 Purpose of report**

The Teaching Council<sup>3</sup> is the statutory professional body for teaching in Ireland. The Council was established on a statutory basis in March 2006 to promote teaching as a profession at primary and post-primary levels, to promote the professional development of teachers and to regulate standards in the profession. This report was commissioned by the Teaching Council to inform debate and strategic planning on the continuum of teacher education with a specific focus on initial teacher education and induction and their interface with the continuum. The Teaching Council's Codes of Professional Conduct for Teachers (published in March 2007) provides an important context for this report.

#### **0.1.3 Teacher education in and for a knowledge society**

The accelerating pace of social, cultural, economic and demographic change in Ireland, and the impact of globalisation and the knowledge society on people's lives necessitate a thorough and fresh look at teacher education. This is essential so tomorrow's

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<sup>1</sup> The continuum of teacher education is typically referred to as the 3 Is, that is, initial teacher education, induction and in-service.

<sup>2</sup> Throughout the Executive Summary we refer readers to relevant chapters and sections of the Main Report.

<sup>3</sup> [www.teachingcouncil.ie](http://www.teachingcouncil.ie)

teachers have the professional profile, aspirations and support to contribute to their own professional education and to the learning of their students over the course of a career that is likely to involve a much greater degree of interaction with students, colleagues, parents and other professionals. Internationally, there is now widespread recognition that teachers are a key asset in society for a host of reasons, but especially so in a knowledge society. At a time when their role is becoming increasingly complex and demanding, teachers need the opportunity to become knowledgeable, inquiry-oriented professionals, attentive to problems of practice and resourceful in identifying means of gathering appropriate evidence in order to foster a culture of knowledge generation and sharing in schools (1.1; 1.7).

#### **0.1.4 Educational aims, teaching and teacher education**

Articulation of educational goals is fundamental to educational planning, especially in times of rapid social change and considering the legitimate but sometimes competing, and always contested, educational aspirations (e.g. social mobility, social efficiency and democratic equity). Education is a key social activity by which society reproduces and reshapes the norms, relationships and ways of life it considers desirable. Key aspects of the emerging knowledge society are hotly debated. These include aspirations for educational excellence, creativity and entrepreneurship and the nature and extent of socio-economic inequities, as well as the actual best means of addressing these. This context has significant consequences for the day-to-day work of policy and practice in both schools and teacher education institutions. For example, the reasons for the rise and demise of the Celtic Tiger have been the source of significant debate, particularly in relation to the changing dynamics of social mobility, the new cultural geography of educational opportunity, the extent of social inclusion/exclusion and the overall wellness of individuals and groups in Irish society. In the context of social change and educational reforms, it is essential that teachers' professional education is broadly based at all stages of the continuum so they have a deep understanding of the inter-relationships across pedagogy, classrooms/schools, communities and society and the necessary capacity to educate the next generation for life in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (1.1; 1.9; 4.0.4). The Teaching Council, DES, teacher educators, schools, parents, colleges/universities, statutory bodies and other education agencies/support services all have a role in influencing and co-ordinating efforts to enact new pedagogical and leadership practices in teacher education across the continuum.

#### **0.1.5 Educational reform and the continuum of teacher education**

The continuum of teacher education has become a key policy focus for national governments, trans-national agencies and inter-governmental bodies. This is evident in the proliferation of reports focusing on teacher education over the professional life-cycle (not just initial teacher education). These policy studies are driven by concerns about how to respond to the challenges of globalisation, sustainable development and the knowledge society. Central to this response is an emphasis on a 'new teacher professionalism' characterised by expectations that teachers will teach to ever-higher standards, for an increasingly diverse student population. This has led to an intensification of teachers' work worldwide, and in many countries this has also been amplified by the use of high-stakes accountability mechanisms. In contexts characterised by standardisation and high-stakes consequences for teachers and schools, teacher morale has typically dropped and this has had a significant negative

impact on teaching and learning across the continuum, making teacher recruitment and retention especially difficult. The key lesson then is that the specific dynamics of educational reform in national contexts influence teacher professionalism and teachers' morale and identity in profound ways. Consequently, decisions about how best to institute educational reform, be it system-wide educational reform and/or within teacher education, will affect teaching and teacher education across the continuum (1.1; 1.4; 4.0.4). Typically, reform agendas are informed by perceived educational challenges although the nature and scope of these is frequently contested.

### **0.1.6 Challenges for the education system**

The accelerated pace of societal change is reflected in new and/or amplified challenges for the education system, each with significant implications for teacher education. In an emerging knowledge society, the challenges are:

- addressing achievement gaps, especially in relation to core areas such as reading, mathematical and scientific literacies
- addressing proven difficulties students have in using knowledge in problem-solving contexts
- promoting inclusion (in terms of interculturalism, disadvantage and special education needs)
- extending lifelong learning opportunities
- promoting higher-order thinking (in subject areas), knowledge generation and creativity
- integrating new models of teaching and assessment in light of rolling reviews of curricula/syllabi
- addressing system shortcomings identified in various evaluations of syllabus/curriculum implementation
- promoting the integration of new learning technologies in classroom teaching and learning
- working in the context of changing social relationships in families, schools communities and online settings
- the role of the school of tomorrow in a knowledge society.

Discussions about the nature, scope, governance and provision of schooling have direct implications for the manner in which teachers are educated for work in institutions in which every person in society spends a significant portion of their lives (1.1; 4.0.3–4.0.4).

### **0.1.7 Learning to teach happens over a number of years**

Internationally, educating teachers to the level that is now required in the knowledge society is seen as something that needs to happen over a number of years, extending well beyond the initial professional education phase, and which encompasses the integration of a wide variety of knowledge and experiences in supportive contexts. In summary, it is now widely recognised that ITE cannot give teachers all they need for a demanding career spanning a number of decades. Rather, the focus of initial teacher education ought to be on providing teachers with a set of high-level beginning competences rather than preparing fully-formed teachers. (1.4; 1.5).

### **0.1.8 Framework for the continuum of teacher education**

This report adopts a broad, balanced and comprehensive understanding of the role(s) of the teacher and views this as a prerequisite in mapping a vision for the continuum of teacher education. The continuum of teacher education framework focuses on five dimensions as follows: teachers' roles; quality teaching; the professional life-cycle; teacher learning; and relationships. The inter-related nature of these five dimensions of teaching and teacher education is evident in that re-conceptualising one has implications for each of the other dimensions (1.2–1.6; 1.9; 4.0.1).

### **0.1.9 Method of study**

This study involved a review of literature as well as a cross-national study of teacher education policy and practice in nine countries (Ireland, Northern Ireland, Scotland, England, Finland, USA, Poland, Singapore and New Zealand). The literature review drew on a range of different sources including studies focused on evaluating and identifying key principles underpinning models of teacher education across the continuum, research on teacher effectiveness and teaching quality, longitudinal studies, programmatic reviews of initial teacher education and induction, and high-quality evaluations/studies of specific initial teacher education and induction programmes well-grounded in relevant frameworks and models of teacher education (3.1.6; 3.1.7). In undertaking the cross-national component of the study, the country profiles focused on three inter-related aspects of education in each country: socio-political contexts, teaching and teacher education (1.8; see Appendix A). The report identifies key aspects of the continuum in selected countries (2.1; 2.2; Tables in Chapter 2).

**Table 0.1 Dimensions of the continuum of teacher education**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Key features</b>	<b>Examples in Irish context</b>
<i>Teacher roles</i>	Teachers' work is <b>multi-dimensional</b> and <b>complex</b> with teacher as: (i) instructional manager (ii) caring person (iii) generous expert learner (iv) cultural and civic person	Moves toward collegial professionalism and the expanding nature of the teacher's role.  Differing emphases among sectors (early years, primary, post-primary) in terms of importance of these aspects of role identity for teachers, e.g. primary teachers or teachers of SPHE might identify most closely with teacher as caring person.
<i>Quality, good and successful teaching</i>	There are <b>different visions</b> of what counts as worthwhile teaching. The conflation of successful teaching, i.e. what adds value to student learning, with quality teaching is a feature of current policy internationally.	References to value-added models, i.e. the VAM-based understanding of teacher quality, in OECD's <i>Teachers Matter</i> .  Two recent DES studies ( <i>Learning to Teach</i> , 2006; <i>Beginning to Teach</i> , 2007) evaluating the quality of final year B.Ed. students and probationary primary teachers.
<i>Teacher development in context</i>	There are <b>patterns</b> in teacher development but <b>context</b> is highly influential in shaping teacher development across the continuum.	Consideration of new pathways in teaching career, e.g. new promotion routes, secondments, career breaks.
<i>Relationships &amp; partnerships</i>	Increasing expectation that teachers <b>work more interactively</b> with students, colleagues, parents and other professionals.	More interactive approaches to teaching and learning by the DES and NCCA. Advent of School Development Planning, new colleagues in the classroom (special needs assistants etc.). Renewed emphasis on communicating with parents about students' learning. Working with other professionals (e.g. educational psychologists, cuiditheoirí, etc.)
<i>Learning and learning to teach</i>	Move toward more <b>social view of learning</b> has implications for how teachers teach and how they learn to teach.	Increasing emphasis on collegial professionalism, whole school and networked school collaboration, either face-to-face or supported by new learning technologies.



## **0.2 Findings and Recommendations**

The following sections summarise findings and include 37 recommendations spanning: (i) Initial Teacher Education; (ii) Induction; (iii) Professional Standards/Learning Outcomes; (iv) Accreditation; and (v) Integrating the Continuum of Teacher Education. In each case, the findings are based on the review of research literature as well as insights emerging from the cross-national component of this study.

### **0.2.1 Initial Teacher Education: Findings**

1. *Policy interest in initial teacher education and its links to the continuum:* There is now a significant interest among policy-makers in considering the links between ITE and the rest of the continuum of teacher education. This is evident in a focus on enhancing methodologies in ITE that will prepare teachers well for the early years in teaching, rather than in arguments for extending ITE itself. Consequently, efforts to strengthen professional preparation of student teachers are being framed in terms of the links (e.g. an inquiry stance commencing in ITE) across phases of the continuum (3.1; 3.2).
2. *Ideological orientations in teacher education:* Across different countries, assumptions and decisions about the most appropriate and/or relative emphasis on different ideological orientations to teaching and teacher education (e.g. social efficiency, deregulation and social justice) have significant impact on the status, design, implementation and evaluation of teacher education programmes and by implication on the teaching profession. While there are observable ideological tendencies within national contexts, there are also different ideological orientations within countries in different teacher education programmes. In the USA, for example, there are very strong social efficiency and deregulation assumptions and related practices operating concurrent with notable emphases on social justice in renowned teacher education programmes at Alverno College, Mills College, UCLA's Centre X, Bank Street and Boston College. In the Irish context such ideological analysis and critical debate about teacher education is less evident than in some other jurisdictions (3.1.1).
3. *A diverse teaching force and varied routes into teaching:* The conventional route into teaching involves completing an award-bearing higher education course. As such, teaching is a graduate profession internationally (this has been the case in Ireland since the 1970s). Countries have evolved a variety of pathways into teaching. These partly reflect considered policy to ensure a diverse teaching force (a more recent concern), but have evolved typically through historical arrangements and compromises in policy and provision. In Ireland, consistent with international practice, concurrent and consecutive models are available at both primary and post-primary levels. A lack of student teachers from minority groups and low socio-economic status (SES) groups in Irish society has been identified as an issue worthy of attention, as has the under-representation of males in teaching. In Ireland, addressing these issues has implications for flexible pathways into teaching, and for other factors such as recruitment criteria and screening. The development of flexible pathways into teaching is part of an effort to ensure that the teaching force reflects the diversity of a population (2.0.1; Table 2.1).

4. *The emergence of new pathways due to deregulation:* Efforts to deregulate teaching in the USA have led to short-term emergency certification. In England a different version of deregulation has led to employment-based teacher education in which higher education institutes (HEIs) play no role. In Ireland, there has not been a drive toward deregulation due to the strong demand historically for places in teacher education (3.1.1).
5. *The length/duration of initial teacher education:* In terms of the duration of ITE, a similar pattern occurs across countries with three- and/or four-year undergraduate concurrent programmes and one- to two-year postgraduate or consecutive programmes. Finland is the one exception where prospective teachers must undertake a five-year programme culminating in a master's degree involving a significant inquiry component (2.0.1; Table 2.1).
6. *Promoting reflective practice and inquiry to enhance knowledge integration:* Internationally, the promotion of reflective practice has become the dominant espoused model of teacher education. In efforts to promote greater coherence and knowledge integration in ITE, the long-espoused reflective practice model (evident since the mid-1980s) is increasingly being complemented by an emphasis on promoting an inquiry/research stance in student teachers, e.g. use of portfolios (in the USA in particular) and completion of a substantial research thesis as part of master's degree for initial teacher certification (in Finland, ITE involves completion of a master's degree).
7. *Partnerships between universities and schools:* Internationally, it is common for formal partnership arrangements to be developed between higher education institutions and schools to provide structured support and a gradual increase in classroom responsibility for student teachers. However, these partnerships vary along a continuum from the school playing a host role (work placement model), to shared responsibility between school and higher education (collaborative model) to the school providing the entire training (training school model). In Ireland, school/higher education partnerships in ITE are typically at the work placement end of the continuum.
8. *ITE is not enough – induction is essential:* There is an increasing recognition that learning to teach cannot happen in ITE alone. As the demands and complexity of the teacher's role expand, induction becomes a vital component in the professional trajectory (2.0.2).
9. *Principles underpinning quality teacher education:* (3.1.6) There has been considerable attention paid to the characteristics of high-quality teacher education programmes. It is evident, from a variety of different research studies that the quality of knowledge integration, opportunities for observation, thoughtful feedback from mentors (as well as peers) and critical reflection on classroom/school situations and professional values and identity are central to quality teacher education. Crucially, all of these need to take place over an extended period. In essence, learning to teach is best done when undertaken as a social, interactive and assisted accomplishment rather than as a solo 'sink or swim' endeavour. The following principles underpin quality programmes:

- **Vision:** A common, clear vision of good teaching practice integrated across course modules and teaching practice in schools.
- **Focus on Excellence in Professional Practice:** Clearly defined and agreed criteria for ‘good teaching’ linked to wider professional expectations and codes of conduct.
- **Knowledge of Learners Linked to Curriculum:** Teaching of curriculum permeated by an understanding of the contingent nature of learning and the impact of both the immediate and wider social context on learning and teaching.
- **Integration of Foundations, Methods and Teaching Practice:** Strategic initiatives to integrate foundations, curriculum/methods and teaching practice as the three core components of ITE.
- **Addressing the Apprenticeship of Observation:** Given the long-term influence of the 15,000 hours student teachers have already spent in classrooms prior to entering ITE, there must be significant opportunity to make explicit the impact of these experiences on learning, teaching and curriculum. (1.4.1; 1.6.1)
- **Strategies to Examine Culture and Schooling:** Strategies to highlight the impact of culture (cultural homogeneity, diversity and change) in teacher education coursework and teaching practice. (3.1.3)
- **Strong Relationships, Common Knowledge and Shared Beliefs:** Well-structured alliance between universities and schools built around strong relationships, common knowledge and shared beliefs to support ITE. (This also applies to induction and CPD.)
- **Integration-Focused Projects:** Use of case studies, portfolios and other projects focused on supporting the integration of different knowledge sources on teaching, learning and curriculum emerging from schools and universities. (3.1.3)

## 0.2.2 Initial Teacher Education: Recommendations

1. *We recommend that, in the context of the continuum of teacher education, an appropriately broad and balanced framework be developed, encompassing teachers’ roles, teaching quality, teacher learning, the professional life-cycle and teachers’ professional relationships in schools. A framework on the continuum of teacher education would need to draw upon the Teaching Council’s Codes of Professional Conduct for Teachers.*
2. *Learning to teach involves not only preparation for life in the classroom but for active engagement in teaching as a professional learning community. Adopting this dual focus on professional preparation has implications for the aims, design and assessment of all ITE components.*
3. *Learning to teach occurs best when undertaken as a form of assisted practice (rather than solo practice). In adopting this stance on ITE, there are significant implications for school-university partnerships in terms of how teaching practice and school experiences are structured. They must provide opportunities for observation of, and conversation with, experienced teachers*

*in light of the reform-oriented teaching being advocated at a national level (e.g. Revised Primary School Curriculum; developments at Junior and Senior Cycle).*

- 4. We recommend that the principles of quality teacher education, drawing on relevant research and professional practice, form the basis for a fresh look at the key components (coursework and teaching practice) of teacher education.*
- 5. We recommend that ITE programmes proactively address the apprenticeship of observation in designing learning experiences given that it profoundly shapes teacher stance.*
- 6. We recommend that teacher education institutions examine their assessment systems in order to promote professional development of teacher candidates, although their use for individual accountability is important and inevitable (e.g. in relation to appeals; in promoting transparency about ITE programme goals and communicating these as learning goals to student teachers). In designing assessment systems to support professional development, attention must be paid to ensuring there is a realistic relationship between the learning opportunities and assessment criteria student teachers are expected to meet. (including opportunities for observing and talking with a range of experienced educators, especially classroom teachers about classroom practice, reflection on instructional decisions, student teachers' apprenticeship of observation, formative feedback, integration-focused assignments linked to teaching practice experiences).*
- 7. We recommend that initial teacher education programmes reconfigure the links between key existing components of ITE – that is, foundation studies, teaching methods and teaching practice – in line with the principles of quality teacher education. Specifically, that re-designed integrative modules would explicitly focus on connections between methods courses and the social context of practice in classrooms and schools. In light of the now extensive research informing curricular and cross-curricular teaching and learning, redesigned methods modules would integrate substantive opportunities to consider the principles of learning and dynamics of social context interwoven with life in classrooms and schools.*
- 8. We recommend that formal partnership arrangements be established which specify the roles and responsibilities of schools and higher education institutions in providing structured support and a gradual increase in classroom responsibility for student teachers. Structured support would include providing opportunities for observing teachers, planning and discussing lessons and undertaking assignments with the appropriate and necessary ethical considerations addressed.*
- 9. We recommend that promotion of inquiry be adopted as a core component within ITE programmes (with implications for all coursework and teaching practice) both as an end in itself in ITE, but also as a basis for developing student teachers' initial capacity to use various reflective and inquiry tools from the outset of the continuum of teacher education.*

10. *Screening of applicants for entry into initial teacher education merits discussion among stakeholders. Topics meriting discussion would include the role of academic attainment, interviews and reference checks in ensuring a high quality and diverse teaching corps. We recommend that following such discussion resources be allocated to ensure proposed changes to screening procedures are sustainable.*
11. *We recommend that ITE, induction and CPD providers collaborate with the new HEA-funded National Digital Learning Repository (NDLR) to design, produce and share high-quality digital learning resources (reusable learning objects, RLOs) for use across the continuum of teacher education, e.g. case studies.*
12. *In light of the increasingly complex and demanding nature of contemporary teaching, the current duration of the Post-graduate Diploma in Education (post-primary) merits discussion. We recommend that, following a review, consideration be given to extending the length of the post-primary programme in line with the 18-month Graduate Diploma in Education (primary). Extending the duration of the programme alone is insufficient to ensure enhanced ITE without reconfiguring the components of the programme (e.g. providing more than one teaching practice placement).*

### **0.2.3 Induction: Findings**

10. *Induction and educational reform:* The extent to which countries in our survey oriented their induction programmes towards accountability or professional learning varies considerably. The UK, and England in particular, emphasises the accountability and measurement dimension while New Zealand appears to view learning to teach as more dynamic, negotiated and complex (2.0.2; 2.1.2; 2.1.6).
11. *Induction in Ireland:* In Ireland, the transition from student teaching to full teacher status is now viewed in all major policy documents and in the national pilot project on teacher induction as a critical stage in becoming an effective teacher (4.0.1; Appendix A.1).
12. *Induction occurs with or without a formal programme:* In the absence of a formal programme of induction into the profession, beginning teachers are inducted informally into the prevailing dominant culture of teaching and learning practices. This prevailing culture runs counter to what is needed for the new professional in meeting current expectations in a knowledge based society. Exemplar programmes, strategically and deliberately, provide professional learning structures to induct beginners into new norms of professional engagement.
13. *Professional development of mentors:* Internationally, exemplary induction programmes involve significant professional development of mentors which focuses on reflective practice, subject matter teaching, and building the capacity of mentors to become instructional leaders in evaluating, designing

and enacting new shared practices in line with national frameworks. The best programmes focus on developing purposeful professional relationships that incrementally build a shared understanding of teaching/learning goals (3.2.6).

14. *Designing induction:* Features of induction programme design across our survey countries include the following, with varying levels of emphasis: mentoring; training; participation; licensure; and teaching assignments. ‘Best practice’ principles include NQTs: being viewed as professionals on a continuum; being assisted to take increasing amounts of responsibility over the induction period; and being supported and not left to ‘sink or swim’. In addition, induction is viewed as a vital and valued educational process for all concerned and as the responsibility of the whole school, not just one staff member. Assessment systems have considerable formative and developmental potential (2.0.2).
15. *Induction as a supportive setting:* Exemplar programmes recognise that the induction of beginning teachers needs to be structured for deliberate and intentional learning of new norms of collegial, instructional and professional engagement. Thus, programmes are cognisant of the legitimate learning and support needs of beginning teachers. Teaching itself is viewed as a complex collective and supported accomplishment rather than a solo activity. (Table 1.3; 3.2.3).
16. *Duration of induction and links to early professional development:* In most countries induction is undertaken during the first and second years of teaching. In numerous countries, induction is now seen as fitting into early professional development (e.g. Northern Ireland and Poland). Increasingly, induction spans more than the first year of teaching (in Connecticut, USA, Scotland, New Zealand and others) (2.1.3; 2.1.6).
17. *Professional dividend:* Internationally, exemplar induction programmes have been intentionally structured to interface with wider curricular and school reform efforts (e.g. this is particularly evident in Connecticut’s BEST programme). As such, a professional dividend accrues to the larger educational project of improving learning outcomes (3.2.6; 3.2.7).
18. *Resource implications:* Evidence shows that induction programmes based on ‘best practice’ have considerable resource implications. Quality induction does not come cheap. Consequently, induction requires planning and careful budgeting for it to be a meaningful and worthwhile experience that genuinely builds on the learning and experiences of the first ‘I’ – initial teacher education (3.2.8).
19. *Partnerships, parity of esteem negotiating of relationships:* Exemplary induction programmes recognise the strengths and potentials of the different contexts of learning to teach. Providing the financial resources for real learning partnerships to develop between teacher educators in university settings, school settings and other stakeholders is crucial for the success of induction programmes and capacity building within the system. As such, induction is

viewed as an ongoing partnership arrangement that attends to the different knowledge bases, meanings and contexts of teaching (3.2.8).

20. *Quality induction programmes focus on teaching and learning practices:* The best induction programmes explicitly focus induction practices on supporting and expecting beginning teachers to examine and evaluate teaching and learning practices. The close observation of teaching and learning provides a key context for generative conversations about teaching and learning between expert and novice. These conversations focus on helping beginning teachers to learn to evaluate their practices in the light of reform frameworks and subject-specific expectations for student learning, to identify and question assumptions underlying practice decisions, and to be able to question prevailing practices that run counter to best practice. Beginning teachers are also assisted in developing and experimenting with specific and relevant teaching designs focused on improving student learning.

#### **0.2.4 Induction: Recommendations**

13. *The main thrust of our review of relevant literature on induction points to the necessity to recognise the legitimate learning needs of newly qualified teachers (NQTs) in the early years of their professional development. This is a crucial stage of learning to be a teacher and a comprehensive induction programme is needed in order to shape NQTs' professional engagement in lifelong learning and to help them become competent, effective professionals in a knowledge-based society. Thus, we recommend that induction is viewed as a necessary and distinctive learning-to-teach stage within a continuum of professional development. The current National Pilot Project on Teacher Induction needs to be reconceptualised within the emerging framework of a continuum of teacher education made available to all NQTs.*
14. *While induction in Ireland is now viewed in the policy literature as a critical stage in becoming an effective teacher, the extent to which provision in practice reflects this needs attention. In particular, it is recommended that the features of best practice be incorporated into induction for NQTs. Among the key features to consider are: release time and load reduction; the matching of mentors and mentees in terms of subject or grade level; the length of the induction period and its link to teacher registration; and the appropriate differentiation and relationship between assistance and assessment .*
15. *The relationship between probation (which is primarily evaluative) and induction (which is primarily formative) needs to be demarcated in terms of roles and relationships.*
16. *Research evidence points to the need for a coherent, comprehensive and shared vision about the primary goals, purposes and learning experiences of induction programmes and this vision should draw upon the current knowledge base on the features of quality teacher education. In particular, critical reflective dialogue and observation should become cornerstone activities of all induction programmes so that NQTs build upon the skills, knowledge and dispositions associated with reflective dialogue within a community of practice.*

17. *Induction programmes should provide ongoing interactive professional development for mentor teachers in becoming effective teacher educators. Attention must be paid to how mentor teachers are selected: for their expertise, skill and commitment rather than seniority or other criteria. This mentor professional education also needs to be situated within current models of best practice in teaching and learning. Mentor teachers need to feel confident in providing structured opportunities for NQTs to talk through problems of practice as part of a formative feedback process.*
18. *Successful induction programmes involve all relevant levels of the education system in clearly co-ordinated, articulated roles and responsibilities for all stakeholders at national and local level. At a national level policy-making bodies must clearly delineate roles and responsibilities for all partners in the induction process within a consultation process. The induction process has implications for the dominant learning practices in schools. In particular, the principal has a role to play in creating a mentoring culture for all teachers but particularly for beginner teachers. In the same way we recommend that mentoring beginning teachers and/or building a mentoring culture in schools should be integral to all curricular reform initiatives and CPD generally.*
19. *We recommend that NQTs be given provisional registration pending successful completion of probation. In this context there should be a debate about the relationships between induction, probation and registration.*
20. *Induction and continuing professional development should be based on the inquiry-oriented stance initiated in ITE and that these structural links and interfaces should be explicitly addressed in any national induction programme.*

### **0.2.5 Professional standards/learning outcomes: Findings**

21. *Focus on identifying professional standards in ITE and induction:* All the countries in our survey attend to what student teachers and teachers need to develop and achieve in order to be deemed competent professionals. Not all countries, however, specify in precise detail, and in terms of competences and standards or outcomes, what teachers need to know and be able to do. Finland and Poland, for instance, appear to adopt a ‘light touch’ to the specification of competences and interestingly these are countries that appear to be the least market-driven. They seem to place considerable emphasis on pedagogic studies and a strong emphasis on the collegiate and social context of professional action. England and New Zealand seem much more prescriptive, with some 33 and 29 statements respectively associated with the list of key standards. These countries’ standards are linked to salary scales and along with Singapore appear to be strongly market-oriented and managerial in orientation (1.1; Table 1.1; Table 2.3).
22. *Variation in competency content and function:* Our survey evidence and analysis shows that standards across different countries vary in how they describe teachers’ work, with different emphases on various aspects. Some countries adopt extensive lists of competences while others opt for more



generic statements. Moreover, the uses to which standards are put vary across countries with a different balance between developmental and accountability functions. Accountability is more pronounced in countries where concerns have emerged about the quality of student teacher intakes, retention within the profession, and where there is an emphasis generally on the close monitoring of nationally-set targets right across the social sector (3.3; 3.3.7).

23. *Defining standards, defining competences:* Standards refer to what teachers are expected to know and be able to do. Generic standards are broad descriptors of teacher competences while specified standards state more precisely what would constitute evidence of meeting the standard. Specified standards define a performance element that would enable an assessor to make judgements about teacher performance. Generic standards can be defined loosely in a way that would invite local interpretation by teachers, principals, inspectors, teacher educators and so on, or they might be rigidly and tightly defined. The more specified and tightly defined the standards, the more technical and costly they would likely be to produce, the more bureaucratic they would likely be to apply, and the greater the likelihood that their application would eat into available teaching time (3.3.2).
24. *Origins of competences and the drive toward standardisation:* The notion of specifying standards has its origin in manufacturing and business and the desire to standardise, control and hold to account. Defenders of professional standards say that having agreed standards establishes internal control by the profession over training, entry to the practice and the practice itself. It would seem too that because there is some consensus regarding the (generic) knowledge and skills that teachers need, professional standards can be formulated (3.3.4).
25. *Competences – use is controversial:* The use of competences and performance standards in education is highly controversial, with considerable criticism about mechanistic and reductive sets of competences which offer simplistic representations of teaching and which are used solely for narrow accountability purposes of monitoring, measuring and comparing. Among the problems are the following: a denial of the complexity and coherence of the teaching role; an undermining of local context and the consequent privileging of the standard-setter's stance resulting in conformity and compliance over quality, diversity and creativity; a focus on narrow, measurable outcomes at the expense of more nuanced qualities and situational issues; a possible erosion of professional autonomy, collegiality and agency; and a possible over-emphasis on the individual at the expense of the institutional culture and the wider cultural and historical system (3.3.6; 3.3.8).
26. *The opportunity cost of focusing on competences:* The thrust of analysis in our review is away from detailed, specified standards linked to individual accountability in a narrow sense on the grounds that the likely increase in teacher workloads would not be in proportion to enhanced learning and teaching opportunities. Acknowledging that individual teacher performance is situated, dynamic and unpredictable, challenges the imposition of prescriptive competences frameworks at the individual level and would likely reduce responsiveness to individual pupil needs (1.2; 3.3.7; 3.3.8).

## 0.2.6 Professional standards/learning outcomes: Recommendations

21. *The main recommendation emerging from our analysis is that there is a need to consider the question of the specification of standards (however defined) in relation to the broader imperatives and the purposes of education. More specifically, there is a need to consider whether this issue is really the most urgent contemporary problem for the profession. The problems and purposes that a statement of professional standards would address would need greater attention and discussion in the Irish context. Clarity about purpose and problems would be an essential prerequisite to any decision leading to the formulation of professional teaching standards.*
22. *Since it is already prescribed in the Teaching Council Act that the Teaching Council must establish standards of teaching, knowledge, skill and competence, our recommendation is that the complexity of professional practice across the continuum would need to be captured in any framework of standards. It is important to resist the idea that teaching can be reduced to a number of discrete competences or standards. A broad professional framework that would act primarily as a springboard for enhancing teacher professional development, teacher education and school self-evaluation would be preferable to a straitjacket designed primarily to facilitate individual accountability. Such frames of reference, or loosely-defined standards, could offer professional statements concerning purposes, values, expertise and knowledge and could highlight the importance of assisted performance, evolving competence and adaptive expertise.*
23. *In relation to the uses of standards, determining the appropriate balance in practice between individual professional development and individual accountability would require discussion and planning. A 'high-stakes' approach to accountability of teacher performance in the Irish context would be wholly inappropriate and counter-productive.*
24. *While recognising the potential to learn by comparing, caution would need to be exercised in relation to borrowing international policy and it would be important to recognise the distinctiveness of the local/national context.*
25. *The Teaching Council has an important role to play in promoting and facilitating collaboration and sharing of ideas and approaches to teacher assessment through stabilising opportunities for teacher education providers to share perspectives on good practice.*

## 0.2.7 Accreditation: Findings

27. Accreditation of programmes and modules of study for teachers at all stages of the continuum but especially the initial stage, is seen in many countries as an important element in ensuring the quality of teaching and teacher education. Accreditation is used as a means of enhancing the professional standing of teachers in the USA and elsewhere. It is also closely linked to issues of control

and accountability, and in many cases to access to public funding for both institutions and students (3.4.2).

28. Accreditation mechanisms differ greatly from country to country, depending on various factors, including the stage of development of the teacher education system, the centralised or otherwise nature of the system in each country, and existing quality assurance mechanisms. It may take input factors (resources, staff qualifications, hours spent on academic and professional education and on teaching practice) and/or output factors (learning outcomes/standards) into account. Likewise, there is variation in the extent to which self-evaluation or internal quality control mechanisms are taken into account for external accreditation purposes (2.0.4; 3.4.1).
29. Accreditation is to the forefront in those contexts where there is a wide diversity in standards and/or a variety of routes into teaching. It enables the qualifications of graduates to be recognised outside their local context in those cases where national standards have been adopted. It is not as crucial in a relatively homogenous system like that of Ireland, but may be important for Irish graduates who wish their qualifications to be recognised for teaching abroad. In Ireland a range of professional bodies accredit the programmes of initial education in their respective professions (e.g. social work, psychology, engineering) (3.4.1; 3.4.2).
30. Accreditation is most successful when teachers, teacher educators, employers and other stakeholders have an input into the criteria for the professional recognition of teaching qualifications, e.g. New Zealand and Australia have developed accreditation processes after an extended consultation and development period over a number of years (3.4.1).
31. In countries where teacher education and the quality of teaching in general are acknowledged to be of a high quality, accreditation tends to be 'light touch'. There is a high level of trust in teacher educators and in the internal and external quality control procedures of institutions once broad parameters have been complied with (2.0.4; 3.4.1).

## **0.2.8 Accreditation: Recommendations**

26. *Professional accreditation by the Teaching Council (as a regulatory body for the teaching profession) would complement (rather than replace) existing academic accreditation processes through the professional accreditation process by recognising the readiness to teach of initial teacher education programme graduates. In order to fulfil its statutory role, the Teaching Council will accredit initial teacher education programmes.*
27. *The colleges should continue to implement their own quality assurance procedures. Accreditation is related to accountability. In the Irish context, a 'light-touch' approach seems most appropriate. Ireland has a long-standing tradition of relying on academic accreditation as a means of ensuring teachers' initial readiness to practise as a teacher.*

28. *It should continue to be the case that teacher educators in Ireland have considerable freedom to develop curricula and pedagogy within the broad frameworks laid down for degree and diploma programmes in third-level contexts.*
29. *Accreditation standards need to emerge from a consensus by the various stakeholders if they are to be generally accepted as valid and developmental/formative in nature. Any accreditation system for teachers in Ireland needs to take into account distinctive local and national features of teacher education in Ireland and to involve all the stakeholders, as was done in the development of the Teaching Council's Codes of Professional Conduct for Teachers.*
30. *Professional accreditation allows for quality monitoring of alternate pathways into teaching. This may become more crucial in the future if more pathways into teaching are introduced and the Teaching Council will need to consider how it will approach the accreditation of alternate routes.*
31. *Accreditation of alternate pathways should take into account what is known about quality initial teacher education (3.4.3).*
32. *The Teaching Council could draw on well-established accreditation procedures involving teachers' councils in New Zealand and Scotland to inform its work in developing an accreditation system for teacher education. Also of interest are NCATE in the USA, the current work on developing an accreditation system in Australia, and the work of HETAC as an accrediting body in Ireland.*
33. *In collaboration with other stakeholders, the Teaching Council should develop and accredit a Chartered Teacher status (Teacher Leadership), i.e. an advanced teacher certification scheme, with appropriate remuneration, in order to optimise the system's capacity to develop and share professional knowledge with a particular focus on classroom practice and teacher professional development, centred around ITE and induction. As such, Chartered Teachers, acting as teacher leaders, would have expertise and responsibility for promoting a mentoring culture in relation to ITE and induction in their own and/or other schools.*

### **0.2.9 Integrating the continuum of teacher education: Findings**

32. *Continuing professional development and the dominance of the one-shot workshop model:* Internationally, the provision of continual professional development is often short-term, once-off, providing few opportunities for interaction and not as clearly linked to teachers' professional practice as it might be. Even when taking into account the advances in CPD provision over the last decade, evidence from Ireland suggests that similar challenges face CPD here (4.0.2).
33. *CPD for mentors as a bridge between ITE and induction:* The need for coherence in CPD provision is especially important in efforts to bridge the

interfaces between ITE and induction, as it points to the need for significant investment in and design of quality professional development opportunities for experienced teachers involved in mentoring (4.2).

34. *Re-culturing and restructuring for teacher education reform:* Literature on sustainable educational change highlight the importance of, and need for, both restructuring and re-culturing in any effort at meaningful system-wide change. Significantly, international evidence strongly suggests that teacher education renewal is especially challenging given the necessary collaboration over time by various stakeholders. Furthermore, promoting teacher education reform is even more challenging when it is focused on reform-oriented teaching and learning in increasingly diverse classrooms (as is the case in Ireland) (4.2).
35. *A broad and deep curriculum of teacher education across the continuum:* Understanding the developmental dynamics across different phases of the continuum presents significant challenges in planning teacher education across the continuum. Acknowledging the important and undeniable role of school and community contexts on teachers' experiences of teaching and learning to teach, the report identifies 'core tasks of learning to teach' across the continuum. Two points are noteworthy. First, the identified core tasks point to the need for a curriculum of teacher learning that is both broad *and* deep. That is, the main tasks in ITE point to an expansive and reflexive teacher education. Opportunities to examine firmly-held beliefs, for example the apprenticeship of observation, with a view to developing a vision of good teaching cannot be undertaken in short, tricks of the trade courses devoid of opportunities for observation, coaching and feedback from experienced teachers and deep engagement with subject matter and pedagogical strategies in multiple contexts. Second, the capacity to learn from teaching is important across the continuum. The development of such a capacity necessitates both the development of a disposition toward such learning, as well as the use of various strategies and tools in a supportive professional learning climate (in and out of school) (1.9).

#### **0.2.10 Integrating the continuum of teacher education: Recommendations**

34. *We recommend the provision of integrated mentoring structures to support student teachers and NQTs. Integrated mentoring structures would focus on schools' capacity as well as the capacity of individuals and teams of teachers in creating mentoring cultures in schools.*
35. *CPD programmes must build upon ITE and induction programmes and carefully consider the structures they provide for teachers to actively participate in inquiry, research and reflective engagement in learning – components we have identified as crucial for professional learning in ITE and induction. In particular, CPD initiatives should provide opportunities for teachers to interactively examine practice in new ways and to share practice expertise and dilemmas with peers in a community of learners.*

*36. The considerable expertise of teachers and teacher educators should be acknowledged and actively built upon and co-ordinated across various ITE and induction-related CPD initiatives across the continuum.*

*37. We recommend that the Teaching Council, in collaboration with the DES and statutory bodies, promote funded programmatic research on the continuum of teacher education at institutional and cross-institutional levels with a view to publishing the reports of such research.*

### **0.3 Conclusion**

Every year approximately 3,000 new teachers graduate from teacher education programmes in Ireland. The challenges facing today's teachers during their first year of teaching have changed dramatically from those encountered by graduates in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Similarly, the challenges facing today's teacher educators, as they welcome student teachers and newly qualified teachers into schools and higher education each school year, have changed over time. Each generation has an opportunity to provide the vision and resources for renewing teacher education in light of ambitious social, economic and educational aspirations to meet perceived societal and education challenges (as occurred in the late 1960s and early 1970s). Despite the publication of two key reviews of initial teacher education a number of years ago, there is considerable scope for further reform of teacher education. However, significant changes have occurred to teacher education course provision and content over recent decades. In this report, we have stressed the need for, and investment in, greater system and programme coherence, assisted practice, knowledge integration, critical reflective practice, inquiry and the development of vibrant partnerships between higher education institutions and schools as the basis for teacher education reform across the continuum.



## Teacher Education: Glossary and Acronyms

### Acronyms

- ASTs:** Advanced Skills Teachers (England)
- ATEE:** Association of Teacher Educators of Europe
- BEST:** Beginning Educator Support and Training Program (Connecticut)
- BTSA:** Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (*California*)
- CEAC:** Colleges of Education Accrediting Committee (New Zealand)
- CERC:** Colleges of Education Research Consortium
- CPD:** Continuing Professional Development (formerly in-service)
- CUAP:** Committee on University Academic Programmes (New Zealand)
- DE:** Development Education
- DENI:** Department of Education, Northern Ireland
- DES:** Department of Education and Science (Ireland)
- DfES:** Department for Education and Skills (England), recently renamed as  
Department for Children, Schools and Families
- EBTT:** Employment-Based Teacher Training (England)
- EPD:** Early Professional Development phase (years 2 and 3 of teaching, Northern Ireland)
- EPMS:** Enhanced Performance Management System (Singapore)
- ERO:** Education Review Office (New Zealand)
- ESAI:** Educational Studies Association of Ireland
- ESD:** Education for Sustainable Development
- ETS:** Education Testing Services (USA)
- FETAC:** Further Education and Training Awards Council (Ireland)
- GESL:** Group Endeavours in Service Learning (Singapore)
- GTCE:** General Teaching Council for England
- GTCNI:** General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland
- GTCS:** General Teaching Council for Scotland
- GTP:** (England) Graduate Teacher Programme: an employment-based route into teaching, leading to QTS after one year.
- GTS:** Graduating Teacher Standards (New Zealand)
- HEI:** Higher Education Institution
- HETAC:** Higher Education and Training Awards Council (Ireland)
- HMIE:** Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education (Scotland)
- IEA:** International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
- INCA:** International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks Internet Archive
- INTASC:** Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (USA)
- INTO:** Irish National Teachers' Organisation
- IRE:** sequence of classroom interaction: teacher **I**nitiation, student **R**esponse and teacher **E**valuation (Cazden, 2001).
- ITE:** Initial Teacher Education (term used in Scotland, Ireland, Northern Ireland, New Zealand)
- ITPQ:** Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics Quality (New Zealand) NZCF
- ITT:** Initial Teacher Training (term used in England and Wales)
- LDS:** Leadership Development for Schools
- LEP:** Limited English Proficiency



**MCDS:** Ministry of Community Development and Sports (Singapore)  
**MOE:** Ministry of Education ((New Zealand; Singapore)  
**NAEYC:** National Association for the Education of Young Children (USA)  
**NASDTEC:** National Association of State Directors of Teachers Education and Certification (USA)  
**NBPTS:** National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (USA)  
**NCATE:** National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (USA)  
**NCLB** *No Child Left Behind*, federal education act, USA, 2002  
**NCTE:** National Centre for Technology in Education  
**NI:** Northern Ireland  
**NIE:** National Institute of Education (Singapore)  
**NPPTI:** National Pilot Project on Teacher Induction  
**NQAI:** National Qualifications Authority of Ireland  
**NQT:** Newly qualified teacher  
**NUI:** National University of Ireland (i.e. NUI, Galway)  
**NZ:** New Zealand  
**NZCF:** New Zealand Curriculum Framework  
**NZQA:** New Zealand Qualifications Authority  
**NZTC:** New Zealand Teachers Council  
**OECD:** Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development  
**OfSTED:** Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills (England)  
**OFMDFM:** Office of the First Minister and the Deputy First Minister (Northern Ireland)  
**PCSP:** Primary Curriculum Support Service  
**PDE:** Post Graduate Diploma in Education (Ireland)  
**PGCE:** Post Graduate Certificate of Education (England, Northern Ireland, Wales)  
**PGDE:** Professional Graduate Diploma of Education (Scotland); Postgraduate Diploma in Education (Singapore; Ireland)  
**PISA:** Programme for International Student Assessment, co-ordinated by OECD  
**PPDS:** Primary Professional Development Service  
**PQAC:** Pre-school Qualification Accreditation Committee (Singapore)  
**PSLE:** Primary School Leaving Examination (Singapore)  
**QAA:** Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland)  
**QAB:** Quality Assurance Body (New Zealand)  
**QTS:** Qualified Teacher Status  
**RCSP:** Regional Curriculum Support Programme  
**RPL:** Recognition of Prior Learning (New Zealand)  
**SCoTENS:** Standing Conference on Teacher Education North and South (Ireland)  
**SESS:** Special Education Support Service  
**SLSS:** Second Level Support Service  
**SEED:** Scottish Executive Education Department  
**SEN:** Special Educational Needs  
**SES:** Socio-economic status  
**SPD:** St. Patrick’s College, Drumcondra  
**TDA:** Training and Development Agency for Schools (formerly TTA) (England)  
**TEFANZ:** Teacher Education Forum of Aotearoa, New Zealand  
**TES:** Teacher education section (Department of Education and Science, Ireland)  
**TIMSS:** Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study  
**TQ:** Teaching qualification

**TSLN:** Thinking Schools Learning Nation (Singapore)

**UCC:** University College Cork

**UCD:** University College Dublin

**UCLA:** University of California, Los Angeles

**UL:** University of Limerick

**VAM:** Value-Added Models

**VEC:** Vocational Education Committee

## Glossary

- Accreditation:** ‘An accreditation is the establishment of the status, legitimacy or appropriateness of an institution, programme or module of study. It is the result of an assessment of whether a tertiary education institution, programme or module of study meets a threshold standard and qualifies for a certain status’ (OECD, 2008, p. 265). Professional accreditation is ‘an endorsement by an independent external agency that a professional preparation course is adequate for the purpose of a particular profession; that the course is able to produce graduates who meet standards for entry to the profession and are competent to begin practice’ (Ingvarson et al., 2006, p. 1).
- Competences:** Statements of the attributes, skills and knowledge that teachers as professionals should possess and exemplify. The General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland (GTCNI) has set out 27 competence statements, under three broad headings: *Professional Values and Practice*, *Professional Knowledge and Understanding*, and *Professional Skills and Application*, predicated on the notion that the achievement of competence is a developmental process that continues throughout a teacher’s career (GTCNI, 2007). Competencies is the term used in some jurisdictions (e.g. New Zealand) and by some researchers. We use the term competences in this report. See also **Standards**.
- Concurrent ITE:** Courses such as the B.Ed. in Ireland where students study an academic subject or subjects at the same time as gaining a teaching qualification.
- Consecutive ITE:** Teaching qualification (post-graduate certificate, diploma, or degree) such as the PGDE or PGCE (see above) where students take a course in pedagogy subsequent to an initial qualification in a teaching subject or subject.
- Conjoint degrees:** Undergraduate courses where students gain a dual teaching and subject degree, e.g. the 4 year B.A./B.Teach. or B.Sc./B.Teach. courses in New Zealand.
- Employment Based Initial Teacher Training (EBITT):** In England, teacher training undertaken while working in a school, generally offered to mature students already possessing another qualification.
- Initial Teacher Education (ITE) or Pre-service Teacher Education:** Courses that lead to a basic qualification in teaching.
- Induction:** The first year or years of teaching.
- INTASC:** Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (USA) is a consortium of state education agencies and national educational organisations dedicated to the reform of the preparation, licensing, and ongoing professional development of teachers.
- Learning Outcomes:** Statements of what the learner should know, do, or understand and be able to demonstrate following a period of study.
- Licensure/certification:** In the United States, 49 states certify or license teachers based on state-approved teacher standards. These may include passing state tests (e.g. in Texas) as well as subject and teaching qualifications. Licensure/certification is generally specific to an area of education, e.g. early childhood or middle childhood, or a specific subject, e.g. maths.
- Mentor:** A school-based trainer who is responsible for a trainee teacher or NQT’s day-to-day guidance and training during a school placement or during a period of

induction or probation. Several countries in our study have structured mentoring programmes of this nature.

**NQT:** Newly qualified teacher

**PISA:** Programme for International Student Assessment is a triennial world-wide test of 15-year-old schoolchildren's scholastic performance, co-ordinated by the OECD

**Practicum:** School-based work experience during an ITE/ITT course

**Probation:** Newly qualified teachers (NQTs) may have to satisfactorily complete a period of probation, during which they teach in a school with or without the support of a mentor. See also **Registration and Induction**

**Programmatic Review of Teacher Education:** A review of the objectives, standards, contents, etc. of a teacher education programme.

**QTS: Qualified teacher status,** also known as 'eligibility to teach'. Student teachers must meet a set of standards and requirements before they begin to teach in several countries.

**Qualified Teacher Standards:** Sets of standards that student teachers must meet in order to begin to teach. In New Zealand these are called *Graduating Teacher Standards*, in England *Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status*, and in Scotland *Standards for Initial Teacher Education*. In Northern Ireland, students must show that they are developing appropriate *Professional Competences*.

**Registration:** Teaching Councils generally maintain a register of qualified teachers. Regulations vary among countries on whether registration is compulsory or voluntary. In some cases, registration is a mandatory condition of employment as a teacher. Some countries offer **provisional registration:** to students on ITT courses in England from 1 Sept 2008; to newly qualified teachers until they have satisfactorily completed a period of induction, in NZ and elsewhere.

**School Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT):** In England, a school centred route into teaching, with no higher education institute involvement.

**Teaching Council/Teacher Council:** Professional body that regulates the teaching profession. Generally has a statutory duty to determine who may become a member of the teaching profession. May also oversee/regulate ITE/ITT.

**Value-Added Models:** Model that attempts to measure the contribution of teachers and schools to students' progress. Value-added assessment measures the difference between a student's projected score – which is based on past performance – and his or her actual score (McCaffrey et al., 2003).

## Chapter One: Quality Teaching and the Continuum of Teacher Education

### 1.0 Introduction: Educational reforms and a new teacher professionalism

*Ensuring high quality teacher education is a first and critical step in delivering high quality teaching in schools, particularly in a time when the role of teachers is becoming increasingly complex and demanding.*

***Top of the Class: Report on the Inquiry into Teacher Education, House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training, Australia, 2007, p. xxi***

*Nowhere is the absence of a seamless continuum in teacher education more evident than in the early years of teaching. At the same time, no point in the continuum has more potential to bring the worlds of the school and the academy into a true symbiotic partnership than the induction phase.*

***Howey and Zimpher, 1999, p. 297***

*It is now generally recognised that the training of all categories of teachers cannot be regarded as concluded at the end of the normal training period. Refresher courses for teachers... have been organised in recent years. The organisation and provision of such courses are a matter for administrative action and do not require specific recommendation from us. We would urge, however, that refresher courses must be regarded as an essential feature of the general provision for teacher-training.*

***Report of the Commission on Higher Education: 1960–1967, Ireland, 1967, p. 235***

The quotation from the 1967 *Report of the Commission on Higher Education* illustrates that the very notion of the continuum of teacher education – its importance, its integration and its complexity – is in many respects a new feature on the educational policy landscape. Moreover, while the report highlighted the importance of, and need, after ‘the normal training period’, for ‘refresher courses for teachers’, it did not anticipate the more far-reaching assumptions about lifelong learning underpinning contemporary understandings of teacher education in and for the knowledge society.

As regards its importance, attracting, retaining and developing teachers across the professional life-cycle has become a policy priority in many countries, as evidenced by the OECD’s 2005 report *Teachers Matter*.

In relation to integration, over the last fifteen years in particular the manner in which the first few years of teaching – that is, the initial and induction phases of the ‘3 Is’ continuum (initial, induction and in-service) – relate both to each other and to the much longer in-service phase of the teaching life-cycle has become the focus of research which has provided the impetus for rethinking the roles and relationships of schools, higher education institutions, and personnel involved in teacher education. For example, in the Irish context, it was the 1991 OECD review of education in Ireland that catapulted the 3 Is into discussions about enhancing teacher education policy.

On the matter of complexity, a range of factors presents new challenges for teacher education. Among these are the expansion of the role of teachers, higher learning expectations for an increasingly diverse student body in primary and post-primary schools, as well as new understandings and conceptualisations of learning, knowledge, curriculum and assessment. All these have led to the emergence of, and need for, a new extended professionalism among teachers and educators of teachers.

The heightened expectations of teachers have led to an unprecedented political, professional and research interest in the theory and practice of teacher education worldwide. This is evident in the number of reviews in various countries and cross-national studies of teaching and teacher education in the last few years, including OECD’s *Teachers Matter*, 2005; McKinsey Report *How the World’s Best Performing School Systems Come Out on Top*, Barber & Mourshed, 2007; World Bank’s *Learning to Teach in the Knowledge Society*, Moreno, 2005; UNESCO’s *Education for All: The Quality Imperative*, 2005. In their different ways all these reports highlight the fact that the ‘quality imperative’ requires a fresh look at various aspects of teacher education. All of them also highlight the need for and emergence of a new extended teacher professionalism characterised, we argue, by greater collegiality than typical in the past, by the increasing complexity of professional practice, by the challenges of teaching a more diverse student body to higher levels of academic attainment and by the challenges of equality and inclusion. As such, the contemporary policy interest in the continuum of teacher education is based on an assumption that ‘the formulation of policy and the design of teacher preparation and continuing professional development optimally takes into account the whole spectrum of teacher learning, that is, teachers’

opportunities to learn from their own prior schooling and throughout their own teaching careers' (Schwille & Dembélé, 2007, p. 29).

However, policy initiatives flowing directly from calls for a new, extended, higher quality teacher professionalism may be problematic, widespread evidence of which has been seen around the world, especially over the last decade. For example, the standardisation-focused globally dominant approach to educational reform (see Table 1.1) has manifested itself in changing patterns of teachers' work, including job intensification, decreasing resources, heightened surveillance and high-stakes testing of teachers and students, with damaging effects on the morale and learning of students, teachers, and communities, and consequently the role of education in promoting prosperous, just and equitable societies (Ball, 2001; Sachs, 2001; Dembélé & Schwille, 2006; Hargreaves, 2003; Sachs, 2003; Hargreaves, 2008).

**Table 1.1 Comparing education reform trends: Global and Finnish**

<b>Global education reform trends</b>	<b>Education reform in Finland</b>
<p><b>Standardisation</b> Setting clear, high and centrally prescribed performance standards for schools, teachers and students to improve the quality of outcomes.</p>	<p><b>Flexibility and loose standards</b> Building on existing good practices and innovations in school-based curriculum development, setting of learning targets and networking through steering by information and support.</p>
<p><b>Focus on literacy and numeracy</b> Basic knowledge and skills in reading, writing, mathematics and natural sciences as prime targets of education reform.</p>	<p><b>Broad learning combined with creativity</b> Teaching and learning focus on deep and broad learning giving equal value to all aspects of an individual's growth in terms of personality, morality, creativity, knowledge and skills.</p>
<p><b>Consequential accountability</b> The school performance and the raising of student achievement are closely tied to the processes of promotion, inspection and ultimately rewarding or punishing schools and teachers based on accountability measures, especially standardised testing as the main criteria of success.</p>	<p><b>Intelligent accountability with trust-based professionalism</b> Adoption of intelligent accountability policies and gradual building of a culture of trust within the education system that values teachers' and headmasters' professionalism in judging what is best for students and in reporting their learning progress.</p>

SOURCE: Sahlberg, 2007

In other settings, the changing professional context of teachers' work has encompassed a deepening of professional knowledge, an increased scope for professional judgement, and richer, more cohesive and generative relationships with students, colleagues and the wider community (Hargreaves, 2008; Sahlberg, 2007). Finland, for example, has

pursued an educational reform agenda over the last four decades centred on trust in teachers, vision and support for collegial professionalism, high quality teacher education and limited use of high stakes testing, i.e. only at the end of post-primary education (Sahlberg, 2007). As such, its reform agenda has run counter to the global education reform agenda (see Table 1.1) focused on standardisation and high-stakes testing for teachers, students and in some instances teacher education programmes.

One of the central contradictions of the global emphasis on standardisation and high-stakes testing is that, despite a rhetoric emphasising the importance of standards, it actually undermines its own key goal of enhancing educational standards (Sachs, 2008). For example, Hargreaves (2008) has argued that intrusive, invasive and imposed school restructuring, as a response to failing schools, may prompt initial improvement to occur but long-term growth and renewal may not follow. Why? Because the leadership qualities needed to turn around a school and bring about initial improvement may not be those that are essential for long-term capacity building.

Hargreaves (2003) makes a strong case that teachers in a knowledge society need opportunities to become knowledgeable, inquiry-oriented professionals attentive to problems of practice and resourceful in identifying means of gathering appropriate evidence in order to foster a culture of knowledge-generation and sharing in schools.

Two questions are central to this report: (i) *What is quality teaching?* and (ii) *What is quality teacher education?* Both are important in themselves, but the conceptual and practical links between them are equally important in articulating a vision of quality teaching and a teacher education reform agenda. For example, in the Irish context over the last decade, the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment-led rolling review of curriculum and assessment at primary and post-primary levels has had significant implications for redefining what counts as quality teaching in both sectors, as well as having significant implications for teacher education right across the continuum.

### **1.1 Purpose and context: ‘Learning to teach’ research review**

The Teaching Council is the professional body for teaching in Ireland. The Council was established on a statutory basis in March 2006 to promote teaching as a profession at primary and post-primary levels, to promote the professional development of teachers



and to regulate standards in the profession. As current legislation and regulations empower the Teaching Council<sup>4</sup> to address initial teacher education and induction, this report was commissioned by the Teaching Council to inform debate and strategic planning on the continuum of teacher education with a specific focus on initial teacher education and induction and their interface with the continuum. The Teaching Council's Code of Professional Conduct for Teachers (published in March 2007) provides an important context for this report.

One of the key functions of the Teaching Council is the registration of teachers. This is probably the most immediate and obvious role across the system since it commenced operating in March 2006. However, it also has a wide range of other key functions (Drudy, 2006) as it is empowered by the Teaching Council Act, 2001 to:

- review and accredit the programmes of teacher education and training provided by institutions of higher education and training in the State
- review the standards of education and training appropriate to a person entering a programme of teacher education and training
- review the standards of knowledge, skill and competence required for the practice of teaching.

Recognising that this research study is part of a longer-term Teaching Council strategic plan over the next two years, which includes development of the policy paper on the continuum of teacher education and a review of initial teacher education, the focus of this report is the development of a document that will *inform* discussions. The research gives priority to learning to teach – that is initial teacher education (ITE) and induction – and their interface with and implications for the continuum of teacher education. This focus informed the review of literature and simultaneous appraisal of relevant teacher education models, practices and reviews in nine selected countries. The focus on ITE addresses the linkages and coherence between ITE and induction and probation in

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<sup>4</sup> The Teaching Council Act (2001) and the Teaching Council (Amendment) Act (2006) provide a legislative framework for the Teaching Council. Specifically, the Act stipulates that the Teaching Council is empowered and designed to 'promote teaching as a profession; to promote the professional development of teachers; to maintain and improve the quality of teaching in the state; to provide for the establishment of standards, policies and procedures for the education and training of teachers... to provide for the registration and regulation of teachers and to enhance professional standards and competence...' (The Teaching Council Act, 2001). [www.teachingcouncil.ie](http://www.teachingcouncil.ie)

particular, but also attends to the implications for the full continuum of teacher education. In developing a framework for ITE, we are addressing issues such as: (i) the social and educational missions of schooling in contemporary society; (ii) the ideological and cultural contexts of teacher education; (iii) the implications of the knowledge society for teaching and teacher education; (iv) the conditions for optimal teacher education; and (v) the strengths, weaknesses and gaps in research on teacher education in Ireland.

Mindful of both the emerging consensus in relation to the characteristics of quality teacher education and the diverse institutional arrangements within which teacher education is enacted both in schools and third-level institutions, we have sought, in undertaking this research, to:

- Locate teacher education in its socio-cultural contexts including the political, cultural, economic, emotional and moral dimensions
- Focus on the scope and significance of teacher education and its contribution to student learning and development as well as its actual and potential contribution to local communities and wider society
- Address the contested nature of the knowledge claims made about teacher education through attention to the conceptual, empirical and ethical assumptions underpinning so called ‘evidence-based’ findings about teaching and teacher education
- Recognise the role of the teacher as key in a knowledge-based society in all domains and disciplines, with a key focus on higher-order competences (including knowledge, skills and dispositions)
- Focus on sustainable models of initial teacher education and induction that support the development of teachers across the continuum of teacher education
- Locate our analysis of teacher education in Ireland in the context of recent reviews (Byrne Report, 2002; Kellaghan Report, 2002), policy reports (Coolahan, 2003) and the considerable recent scholarship on teacher education in Ireland (e.g. the work of SCoTENS over the last five years spanning primary and post-primary sectors north and south in Ireland; Colleges of Education Research Consortium (CERC); and articles in the main education research journals, *Irish Educational Studies*, *Oideas*, and the *Irish Journal of Education*).

The recognition that challenges and opportunities face teacher education in the context of globalisation and the emergence of knowledge societies is framing how we review, appraise and discuss contemporary directions in teacher education. In order that the report will assist the Teaching Council in the development of its policy paper on the continuum of teacher education, we focus on the quality of students' learning in schools *and* teachers' professional learning as the basis for selecting relevant teacher education literature. We recognise that different types and degrees of evidence are available in relation to the continuum of teacher education in this regard. For example, as the quality of evidence underpinning claims about what counts as 'best practice' for teaching and teacher education is contested, we look closely at what counts as worthwhile knowledge to guide the teaching profession. We also recognise and take into account how different ideologies have informed debates about desirable trajectories for teacher education in different countries. Nevertheless, there is a scholarly consensus emerging about the most appropriate policies and practices to support sustainable teacher education.

### **1.1.1 Report overview**

This report adopts a broad, balanced and comprehensive understanding of the role(s) of the teacher and we view this as a prerequisite in mapping a vision for the continuum of teacher education. The focus of this report is on the initial and induction phases of a teaching career. We also address the role of professional standards/ learning outcomes and accreditation of both ITE and induction in ensuring that beginning teachers, the wider teaching profession, and society as a whole are all well prepared for the challenges and opportunities of teaching and learning, as well as living and working, in the knowledge society. In addressing these issues, we are keenly aware of the powerful influence of the wider socio-political and public policy contexts. Our review draws from the extensive literature on teaching, learning and teacher education, and is illustrative rather than comprehensive. Comprehensive reviews of research are provided in recent edited volumes such as *The Handbook of Research on Teaching* (Richardson, 2001), *The Cambridge Handbook of the Learning Sciences* (Sawyer, 2006), *Studying Teacher Education: Report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education* (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005) and *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World* (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Thus we focus on key studies to highlight key dimensions of the continuum of teacher education. The report is organised into four chapters.

Chapter One provides a framework to conceptualise the continuum of teacher education. This five-part framework focuses on: teachers' roles; quality teaching; the professional life-cycle; teacher learning; and professional relationships. The inter-related nature of these five dimensions of teaching and teacher education is evident in that re-conceptualising one has implications for each of the other dimensions.

Chapter Two provides an overview of the four key strands of teacher education covered by our research (initial teacher education, induction, learning outcomes and accreditation) in the nine elected countries. Appendix One, the associated appendix to this chapter, provides the policy and ideological contexts as well as the structures and cultures of teaching and teacher education in the nine countries that formed the basis of our cross-national policy analysis.

Chapter Three reviews relevant literature on: initial teacher education, induction, learning outcomes/professional standards and review and accreditation of teacher education. In reviewing the relevant literature, this chapter provides the basis for the recommendations that are presented in Chapter Four.

Chapter Four draws together the findings emerging from the cross-national review in terms of the contemporary context of teacher education in Ireland and identifies key challenges and possible lines of policy development. The study contains an Executive Summary, which identifies key findings emerging from the analysis and recommendations for the Teaching Council.

## ***1.2. Five Dimensions of Teaching***

In the rest of this chapter, we address one key question in outlining a framework on the continuum of teacher education:

- ***What are the core practices of learning to teach?***

This question is adapted from Feiman-Nemser (2001) as the basis for considering how best to understand and strengthen the continuum of teacher education. We divide the continuum into five areas: (i) teachers' practice; (ii) quality teaching; (iii) professional

life-cycle; (iv) teacher learning; and (v) professional relationships. Taken together, they provide an overarching framework and crystallise important insights about the nature, scope and complexity of teaching right across the continuum of teacher education.

In the Irish context, for example, changing expectations about teaching, learning and assessment have meant that teachers are expected to adopt a more interactive relationship with students, teachers, parents and other professionals/agencies involved in schooling. Furthermore, in the classroom subject teachers now often work alongside special needs assistants and learning support teachers, which they did not do in the past. Outside of the classroom, teachers also now liaise with a range of other staff in school about school development planning, whole school evaluations and provision for students with special education needs, among other areas. In sum, professional practice is increasingly characterised by *collegial rather than autonomous professionalism* in an emerging knowledge society, which has significant implications for how best to prepare teachers (Hargreaves, 2003).

**Table 1.2 Dimensions of the continuum of teacher education**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Key features</b>	<b>Examples in Irish context</b>
<i>Teachers' practice</i>	Teachers' work is <b>multi-dimensional</b> and <b>complex</b> with teacher as: (i) instructional manager (ii) caring person (iii) generous expert learner (iv) cultural and civic person	Moves toward collegial professionalism and the expanding nature of teachers' practice.  Differing emphases between sectors (primary, post-primary) in terms of importance of these aspects of role identity for teachers, e.g. primary teachers or teachers of SPHE might identify most closely with teacher as caring person.
<i>Quality, good and successful teaching</i>	There are <b>different visions</b> of what counts as worthwhile teaching. The conflation of successful teaching, i.e. what adds value to student learning, with quality teaching is a feature of current policy internationally.	References to value-added models, i.e. value-added models-based understanding of teacher quality, in OECD's <i>Teachers Matter</i> .  Two recent DES studies ( <i>Learning to Teach</i> , 2006; <i>Beginning to Teach</i> , 2007) evaluating the quality of final year B.Ed. students and probationary primary teachers.
<i>Teacher development in context</i>	There are <b>patterns</b> in teacher development but <b>context</b> is highly influential in shaping teacher development across the continuum.	Consideration of new pathways in teaching career, e.g. new promotion routes, secondments, career breaks.
<i>Relationships and partnerships</i>	There is an increasing expectation that teachers <b>work more interactively</b> with students, colleagues, parents and other professionals.	More interactive approaches to teaching and learning by the DES and NCCA. Advent of School Development Planning, new colleagues in the classroom (SNAs, etc.). Renewed emphasis on communicating with parents about students' learning. Working with other professionals (e.g. educational psychologists, cuiditheoirí, etc.)
<i>Learning and learning to teach</i>	The move toward more <b>social view of learning</b> has implications for how teachers teach and how they learn to teach.	Increasing emphasis on collegial professionalism, whole school and networked school collaboration, either face-to-face or supported by new learning technologies.

### 1.2.1 Teachers' practice: Multi-dimensional, ethical and challenging

In this section, we focus on the four dimensions of teachers' practice: teacher as instructional manager, as caring and moral person, as generous expert learner and as cultural and civic being. Taken together, these four dimensions provide insight into the multi-faceted and complex nature of teaching and, by implication, of learning to teach, and the demands of designing quality teacher education. These four dimensions highlight the multiple goals teachers and schools are charged with by society as they play a central role in creating the next generation. Seifert (1999) outlines three images that capture the central roles of teaching: teacher as instructional manager, teacher as caring person and teacher as generous expert. In our research, we have adopted this framework, albeit with some adaptation, and we have added one further dimension, that is, teacher as cultural and civic being. Collectively, these four dimensions of teachers' professional practice crystallise the nature of teachers' role in fulfilling the social and educational mission of schooling in a democratic society.

#### 1.2.1.1 Teacher as instructional manager

The notion of teacher as instructional manager is possibly the most appealing and is the aspect of teachers' roles and practice that is given most attention in policy documents as it aligns most closely with efforts to improve student achievement. For example, much of the research on teacher effectiveness, as Fenstermacher and Soltis (2004) note, concentrates on this aspect of teaching (see also Brophy & Good, 1986; Anderson, 2001). A focus on teacher as instructional manager highlights important aspects of teachers' work, including:

- **Proactive Stance:** Teachers' essential proactive role in classroom management and the role of rules, routines, relationships and regulation of learning.
- **Classrooms as Social Places:** The way in which teachers organise and manage the group- and individual-oriented aspects of classroom teaching.
- **Patterned Nature of Classroom Interaction:** The ways in which teachers and students interact in predictable ways involving teacher questions or Initiation, student Responses and teacher Evaluation, (the IRE sequence: Cazden, 2001), as the dominant classroom interaction pattern.
- **Uncertainty:** Teachers' actions in structuring lessons and the sometimes unintended consequences of these actions.

First, for example, in relation to the role of the teacher in fostering a positive classroom learning environment, one of the key insights from teacher effectiveness studies was that good classroom managers were not those teachers who responded well to student misbehaviour. Rather they were teachers who proactively sought to foster a positive classroom learning environment from the beginning of each year, week, day and lesson (Evertson, 1997). They typically did so by proactively focusing on communicating and negotiating key classroom *rules*, developing clear and well understood behavioural *routines* (e.g. distributing and collecting copies, entering and leaving the classroom, what to do when work is complete, etc.) and fostering *relationships* with and between students. More recent research has investigated how teachers manage classroom teaching in terms of how they *regulate learning* and foster or inhibit students' capacity to become more self-regulating or take on greater responsibility as learners (Tillema & Kremer Hayon, 2002; Brophy, 1999; Marcos & Sánchez, 2008). In the Netherlands, for example, policy has focused on the enhancement of student teachers' capacity for self-regulated learning (Tillema & Kremer Hayon, 2002).

Second, the manner in which teachers address the fact that teaching involves working with groups of students rather than solely involving one-to-one tutoring has important intellectual and moral implications for students and the overall impact of schooling (Ball & Wilson, 1996). This demands the development of a range of strategies which typically don't come naturally, but have to be learned by observation, practise and reflection over a number of years before they become a fluent part of teachers' practice. For example, Kounin's (1970) classic study identified a set of strategies widely employed by effective teachers. He labelled these strategies as: with-it-ness, lesson momentum, group alerting, overlapping, and movement management. The practice of especially effective teachers was characterised by skill in all five strategies.

Third, teachers' classroom teaching at all levels is typified by one dominant pattern of teacher–student interaction, which has become known as the IRE sequence; that is, teacher **I**nitiation, student **R**esponse and teacher **E**valuation (Cazden, 2001). The results of this dominant interaction pattern are not always desirable in that it can lead to unintended consequences, such as students finding it difficult to participate in other forms of classroom interaction such as student-to-student discussion, as they become



over-reliant on teacher approval and feedback. As a result, even when teachers attempt to foster more student-to-student dialogue or refrain from the evaluation phase in the IRE sequence, students may seek out their teacher's evaluation, thereby short-circuiting efforts to change classroom interaction patterns as a precursor to deeper levels of learning. The fact that these interaction patterns occur at a very fast pace, often imperceptibly and in tandem with many other classroom activities, means that changing classroom interaction practice is often very challenging for both students *and* teachers (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Oakes & Lipton, 1999).

Fourth, the unintended consequences of how teachers plan, structure and respond in habitual ways is exemplified well in a very informative study undertaken by Edwards and Mercer (1987) in which they examined how students reacted to and made sense of teachers' language strategies. So, for example, in an effort to foster student thinking, teachers encouraged students to come up with answers spontaneously rather than through teacher prompting via leading questions. That is, they would phrase a question as 'What are some things that make a pendulum swing slower or faster?' rather than 'Does a shorter pendulum swing faster?' or withhold answers rather than provide them to students. How did students react? Edwards and Mercer found these strategies frequently worked. But they also found they backfired, in that students often become adept at discerning teachers' gestures, changes in tone of voice and pattern of questions, rather than thinking for themselves and came to see their task as trying to guess what the 'secretive' teacher knows. In doing so, the outcome of learning moved away from *principled knowing* and moved toward what Edwards and Mercer called *ritual knowledge* that was more about classroom tactics and surface-focused engagement with lesson content rather than a deeper and flexible understanding of the subject matter.

#### **1.2.1.2 Teacher as caring and moral person**

*Our society does not need to make its children first in the world in mathematics and science. It needs to care for its children – to reduce violence, to respect honest work of every kind, to reward excellence at every level, to ensure a place for every child and emerging adult in the economic and social world, to produce people who can care competently for their own families and contribute effectively to their communities... our main educational aim should be to encourage the growth of competent, caring, loving, and lovable people. This is a morally defensible aim for education in the 21st century.*

**Noddings, 1997**

The teacher as caring and moral person draws attention to the way in which the practical decisions of policy makers at system level, as well as teachers in the classroom and school, have moral impact and meaning. The notion of the teacher as caring and moral person does not refer only to the pastoral care dimension of teachers' work. Why? Because decisions about curriculum content, assessment, teaching methods, inclusion/exclusion, classroom organisation, relations with parents and discipline all involve decisions that have academic but also moral meaning and impact (Hansen, 2001). For example, the decision to stratify children according to one criterion rather than another (e.g. by ability, be it low, high or mixed; or the gender and ethnic composition of groups) sends important messages to children about their sense of themselves as learners, and this does have a long-term impact on their overall sense of self-worth, sense of place in the social world and image of themselves as learners, but also more broadly their images of what is possible and preferable in human social communities (Oakes & Lipton, 1999). Similarly, in choosing to provide feedback to learners in a manner that may be different for different students in order to be fair overall to the students, the teacher, by the very fact of deciding that treating children differently in order to treat them fairly, is making decisions on a moral basis. As Noddings (2001) notes '...a teacher might be tough with one student and gentle, almost permissive, with another in roughly similar situations and, in both cases, rightly be called caring' (p. 99). Teaching is inevitably and appropriately bound up with the moral as teachers are charged with playing a highly significant role in preparing the next generation. As such, each society's aspirations about the good life and the ideal human society are interwoven with teachers' daily practice as they slowly but inevitably create societal microcosms, in every classroom, through the formal and hidden curricula of classroom life.

In this regard, a long list of philosophers such as Socrates, Confucius, Dewey, Noddings and Hansen, among others, have seen links between the intellectual and moral aspects of teaching. For example, Dewey, as a forceful exponent of the necessary links between the moral and the intellectual, exhorted teachers to adopt an inquiry stance toward their practice for this very reason. Dewey's (1933/1993) notion of reflection encompasses the capacity to be whole-hearted, direct, open-minded, responsible in teaching. This conception of inquiry-based care conveys the notion that caring is not merely a

momentary attitude or feeling exhibited by the teacher, but rather a way of relating or of being with students and colleagues (Noddings, 1999). For example, Vivian Paley's ten books (e.g. *You Can't Say You Can't Play*; *Boys and Girls: Superheroes in the Doll Corner*; *White Teacher*), based on her 37 years as a pre-school teacher in Chicago, meticulously document how she took the stories that children told and then wove these into her daily teaching and longer-term curriculum planning, in order to promote fairness and justice in her classroom. The manner in which she understood the nature of the fusion between the moral and the intellectual meant that children's stories, for her as a teacher, had not only academic worth but also moral import. In sum, the effort to embody caring as a teacher involves a 'drive toward competence' (Noddings, p. 101) as the teacher strives to develop in ways that can enhance students' experiences in the classroom and school in light of legislation (e.g. Equal Status Acts, 2000–2008) and the values and aspirations associated with democracy, equality and justice.

### **1.2.1.3 Teacher as generous expert learner**

The notion of the teacher as generous expert learner fits easily with the image of the teacher as a person who knows more than students do, as well as how they think about situations. But this dimension of the teacher's practice also highlights how teachers share their expertise as knowers and thinkers. In this sense, the teacher's job is to make themselves unemployed through the ways in which they can share their knowledge and thinking with students. In the context of the knowledge society's emphasis on the promotion of problem solving and higher-order thinking, the focus on thinking, in addition to knowing, is an important and especially valuable feature of the teacher as generous expert learner. For example, the teacher not only knows particular scientific concepts (e.g. photosynthesis) but can also convey how scientists use these concepts as habits of mind and ways of engaging with the world in a scientific sense. To take another example, the teacher not only knows the qualities of a good piece of writing but can help students think through the steps in composing text. Teachers have a critical role to play in modelling good writing, reading and problem solving in other subject areas, thinking aloud as a means of modelling the processes used by expert writers and readers (see Englert & Mariage, 2006, re. cognitive strategies in writing; Palinscar & Brown, 1984 and Brown et al., 1993, re. reciprocal teaching to promote reading comprehension; also Bransford et al., 2005; Collins, 2006 re. strategy teaching across subject areas). In the light of situated understandings of knowledge, the capacity of

teachers to model expert thinking and problem solving *within* different subject areas is now being recognised as an increasingly important skill, given the emphasis on promoting problem solving in contemporary curricula at both primary and post-primary levels. Apprenticing students in subject-specific, higher-order thinking is especially important for those struggling to learn in various subject areas (Englert & Mariage, 2006; Brophy, 1999; Collins, 2006).

#### **1.2.1.4 Teacher as cultural and civic person**

Societies have long valued the teacher's role in cultivating loyalty to and understanding of local, regional and national cultures. This has been evident in Europe over the last forty years in that sovereign nation states decided to leave issues of primary and post-primary teacher education within the almost exclusive remit of each country (Husen, Tuijnman & Halls 1992; Phillips & Ertl, 2003). It is only in recent years with a move toward an open (i.e. non-mandatory) co-ordination that countries have collaborated more closely in this area fraught with national sensitivities about culture and identity.

Especially in a time characterised by global flows of culture, what Bauman calls 'liquid modernity'<sup>5</sup> (2000), the cultural, civic and political role of teachers in creating the society of the future through their mediation of knowledge and influence on learner identities has implications for teacher education across the continuum (Singh & Doherty, 2007). This global flow of ideas and people is leading to new forms of cultural identity and diversity and is a significant pedagogical and political challenge for education systems around the world – including Ireland's.

Of the core issues for teacher education three are critical: self-understanding by teachers, teachers' capacity to challenge misconceptions about cultural-ethnic groups, and the role of the teacher in the new accommodation between cultural and civic nationalisms.

Firstly, in terms of identity and culture, teachers need to have the capacity to understand where they come from and what they bring to their classroom teaching and life in

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<sup>5</sup> Bauman explores how contemporary society has moved away from a 'heavy' and 'solid', hardware-focused modernity to a 'light' and 'liquid', software-based modernity. This shift, he claims, has brought profound change to all aspects of the human condition.

schools. In line with the contemporary understanding of identity as plural rather than singular (Devine, 2004), with its implication of the capacity to live with and support hybrid identities (Singh & Doherty, 2007; Gardner, 2004), teachers need to understand and appreciate how their own cultural identity/identities may shape their engagement with curriculum, learners and schooling (Florio-Ruane, 2001). This is not necessarily an easy or self-evident task at any stage of the continuum. Florio-Ruane (2001), for example, observed how white middle-class student teachers from rural and suburban settings in the USA mid-West tended to see culture as something other people have, rather than something in which they were themselves deeply implicated. Through the medium of reading and discussing autobiographies in a Future Teachers Book Club, Florio-Ruane conducted a study of how student teachers began to gain a deeper, more reasoned and sensitive understanding of the role of culture in their own lives as a vital step in gaining insights about the role of culture in the lives of their current and future students.

Secondly, teachers need to be able to grapple with their own misconceptions as well as those of others in designing generative classroom learning. For example, notions that students from particular cultural groups have set learning styles and/or are treated by education system as deficient (Valencia, 1997) need to be addressed by teachers individually and collectively (Sachs, 2008).

Thirdly, many education systems, including Ireland's for much of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, were almost exclusively animated by a spirit of cultural nationalism. As a new accommodation has emerged between cultural and civic nationalisms, this is having implications for teachers' understanding of the cultural and civic aspects of their socio-political role in terms of an activist professionalism (Sachs, 2001).

#### **1.2.1.5 Summary: teacher as dilemma manager**

The four dimensions of teachers' practice (instructional manager, caring and moral person, generous expert learner, and cultural and civic person) we have outlined specify, in brief, the complex and expanding understanding of teachers' practice in classrooms, schools and the wider professional arena. These dimensions are probably experienced in very different ways from teacher to teacher, and in very different ways by an individual teacher over the course of one day. In that sense, the image of teaching as dilemma

management (not problem solving) is compelling (Lampert, 1985; 2001). This image of teachers' work focuses our attention on how the teacher is 'an active negotiator, a broker of sorts, balancing a variety of interests that need to be satisfied in classrooms' (Lampert, 1985, p. 188). Among the dilemmas that Lampert identifies as being at the core of classroom teaching are how to: address multiple legitimate and competing goals; work with individual students as well as groups; and address cultural and social dynamics in tandem with demanding curricular goals. Another we might identify, as a feature of contemporary schooling in a knowledge society, is how teachers model expert learning and hand over appropriate levels of responsibility for self-regulated learning to students. Given that these dilemmas do not lead to solutions in the problem-solving sense, the implications for the continuum of teacher education are significant in terms of how teacher education across the continuum fosters the capacity among all involved in the process (student teachers, tutors, mentors, as well as ITE, induction and CPD providers) to understand and work with uncertainty across core aspects of professional practice (Floden & Clark, 1988). As they note:

*Teaching is evidently and inevitably uncertain. No teacher can be sure how a lesson will go or what a student will learn. No one can be sure which teaching approach will be most successful with a particular group of students. Casual observation and systematic research both indicate the importance of uncertainty to the ways teachers think and feel about their work. Uncertainty is especially troubling for novice teachers. (p. 505)*

What are the implications for the continuum of teacher education? Firstly, there needs to be an appreciation of the nature of teaching from the perspective of those learning to teach who until then have typically seen only the outward signs of teaching (unaware of the decision-making and dilemma management central to the choreography of classroom life). Secondly, the dimensions of teachers' practice convey the multi-faceted nature of teaching, although some dimensions may be more central to the teaching role in particular subjects, sectors of education or class group. For example, teacher as generous expert learner may be more central to the identity of subject-level teaching at post-primary level. Nevertheless, preparation to teach must involve attention to all dimensions as the profession of teaching is not narrowly circumscribed by any one or even two of these images alone (see, for example, the Teaching Council's expansive view of teacher professionalism in its Codes of Professional Conduct). As such, the work of all teachers will encompass all these roles, to a greater or lesser degree. One might argue that the hallmark of professionalism is the facility to proactively engage

with and influence the teaching and learning environment in the context of the appropriate role necessary for generative engagement with diverse learners. Consequently, the hallmark of quality teacher education, from the perspective of the dimensions of teachers' practice, might be its capacity to support among teachers complex views of teaching across the continuum. Finally, examining the dimensions of teachers' practice, using the four parameters we adopted in this section, the challenge of the new professionalism or extended teacher professionalism can be more deeply understood.

### **1.2.2 Quality, good and successful teaching: Different images of optimal practice**

*In simplest terms, if the objective is to improve student performance, student performance should be the focal point of policy... I use a simple definition of teacher quality: good teachers are ones who get large gains in student achievement for their classes; bad teachers are just the opposite.*

**Hanushek, 2002, pp. 2–3**

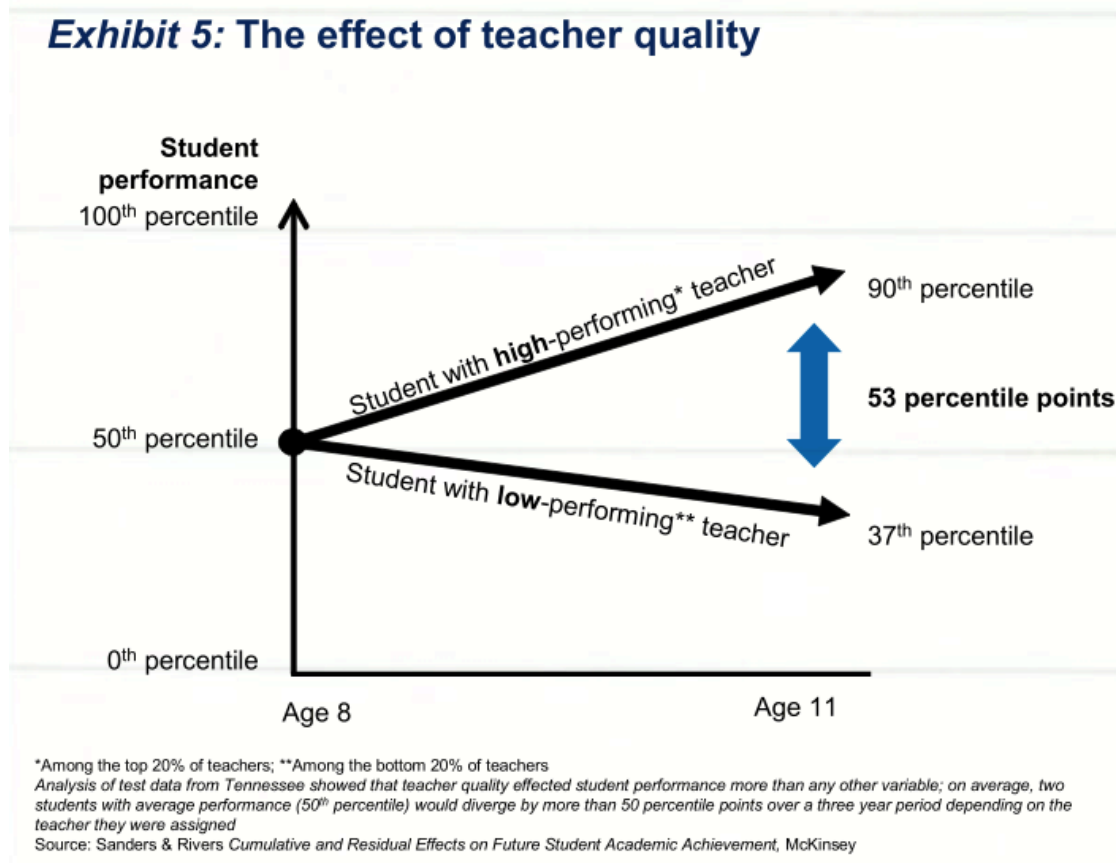
*How easy it is to come to believe that because we cannot teach forever without someone learning, it then follows that we cannot be teaching at all if no learning occurs whenever we do so.*

**Fenstermacher and Richardson, 2005, p. 188**

While the previous section emphasised the contingent and frequently uncertain nature of teaching, the teacher effectiveness tradition, inspired by a social and educational efficiency logic, typically emphasises predictability and certainty of outcome. The idea of teacher effectiveness is at the heart of contemporary research as well as policy debates on teaching and teacher education. The programmatic study of teacher effectiveness is important and has been valuable in characterising the types of teacher actions that typically result in measurable student learning. However, it is problematic, we think, when it conflates effective teaching with good teaching (as Hanushek does above) and quality teaching (as is the case with *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) in the USA, OECD's *Teachers Matter*, and the McKinsey Report). As conceptions of the quality, goodness or effectiveness of teaching are at the core of both preparing and evaluating teaching and teachers, this conflation has serious consequences in that it narrows the focus of what is understood as worthwhile teaching, as well as what is deemed essential in preparing and evaluating teachers and teaching. One important complicating aspect of this debate is that, in relation to teachers and teaching, the terms 'quality', 'good' and 'effective' are, more often than not, being used interchangeably in

current education policy debates. For example, Figure 1 below from the widely influential McKinsey Report makes a very important policy point in drawing upon the Sanders value-added model (VAM). This is that the quality of teaching can make a profound impact on student attainment and hence on the life-chances of students. Consistent with all the VAM-based research, good teaching is only teaching that results in student learning. We develop further below our understanding of the important and consequential differences between quality, good and effective/successful teaching, drawing on the recent work of Fenstermacher and Richardson (2005). Firstly, however, we briefly review the significance of the process–product approach to identifying effective teachers and teaching. While teacher effectiveness has been defined and measured in somewhat different ways over the last forty years, one core assumption remains: that effective teaching equals successful teaching inasmuch as identifiable teacher actions lead to enhanced student achievement in priority curricular areas like mathematics and literacy. In the 1970s and 1980s, effective teaching was grounded in a highly influential process–product research programme. In essence, this research programme sought to identify processes that characterised teaching which resulted in students performing well on measures of student attainment (i.e. the product or outcome of teaching) in reading and mathematics (for a comprehensive review see Brophy & Good, 1986 in the 2<sup>nd</sup> *Handbook of Research on Teaching*).





**Figure 1.1 McKinsey Report image illustrating the impact of quality teaching**

SOURCE: Barber & Mourshed, 2007

The findings of researcher observations in classrooms of teachers whose teaching resulted in high-achieving students provided a list of behaviours typical of teaching likely to enhance student achievement. These characteristic teaching behaviours (provision of advance organisers, monitoring student work, provision of feedback, etc.) have entered the folklore of teaching and are now seen as part of the wisdom of practice. The logic underpinning process–product research of the 1960s and '70s, with its focus on effective or successful teaching and then 'backward identification' of the characteristics of 'effective teachers', is consistent with the logic being applied in contemporary research seeking to identify effective or successful teaching, more often than not termed 'quality teaching' in the 60s and 70s.

Fenstermacher and Richardson offer a powerful and highly relevant analysis of distinctions between quality, good and effective teaching (see Table 1.3). They begin 'by analyzing the concept of teaching, separating it into its task sense (what teachers try

to do) and its achievement sense (the student learning that teachers foster)’ (p. 186). Based on this distinction, they argue that any effort to determine quality in teaching must encompass both the worthiness of the activity (good teaching) as well as the attainment or realisation of intended outcomes (successful teaching). For them then, ‘good teaching is not the same as successful teaching, nor does one logically entail the other... Good teaching is teaching that comports with morally defensible and rationally sound principles of instructional practice. Successful teaching is teaching that yields the intended learning.’ (p. 186). They argue that just because students have been taught successfully does not guarantee that what and how they have been taught is morally defensible. So, for example, in the novel/film *Oliver*, Fagin was highly successful in teaching Oliver and the Artful Dodger to pickpocket. Fenstermacher and Richardson would argue that Fagin was engaging in successful pickpocket pedagogy but *not* good teaching, that is, morally defensible practice.

**Table 1.3 Defining and differentiating quality, good and effective/successful teaching**

<p><b><i>QUALITY teaching encompasses...</i></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Willingness and effort by the learner</li> <li>• A social surround supportive of teaching and learning</li> <li>• Opportunity to teach and learn</li> <li>• <b>GOOD teaching → → →</b></li> </ul>	<p><b>TASK</b></p> <p><b><i>GOOD teaching involves...</i></b></p>	<p><b>ACHIEVEMENT</b></p> <p><b><i>SUCCESSFUL teaching implies...</i></b></p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Logical</li> <li>• Psychological</li> <li>• Moral</li> </ul>	<p>...that students have learned</p>

Furthermore they argue that, ‘For teaching to be both good and successful, it must be conjoined with factors well beyond the range of control of the classroom teacher’ (p. 186). In drawing on this wider set of contextual factors (i.e. student willingness, supportive social surround, and opportunities to teach/learn) that impinge on quality teaching (the key aspiration of any education system), they short-circuit a strong tendency and damaging consequence of value-added studies in locating both the worth and source of competence primarily, if not solely, in the individual teacher.

*The point of introducing this list is to clarify that learning, if it is to be both good and successful, calls on a cluster of conditions, only one of which pertains to the nature of the teaching received by the learner... What follows from this*

*analysis, in our view, is that the expression ‘quality teaching’ calls for not only certain teaching practices but also a set of contextual characteristics supportive of student learning. (p. 191)*

Fenstermacher and Richardson’s argument is an important one, we think, for a number of reasons. First, it presents quality teaching as something not located solely in the person of the teacher. As such, they open up the possibility of considering quality teaching as something that is distributed across teachers and the contexts within which they teach. This subtle but vitally important point in understanding the ‘quality imperative’ which is a key aspiration of education systems and contemporary policy priority points to the range of supports, resources and complex interrelated factors that impinge on the quality of teachers’ practice. Second, by implication it questions the ethics of designing and implementing high stakes evaluations of teachers without considering the impact of these contextual factors on teachers’ work. Both of these points have implications for how teachers are prepared and evaluated at every stage of the professional continuum.

In summary, given the policy appeal of value-added models (VAMs), Fenstermacher and Richardson argue for a more refined conception of quality teaching. In doing so, their stance highlights key assumptions that underpin this report. First, given that education system goals embody many of our deepest aspirations as humans, questions of purpose and meaning are critical in reviewing and reforming teacher education. Second, appraising the worth of educational outcomes typically demands a multi-dimensional approach. As such, Fenstermacher and Richardson’s argument that ‘there should be something more to a judgement of quality teaching than simple learning’ rightly, we think, questions a widely shared assumption underpinning contemporary educational policy: that the only good teaching is that which results in measurable learning.

### **1.2.2.1 Defining standards for teachers: effectiveness and knowledge**

Two long-standing research strands have significantly impacted upon conceptions of what counts as quality teaching and the definition of standards for teachers, namely: (i) teacher effectiveness; and (ii) teacher knowledge. The insights for teaching and teacher education emanating from these two traditions are neither uniform nor mutually exclusive but nevertheless, for the purposes of this research review, we recognise and

discuss them as somewhat distinct, as they each offer important insights for understanding, designing, developing and evaluating teaching and teacher education. Neither research tradition has stood still and the insights from each in 1988, 1998 and 2008 are quite different, although recognisable nevertheless. Within both traditions there has been extensive debate about core concepts, research methods, and underlying assumptions about the nature of knowledge. Both traditions have contributed an extensive range of principles, frameworks and strategies that have informed contemporary policy documents and research reviews on teaching and teacher education. For example, the recent McKinsey Report (2007) draws strongly on the value-added models (VAMs) to define quality teaching, growing out of the teacher effectiveness tradition. Similarly the OECD's *Teachers Matter* (2005) review of teacher education policy and practices draws on both traditions with its focus on value-added models and a detailed account of what knowledge it is that teachers need to develop in teacher education.

The core question guiding the teacher effectiveness tradition is: *What are the characteristics of effective teaching?* The core question guiding the teacher knowledge tradition is: *What do teachers need to know?* In terms of the focus of this research review, both traditions provide some insights into the characteristics of good teaching and what teachers need to know across the continuum. However, neither provides a comprehensive picture of how either effective teaching or teacher knowledge develop across the continuum, although studies of differences between novice and expert teachers in the teacher knowledge tradition provide strong evidence that teachers' perceptions and understanding of classrooms as learning environments and knowledge about learners change very significantly over time. Taking the long view, the various strands of teacher effectiveness research provide somewhat different images of the highly effective teacher, from the process-product research (Brophy & Good, 1986; Scheerens & Bosker, 1997) in the 1970s to the cognitive learning process model in the last decade (Seidel & Shavelson, 2007). Based on the various characteristics of effective teaching and teachers emanating from this research tradition, rubrics and developmental trajectories outlining how beginning teachers might develop along a continuum toward effective teaching have been designed. For example, in England the teacher effectiveness research review undertaken by Reynolds (1998) was drawn upon by

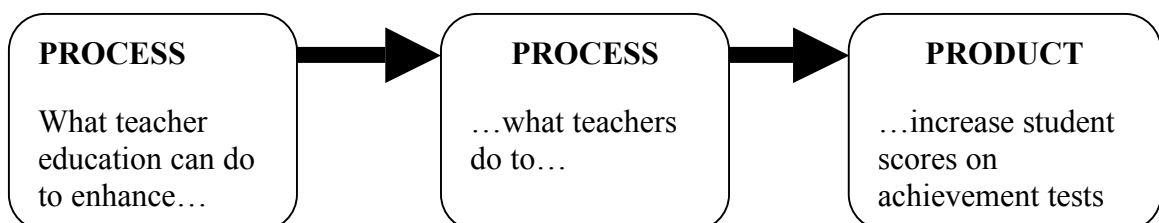
McBer (2000) to specify characteristics of teachers at three levels: main professional grade, threshold and outstanding teacher.

### 1.2.2.2 Effects of teaching: characteristics of effective teaching and teacher education

Summarising key, well-supported findings from the process–product research tradition, Brophy and Good (1986) described effective teachers as ones who set high yet realistic goals, presented content in ways to meet student needs, monitored student progress, and provided opportunities for students to apply what they had learned. What inspired this highly influential tradition? And to what extent is it similar to contemporary policy and research trends? The rise of the process–product approach to research on teaching in the 1960s was underpinned by an effort to make research on and the practice of teaching more scientific (Gage, 1989). As illustrated in Figure 1.2, the causal logic of process–product research is relatively straightforward: what identifiable teacher behaviours lead to greater student achievement on standardised tests? While process–product-inspired research yielded a useful list of teaching characteristics promulgated worldwide (see Good & Brophy, 1986; UNESCO, 2005; Anderson, 2001), this still did not specify how exactly teachers might come to teach in this manner. Nor did it necessarily identify how teachers might be effective in areas other than mathematics and reading, since the outcome measures – ‘the product’ in these studies – only focused on these two areas.



**Figure 1.2** The logic of process-product research



**Figure 1.3** The *extended* ‘effects of teaching’ research model

Nor did it necessarily identify what effective teachers did to promote higher-order thinking as the outcome measures focused on minimal rather than maximal outcomes.

By the end of the 1980s, there was a distinct disillusionment with this research tradition, even by its most prominent exponent (Gage, 1989).

However, the logic underpinning the process–product tradition lives on and can be seen as part of a wider policy and research interest in what Floden (2001) calls ‘effects of teaching’ research. This tradition encompasses a wide range of approaches to examining the impact of teaching on learners including: small-scale training and intervention studies, large-scale cross-national achievement tests (e.g. IEA’s TIMSS, OECD’s PISA studies), the original process–product research, current VAM-based research, contemporary expanded models in the process–product tradition that include teacher education in the causal chain, as well as school effects studies. The key point here is that the causal logic underpinning the process–product tradition lives on, and underpins contemporary and hugely influential research and policy debate in education (Floden, 2001). For example, the emphasis in the OECD *Teachers Matter* study on the characteristics of high quality ITE and induction is premised on and seeks evidence that both of these matter because they increase student achievement. Thus, the early effects of teaching research in the process–product tradition have been superseded by a new policy focus (e.g. OECD’s *Teachers Matter*) that extends that causal chain directly from teacher education to teaching and through to student achievement (see Figure 1.3). Thus, while the model has changed and expanded, the causal logic remains the same. The implications of the effects of teaching research tradition are significant in that it presents a culturally prominent idealised set of images toward which teachers at all stages of the continuum can strive.

A relatively recent synthesis of contemporary approaches in the teacher effectiveness tradition by Brophy (1999) (see Box 1.1, Principles of effective teaching) illustrates the more ambitious and social view of learning underpinning this tradition forty years after it originated. An important point to note is that the literature on effective teaching now suggests a much more complex endeavour than the narrow focus on what teachers do that leads to student learning in core subject areas, as typified by early process–product studies in the 1960s and 70s.

**Box 1.1 Principles of effective teaching**

1. A supportive classroom climate
2. Opportunity to learn
3. Curricular alignment
4. Establishing learning orientations
5. Coherent content
6. Thoughtful discourse
7. Practice and application activities
8. Scaffolding students' task engagement
9. Strategy teaching
10. Co-operative learning
11. Goal-oriented assessment
12. Achievement expectations

SOURCE: Brophy, J. (1999). *Teaching*, Lausanne: International Bureau of Education (IBE), UNESCO.

Rather, as Brophy (1999) does, contemporary effective teaching-based research draws upon a variety of sources, including:

- Principles from studies of relationships between classroom processes (measured through observation systems) and student outcomes (typically, gains in standardised achievement tests)
- Principles located in the logic of lesson design (e.g. the need for alignment of the curriculum's goals, content, teaching methods and assessment measures)
- Principles drawn from emergent theories of teaching and learning (e.g. socio-cultural, social constructivist)
- Principles based on standards statements circulated by teachers' professional organisations representing the major school subjects/areas of the curriculum.

Consequently, there is a rich contemporary source of research that can help elucidate quality teaching across the continuum of teacher education. The teaching research tradition based on effects has been widely influential in Ireland through Ireland's participation in IEA over the last thirty years and in the last decade through the OECD PISA studies, as well as through school effects studies undertaken primarily by the ESRI (e.g. Smyth, 1999). Finally, the causal logic underpinning this tradition seems at odds with the emphasis on uncertainty which we discussed earlier in terms of the nature

and scope of teachers' practice in classrooms. As such, the evident and inevitable uncertainties of daily teaching co-exist with the wider policy emphasis on ensuring that education systems focus on how best to maximise outcomes for all learners, based on causal logic and an imperative of social efficiency.

### **Box 1.2 Shulman's knowledge bases for teacher education**

Content knowledge  
 General pedagogical knowledge  
 Curriculum knowledge  
 Pedagogical-content knowledge  
 Knowledge of learners and their characteristics  
 Knowledge of educational contexts  
 Knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values including their philosophical and historical grounds.

#### **1.2.2.3 Teacher knowledge research: what do teachers need to know?**

*Over the last 20 years, teacher learning has become one of the most important concerns of the educational establishment. It has been more or less assumed that teachers who know more teach better. This 'simple' idea has governed multiple efforts to improve education... by focusing on what teachers know or need to know... Different conceptions of teacher learning... lead to very different ideas about how to improve teacher education...*

**Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999, p. 249**

Research on the nature and development of teacher knowledge has been hugely influential over the last twenty years since the publication in 1987 of Shulman's now classic article subtitled 'foundations of a new reform'. In the intervening years, the teacher knowledge tradition has provided a number of fundamental insights that have shaped policy, practice and research in teaching and teacher education. In terms of its disciplinary origins, teacher knowledge research emanated from cognitive psychology. Following the cognitive revolution in the 1960s, research on teacher thinking emerged in the mid-1970s and remained very influential for twenty years, drawing attention to various aspects of teachers' thought processes, including planning and decision making (see Clark & Peterson, 1986 for a comprehensive review of research on teacher thinking). We focus on key questions regarding teacher knowledge (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999) in this section: (i) What are the domains of teacher knowledge? and (ii)



What is the assumed relationship between knowledge and practice? A third question emerges from and is implied in addressing the first two questions: What are the optimal contexts for knowledge construction?

The promise of teacher thinking research lay in its capacity to get behind the stage and see the script guiding teachers' performance in the classroom. As Jackson (1968/1990) observed '...a glimpse of this "hidden" side of teaching may increase our understanding of some of the more visible and well-known features of the process' (p. 6). A variety of methods were used to uncover teachers' thought processes such as: 'think-alouds', stimulated recall, journal keeping, and repertory grid techniques (Clark & Peterson, 1986). One of the important insights from this research was that it was fruitful to think of teachers' work as encompassing three phases: pre-active, interactive and post-active. This was a valuable insight at the time given the dominance of behaviourist-inspired competency approaches to teacher performance assessment which, in some instances, specified between 1,200 and 1,500 behaviours of the effective teacher, focused only on the interactive observable performance phase (Zeichner, 2008). A practical implication flowing from this insight is that assessment of teachers ought to involve not just observation of the interactive phase, but also considered engagement with their pre-lesson planning and reflection as well as with their post-lesson reflection.

### **Domains of teacher knowledge**

Shulman (1987) was critical of the teacher thinking tradition's neglect of subject matter knowledge. He outlined, and made a case for, seven types of teacher knowledge that could form the basis for a new programmatic line of research on teaching. These were: (i) content knowledge; (ii) general pedagogical knowledge; (iii) curriculum knowledge; (iv) pedagogical content knowledge; (v) knowledge of learners and their characteristics; (vi) knowledge of educational contexts; (vii) knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, including their philosophical and historical bases. He specified three categories of content knowledge: subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curricular knowledge. Tatto et al. (2008) summarise this as follows:

*subject-matter or content knowledge is the set of fundamental assumptions, definitions, concepts, and procedures that constitute the ideas to be learned. Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) includes useful forms of representation of those ideas, powerful analogies, examples, and explanations of a subject, insights into what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult, and the*

*conceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of the topic. **Curricular knowledge** involves understanding how the topics are arranged over time across schooling experiences.* (Tatto, Schille, Senk, Ingvarson, Peck & Rowey, 2008, p. 21)

Two key points are of immediate relevance in understanding the continuum of teacher education. Firstly, teacher knowledge is not a one-dimensional idea. It comprises a variety of interacting types of knowledge. Secondly, teacher education makes an important and valuable contribution to pedagogical content knowledge, in particular, as Grossman (1991) demonstrated, comparing the more advanced and complex nature of knowledge among beginning teachers who had undertaken a teacher education programme compared to those who did not.

How might different types of knowledge sources (e.g. effective teaching; research on teacher knowledge, etc.) inform criteria for assessing teachers? Drawing on Scriven (1994), Wheeler (1994) created a useful list (see Box 1.3) of sources used in the USA for creating teacher performance assessment rubrics and criteria, including commentary on their relative reliability (see Appendix 5).

### **Box 1.3 Different types of knowledge inform criteria for assessing teachers**

Government regulations and requirements  
 Professional standards  
 Outcomes of teaching  
 Theories grounded in practice  
 What teachers are doing  
 What others would like teachers to be doing  
 What teachers should be doing

SOURCE: Wheeler, 1994 as cited in Ingvarson & Rowe, 2007

There has been what Mullholland and Wallace (2005) term a rapidly ‘growing tree of teacher knowledge’ research over the twenty years since Shulman’s seminal work on this area in the 1980s. The widespread recognition and accumulating evidence in relation to the importance of teacher knowledge is reflected in the central role it is now accorded in key policy (OECD, 2005; Moreno, 2005) and research studies. For example, the IEA’s first cross-national study of teacher education (Tatto et al., 2008) draws heavily on Shulman’s teacher knowledge typology to characterise the development of teacher knowledge in ITE and the induction phases. Similarly, both

Garet et al.'s (2001) national study in the USA and Kennedy's (1998) review of different types of CPD programmes provided strong evidence that programmes which focused not only on teacher behaviours but also teacher knowledge had substantially more impact on classroom practice and student learning than CPD programmes which focused exclusively on teacher behaviours. In sum, teacher knowledge research is a vitally important source of insight into the dynamics of teacher learning and development across the professional life-cycle.

### **The knowledge-practice relationship**

*All forms of professional education share the goal of readying students for accomplished and responsible practice in service to others. Thus, professionals in training must master both abundant theory and large bodies of knowledge; the final test of their efforts, however, will be not what they know but what they do.*

**Cooke et al., 2006, pp. 1340–41**

The knowledge-practice relationship is one of the central concerns in professional education, in school teaching as well as in medicine and other professions. For example, writing on the development of medical education, Cooke et al. (2006) note that the assimilation of medical education into universities in the USA and Europe a hundred years ago profoundly influenced the nature of what knowledge is viewed as important and the way in which students encounter this knowledge. This has led to ongoing efforts to balance the emphasis placed on scientific, cultural and humanistic knowledge, as well as professional values essential for practice. Similarly, many other professions, including teaching, social work, and psychology, have sought to foster scientific and social-scientific research-generated knowledge as the basis for professional practice and as a means to enhance their professions' status. While the link to universities vastly expanded the knowledge base and enhanced professional status, the nature of the knowledge-practice relationship remains problematic. An understanding of that problematic relationship is fundamental to a consideration of how best to design and reform teacher education.

Consequently, we draw upon Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) who provide a framework that identifies three different types of professional knowledge: (i) knowledge for practice, (ii) knowledge in practice, and (iii) knowledge of practice.

**Table 1.4 Conceptions of the knowledge practice relationship**

<b>Knowledge for practice</b>	<b>Knowledge in practice</b>	<b>Knowledge of practice</b>
Knowledge-base for teaching exists. Typically based on research (may include codified ‘wisdom of practice’).	Teacher knowledge expressed in artistry of practice, reflection, narratives.	Knowledge generation and knowledge use problematic. Generated through collaborative critical appraisal of various types of knowledge sources with marked focus on practice-based professional networks and inquiry groups.

SOURCE: Cochran-Smith & Lytle (1999)

Cochran-Smith and Lytle argue that different conceptions of teacher knowledge and learning imply very different understandings of teacher education. All three conceptions encompass knowledge generation and knowledge use, but have very different understandings of these two processes at the heart of professional education and work. Critiquing the shortcomings of both knowledge for practice and knowledge in practice perspectives, they advocate an *inquiry as stance* perspective in terms of how ‘inquiry produces knowledge, how inquiry relates to practice, and what teachers learn from inquiry within communities’ (p. 250). The **knowledge for practice** perspective assumes that teachers who know more (that is, have a deep and flexible understanding of the knowledge base emanating from disciplines) will teach better. The 20<sup>th</sup> century move to generate professional knowledge from within the university and Shulman’s domains of teacher knowledge typify the knowledge for practice perspective. Cochran-Smith and Lytle highlight the assumption that formal knowledge is superior to practical knowledge as a key weakness of this perspective.

The **knowledge in practice** conception assumes teacher knowledge is expressed in artistry of practice, reflection and narratives, given the way in which professional knowledge is situated, social and rooted in the uncertainty of a professional practice. This type of knowledge is acquired and enhanced through deliberate reflection on practice and inquiry into professional experiences. Improvement of practice also involves teachers making explicit the tacit knowledge and assumptions underpinning their practice through collaborative reflection on practice with colleagues. Cochran-Smith and Lytle again see the formal knowledge-practice relationship as a key

weakness of this perspective. In this case, it is the assumption that leaves the power and status of formal knowledge unchallenged.

The **knowledge of practice** conception questions the formal-practical knowledge distinction in terms of the origin of and power associated with adherence to the distinction. This conception assumes that ‘basic questions about knowledge and teaching – what it means to generate knowledge, who generates it, what counts as knowledge and to whom, and how knowledge is used and evaluated in particular contexts – are always open to discussion’ (p. 272). This conception, like the others, has implications for teachers across the continuum of teacher education but is distinctive in its focus on the ways in which teachers’ professional knowledge (not practical knowledge, as in the knowledge in practice conception) can be no less powerful than formal knowledge. As such, ‘The basis of this knowledge-practice conception is that teachers across the professional life span play a central and critical role in generating knowledge of practice by making their classrooms and schools sites for inquiry, connecting their work in schools to larger issues, and taking a critical perspective on the theory and research of others’ (p. 273).

There are a number of important points to emphasise in relation to Cochran-Smith and Lytle’s conception of **knowledge of practice**. Firstly, it does not assume that it is only teacher-generated knowledge that is essential to professional practice. It acknowledges the value and necessity of different types of knowledge for optimal professional practice (e.g. knowledge generated in other settings by researchers from different disciplinary backgrounds). Secondly, it does not assume that teacher-generated knowledge needs necessarily to adopt the same knowledge-generating strategies as those adopted by professional researchers – although it does not preclude this either. Thirdly, they argue, given their rejection of the formal-practical knowledge distinction underpinning conceptions one and two, that the knowledge of practice (conception three) is not merely an amalgam of conceptions one and two but represents a fundamentally different understanding of knowledge generation and use across the continuum. Based on their advocacy of this third conception, they proposed **inquiry as stance** to highlight the potential of framing the knowledge-practice relationships in a new way that provides greater recognition for locally generated school knowledge, eschews the formal-practical knowledge distinction and has the potential to create new synergies between

university- and school-based researchers in efforts to enhance teaching and learning.

### **1.2.3 The professional life-cycle and work lives of teachers: context matters**

Four research strands over the last forty years have provided insights on the teaching career across the continuum of teacher education: the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), the experiences of beginning teachers (Conway, 2001; Hobson et al., 2008; Watzke, 2007; Rajuan et al., 2008); teachers' professional lives (Huberman, 1989; Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996; Day, Fernandez, Hauge & Moller, 2000; Day, Flores & Viana, 2007), novice-expert studies (Berliner, 2001; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Berliner, 2004), and concerns-based stage models (Fuller & Bown, 1975; Poulou, 2007).

#### **1.2.3.1 The continuum = apprenticeship of observation + 3 Is**

The 3 Is model of the continuum of teacher education is underpinned by a truncated assumption about the actual experience of learning to teach. That is, it is based on the assumption that learning to teach only occurs when prospective teachers enter the gates of teacher education, in 'real' colleges and schools. Lortie's notion of the *apprenticeship of observation* has been widely influential since the publication of *Schoolteacher: A sociological study* in 1975. Based on extensive interviews with beginning teachers, Lortie made a strong case for how the 15,000-hour apprenticeship of watching other teachers teach, which each student teacher brings to initial teacher education, has a profound impact on how he or she understands and enacts teaching. Since Lortie's work in the 1970s, hundreds of studies have documented how the teacher and teaching role models that prospective teachers seek to emulate or compensate for mediate the learning-to-teach experience (Morine-Dersheimer, 1997; Calderhead, 1996). Furthermore, teachers' images and concepts of knowledge, learning, subject matter, assessment and learning to teach are shaped in profoundly influential ways by their 15,000-hour plus apprenticeship of observation. In comparison with other professions, this long-term apprenticeship is unique to teaching. Compared with two other professions we focus on in this report, neither doctors nor social workers, for example, have a similar apprenticeship. Consequently we pay particular attention to the apprenticeship of observation and its implications for teacher education across the continuum. Firstly, the apprenticeship influences all stages and phases of the continuum

– not just initial teacher education. Secondly, the apprenticeship of observation shapes teachers' beliefs about central aspects of schooling in profound ways, presenting teacher education with significant challenges right across the continuum. As Morine-Dersheimer and Corrigan (1996), based on a review of twenty years of research on teacher thinking, argue:

*The strength of traditional prior beliefs, reinforced by experiences as students and teachers, makes real change extremely difficult. Teachers implementing mandated changes interpret those mandates through the screen of their prior beliefs, modifying... desired reform strategies. New practices require new beliefs. Changing beliefs involves cognitive stress, discomfort and ambiguity. In changing beliefs, individuals must reconcile or realign other related beliefs to resolve conflicts and contradictions, and come to terms with what actions guided by previous beliefs meant. Such cognitive reorganization is not easily or quickly accomplished. (p. 308)*

They outline three strategies and four conditions for changing teacher beliefs, noting that sometimes teacher practices create changes in beliefs and other times vice versa. The strategies for changing beliefs (these could be thought of as strategies for initial teacher education and/or continuing professional development) are: changing images via exploration of teachers' images and metaphors for teaching; confronting contradictions; and addressing cases. The four conditions for change in teacher beliefs are: time, dialogue, practice and support. Taken together, the strategies and conditions for belief change pose a considerable challenge in the design and provision of high-quality teacher education across the continuum.

### **1.2.3.2 Studying teachers' professional lives**

Research on the professional life-cycle and work lives of teachers emanates from different research traditions and very different national contexts, and increasingly this research is paying attention to the historical, cultural and political context in which teachers are embedded (Day, Fernandez, Hauge & Moller, 2000; Day, Flores & Viana, 2007). Significantly, a key insight into the dynamics of the continuum is that, while there are discernible stages and phases in teacher development, the context – the school especially, but also the wider political, educational reform dynamics – is profoundly influential in shaping teacher identity, morale and professional practice. In one cross-national study, for example, Day, Flores and Viana (2007) investigated the ways in which teachers in Portugal and England are experiencing recent changes in the policy environment and how these have affected their sense of professionalism and their

professional identity. The findings presented a mixed picture in the context of reform in both countries. On the one hand, there were what the authors viewed as strengths. These included teachers' views on their professionalism, particularly the 'importance of vocationalism, continuing learning and collaborative cultures, the relevance of project-oriented work at school and an integrated perspective of the curriculum' (p. 249). On the other hand, the teachers in this study also identified a number of significant constraints on their professional lives including 'feelings of ambivalence and conflict, associated with increased bureaucracy, qualities of school leadership, cultures of loneliness and the lack of understanding and ownership of the process of change' (p. 249).

National contexts of schooling and educational reform were also an important factor in teachers' experiences. For example, the Portuguese reform context was characterised by espoused flexibility in tandem with 'imposed' autonomy and increasing accountability. Reforms which focused on identifying key competences (expressed as learning outcomes), despite the associated rhetoric of enhanced teacher autonomy and professionalism, led to a situation where 'the notion of increased autonomy was accompanied by the demand for greater definition and measurement of the end results for pupils. Paradoxically, what appeared to be greater autonomy in fact was greater centralist control of the curriculum' (p. 251). In England, reforms, while following a similar logic, were considerably more intensive and characterised by imposition and constant transition whereby:

*...reform has now become the norm in every teacher's life, rather than the exception... The results of local school management, independent external inspectors, national testing of pupils at ages 7, 11, 14, 16, 17 and 18, publication of league tables, annual performance management interviews and target setting for teachers, school improvement plans and national strategies for ICT, literacy and numeracy have been a lowering morale for many teachers, difficulties in recruitment and retention, and threats to teacher identities. (Day et al., p. 253)*

The manner in which teachers spoke about their professional lives suggests that the policy contexts in both countries had a significant role and identifiable pattern in shaping teachers' professional identities.

A different but very influential strand of research on the professional life-cycle of the



teacher has sought to identify developmental patterns across the continuum. According to Brekelmans, Wubbels and van Tartwijk (2005), Floden and Huberman, in their 1989 research review, noted that research on teacher development was then at a descriptive stage, lacking any overarching models or frameworks. These studies used retrospective accounts and cross-sectional designs to document teachers' career engagement and career satisfaction. As such, Brekelmans et al. (2005) observe that most studies of teacher development still focus on short time-spans and adopt cross-sectional rather than longitudinal designs. In the decade and a half between Floden and Huberman's 1989 review and the study by Berkelman et al., the latter found only 15 studies that adopted a longitudinal design. Given the lack of longitudinal designs in research on the professional life-cycle, there are significant gaps in what is known about the developmental dynamics across the continuum. Of all these studies, Huberman's (1989) longitudinal study of teachers in Switzerland has provided a framework for considering the successive themes which shape teachers' perceptions of practice at different phases of the life cycle (see Table 1.5)

**Table 1.5 Teachers' professional life-cycle: successive themes (Huberman, 1989)**

<b>Years</b>	<b>Dominant themes</b>
1-3	Career Entry: Survival and discovery
4-6	Stabilisation
7-18	Experimentation (activism) <<----->> Re-assessment (self-doubts)
19-30	Serenity (relational distance) <<----->> Conservatism
31-40	Disengagement: serene or bitter

Huberman's study highlights successive patterns: dominant motivational themes that follow a developmental pattern across the professional life-cycle of teachers. Huberman's 'successive themes' provide powerful insights that can inform the development of teacher learning experiences across the continuum. However, research in both the novice-expert and the concern-based traditions provides more detailed and stage-specific insights into teacher development, particularly in the case of initial and induction periods, that is, the first decade of a forty-year career. However, Huberman's study, based on longitudinal data, is unusual and insightful in presenting a model of teacher development across the entire continuum.

### 1.2.3.3 Perspectives on beginning teacher development

Various lines of research have sought to address the question of how the development of teachers evolves during the initial and early career phases of the continuum. We focus on three strands here: (i) novice-expert studies; (ii) concern-based studies; and (iii) narrative-based studies. Undertaken over the last 40 years, these three lines of research have provided valuable insights into the dynamics of teacher learning and development.

#### Novice-expert studies

*Desire to achieve excellence is usually not a problem with teachers because many new teachers see teaching as a calling, a mission of sorts. Imbued with this belief, many teachers have a missionary's desire to do well. But teachers usually get no practice after student teaching and typically have no coaching or mentoring as they learn their craft. The first few thousand hours of teaching experience might be spent better learning under the direction of a mentor or coach and further improved by having opportunities to practise some performances over and over again, as do gymnasts and ice-skaters.*

**Berliner, 2004, p. 202**

Growing out of hundreds of novice-expert studies examining the development of expertise in a wide range of fields (e.g. medicine, chess, golf), this research points to a number of consequential features that distinguish novices from experts (Berliner, 2004; Bransford, Darling-Hammond & Page, 2005). Berliner (2004) summarises the distinctive features of expert teachers' practice, noting that it is characterised by:

- Automaticity and routinisation of repetitive tasks.
- Greater sensitivity to the task and social demands of classroom life.
- Greater flexibility and capacity to improvise depending on the demands of classroom situations.
- Understanding and representing problems in ways very different from novices
- Fast and accurate pattern recognition of classroom dynamics (e.g. able to identify students who are struggling or situations likely to cause classroom management problems).
- Compared to novices who find it difficult to make sense of complex classroom situations, expert teachers are adept at noticing patterns in specific areas in which they have extensive experience, that is, expertise is very domain-specific. For example, an experienced primary classroom teacher or subject teacher at post-primary level may have different pattern recognition capacity in

classrooms. Similarly, pattern recognition may differ for teachers of different subjects, as their expertise depends on their subject knowledge, among other things.

- Experts have a variety of different types of knowledge which are deep and flexible (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000).
- Experts may initially approach problem solving more slowly, because they draw upon and process a richer knowledge base in order to address the problem situation (Berliner, 2001; Berliner, 2004; Bransford, Darling-Hammond & Page, 2005).

Expertise does not develop quickly and it demands persistent deliberate, purposeful and reflective practice (including high-quality feedback from coaches) typically taking over 10 years (Ericsson, 1996). For example, radiologists may need to view over 100,000 X-rays before they demonstrate expertise, or golfers have to hit up to 4 million golf balls before becoming expert (Berliner, 2004). Interviews with teachers in Australia and the USA suggests that it takes at least three to five years after starting full-time teaching before they feel they are no longer experiencing regular surprises about school and classroom situations (Berliner, 2004).

Over the last decade, primarily due to the influence of socio-cultural learning theories which emphasise the social and cultural dynamics of learning, research on the development of expertise has begun to focus on the social and cultural conditions which promote expertise and excellence (Ferrari, 2002). Thus, in terms of teaching and teacher education, the question has changed from ‘What do expert teachers do?’ to ‘What are the social and cultural conditions that promote expertise in teaching?’ This important shift in focus has implications for teacher education in that it orients attention to the key dynamics of how learning to teach needs to provide: (i) opportunities to develop a deep flexible knowledge base; (ii) feedback from experts; (iii) observation of expert teaching practice; and (iv) reflection and deliberate repeated practice.

### **Concerns-based stage studies**

Fuller’s stage model of initial teacher development, and the copious empirical research upon which it was based (see Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown, 1975; for a review see Rutherford & Hall, 1990 and Conway & Clark, 2003) underpins concerns-based

approaches to research on teacher preparation and staff development. Richardson and Placier, writing in the fourth *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (2001), described Fuller's model as 'perhaps the most classic of stage theories in that it was meant to be relatively invariant, sequential and hierarchical' (p. 910). Studies that adopt a concerns-based model include research on pre-service preparation (Gunstone, Slattery, Baird, & Northfield, 1993; Janssens, 1989; Strawitz & Malone, 1986), and early career teachers (Boccia, 1989; Nias, 1989). This strand of research has generated numerous studies over the last 40 years and, like the novice-expert studies, more recent work has focused on the role of how context shapes the concerns of student and beginning teachers. While the general pattern of concerns does seem to resolve itself as Fuller outlined – from self survival (primarily due to class management concerns) to subject matter to students – this pattern is neither as invariant nor hierarchical as posited by Fuller. Rather, student teachers also appear to change in their attitudes. Their concerns '...also shifted from those about personal capacity to manage their classrooms to concerns about their personal capacity to grow as a teacher and person, as their understanding of teaching and all it involves changed' (Conway & Clark, 2003, p. 465).

### **Narrative-based studies**

Narrative-based studies have burgeoned over the last two decades as researchers have become more attuned to the social and cultural influences shaping teacher development. There is now a vast literature providing valuable insights into student teacher development from the perspective of student and beginning teachers, as well as their mentors (e.g. Bullough, Knowles & Crow, 1991; Roehrig, Pressley & Talotta, 2002; Conway, 2001; Burn, Hagger, Mutton & Everton, 2000; Sugrue, 2004; Orland-Barak, 2002; Mewborn & Stinson, 2007; Henze, van Driel & Verloop, 2009; Vásquez & Urzúa, 2009). This research highlights a number of important themes including:

- The challenges of handling uncertainty, complexity and multi-dimensional facets of learning to teach (Burn, Hagger, Mutton & Everton, 2000)
- The highly charged emotional nature of teaching practice experiences and the central role that relationships with students and mentors play in the quality of teaching practice experiences (Bullough, Knowles & Crow, 1991; Roehrig, Pressley & Talotta, 2002; Conway, 2001; Kitching, 2009)
- The power of the apprenticeship of observation (Sugrue, 1997)
- Student teachers' concerns and focus on subject matter and student learning

(Conway & Clark, 2003; Burn et al., 2000; Poulou, 2007).

We have addressed a range of different research strands on the professional life-cycle which can inform teacher education policy and practice in relation to the continuum. Each offers different perspectives on the continuum. None alone is sufficient. Our experiences in working with teachers and teacher educators over many years suggest that they would resonate with these various perspectives, recognising that each provides some important and worthwhile insights into the continuum. So, for example, Huberman's study provides insights into the changing motivational dynamics over the professional life-cycle. Critics might argue that it pays too little attention to context (which we agree does matter); nevertheless it is insightful and can inform planning for teacher education across the continuum and act as a tool for promoting reflection on the life-cycle among teachers and teacher educators. Recent research on the professional life-cycle has thus heavily emphasised methods which recognise and provide insights into the powerful role of biography and context in teacher development.

#### **1.2.4 Teacher learning: Social, supported and situated**

*We are living in a new era in which the demands are so complex, so multivariate, and so changing that the only way we will be able to survive is by the commitment to the process of individual, group, and global learning throughout our life and for everyone.*

**Aspin, Chapman, Hatton, and Sawano, *International Handbook of Lifelong Learning*, 2001, p. xix**

*...assessment needs to be an integral part of a model of teaching and learning if it is to change from its present status as an adjunct to 'see' if learning has occurred, to a new status of being part of the teaching and learning process.*

**Hattie and Jaeger, 1998, p. 111**

There have been very significant advances over the last three decades in knowledge about how people learn (Greeno, Collins & Resnick, 1996; Bransford, 2000; Bruner, 1996; Wenger, 1998; Hall, Murphy & Soler, 2008). A number of key insights have emerged. Firstly, with the ascendance of socio-cultural perspectives on learning, it is now seen as a more social endeavour than before (Bruner, 1996). In this regard, Sawyer (2006), in his introductory chapter to the *Cambridge Handbook on the Learning Sciences*, notes how knowledge is now viewed as 'situated, practised and collaboratively generated' (p. 10), and that the transition from novice to expert and the power of building on prior knowledge and experiences are two of the fundamental

insights from research on learning over the last 40 years. Based on these insights, he notes that answers to the question of *how to promote better learning* have centred on the importance of supportive scaffolding through cognitive apprenticeship (Collins, 2006) as well as opportunities for externalisation and articulation through reflection.

Secondly, the inter-linkage between teaching, learning and assessment is now better understood than in the past. For example, a number of researchers (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Jaeger, 1998; Gardner, 2006) argued for an approach to assessment that acknowledges the interplay among assessment, learning and feedback.

Thirdly, intelligence is now seen in incremental rather than entity terms. As such, extensive research in both the cognitive and socio-cultural research traditions provides robust evidence that ability is now best seen as a matter of developing practice rather than an immutable and innate endowment (Sternberg, 1998; Bransford, 1999). These insights into learning have each played a significant role in teacher education pedagogy and their continued refinement is likely to form a key feature of teacher education pedagogy developments in the coming years (see Table 1.4). The move towards a social understanding of learning has been well developed in research on teaching and teacher education over the last decade. Putnam and Borko (2000) provide a succinct summary of the assumptions and implications. They note that an influential and developing body of knowledge on cognition and learning presents convincing evidence that cognition is situated, social, and distributed. The idea that cognition is *situated* draws attention to how we have typically viewed thinking as ‘manipulation of ideas in the mind of the individual’ (p. 4). However, situated views remind us of how thinking is nested within the context of tools and other representation systems, and these interactive systems offer a more appropriate unit of analysis than the individual mind. Thus, in terms of teacher learning, teacher thinking cannot be isolated from the context of teaching, that is, the relationships and tools (e.g. books, teachers’ guidebooks, learning technologies) as they are enacted locally in classrooms and schools.

The notion that cognition is *social* shifts our conventional psychological focus from ‘individualistic accounts of learning’ (p. 5), which only focus on the role of social factors as contributors to individual knowledge construction, to the position that how we think is the result of participation in cultural settings over time. In terms of teacher

learning, this points to the power of local practices at both organisational and cultural levels. Cognition as *distributed* draws attention to how our understanding of thinking as solely the property of individuals is limiting, and that it is more appropriate to think of cognition as ‘... “stretched over” the individual, other persons and artefacts such as physical and symbolic tools’ (Putnam & Borko, 2000, p. 5). The move towards a social view of learning represents a landmark change in understanding human learning in such areas as leadership (e.g. Spillane, 2006; Spillane & Diamond, 2007 re. distributed leadership), teaching and learning in classrooms (e.g. Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Collins, 2006) and special education (e.g. Englert & Mariage, 2005).

Putnam and Borko (2000) draw out the implications of these three assumptions for teacher learning, focusing on: where to situate teacher learning experiences, the nature of discourse communities and the importance of tools in teachers’ work. The main implications of this perspective on cognition for teacher professional development are that it should:

- Incorporate multiple contexts for teacher learning (both site-based, drawing on teachers’ own practice, as well as involving the perspectives of ‘outsiders’ such as in-service providers, inspectors, university lecturers, etc.).
- Ground initial teacher education, induction and in-service education in student teachers/teachers’ learning experiences in their own practice by conducting it in conjunction with school-based mentors.
- Encourage student teachers/teachers, on an ongoing basis, to systematically bring experiences from their own classrooms to professional development opportunities across the continuum. This might be undertaken through the systematic development of cases as a *signature pedagogy* in teacher education, much like cases are used in law, medicine and other human service professions (Shulman, 2005). The development of such models of teacher education across the continuum would constitute a considerable shift, in both perspective and resources, from what is currently available. One promising avenue might be to develop some cases through inter-institutional projects involving teacher education providers such as colleges, universities, support services, unions, etc. These could then be used widely across the system to foster case-based reasoning and decision-making with and for teachers (Anderson et al., 1999; Leinhardt, 1992). To date, as far as we are aware, little if any systematic use

has been made of case-based material in Irish teacher education for teaching and/or assessment purposes.

- Use new learning technologies to create simulations and supported contexts for learning to teach in virtual environments (e.g. PT<sup>3</sup> Group at Vanderbilt's [2003] Three Amigos Project).

### **1.2.5 Relationships: Students, teachers, parents and education professionals/partners**

Internationally, for example, one prominent contemporary change in the nature of teachers' work today is that they typically interact more frequently with students, colleagues, parents and other professionals. In essence, one of the distinctive features of contemporary teaching is the increase in interaction required of teachers in their day-to-day work. Teaching has always been a social profession characterised by frequent interaction with students in classrooms. Today, however, the nature of interaction with students, teachers, parents and other education professionals has created new demands and opportunities for teachers. Furthermore, one of the characteristics of teaching as a profession, compared to others, is the relatively private nature of teachers' work behind the classroom door (Lortie, 1975). Indeed, in the Irish context, the OECD (1991) review of Ireland's education noted what they termed 'the legendary autonomy' of the Irish teacher.

Reform of teaching and learning worldwide is focusing on the social and relational understandings of learning. In the past, an acquisition metaphor dominated our images of learning. Participation as a new metaphor of learning draws attention to the different ways in which teachers provide students with access to knowledge through interactive and discussion-oriented teaching. This involves more opportunities for pair and group work (Cohen, 1994), high-quality feedback to promote learning (Black and Wiliam, 1998; Gardner, 2006) and a focus on the development of learning communities in classrooms, rather than on the psychology of learners' individual differences (Prawat, 1992; Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003).

The dominant image of the contemporary teacher has changed from the autonomous professional to the collegial professional (Hargreaves, 2003). This is evident in the Irish context, for example, in moves to adopt school development planning, an increase in



teacher-to-teacher interaction to cater for students with special needs, and the addressing of the needs of a more diverse student population (Delpit, 1995). Teachers' collegial professionalism now extends beyond the school walls and encompasses their work with other professionals involved in education such as social workers and educational psychologists in particular. In relation to teacher education, over the last decade in many countries new understandings of optimal conditions of learning to teach – during ITE and induction in the context of university-school partnerships – have created a new appreciation of teachers as school-based teacher educators and highlighted the need to foster close relationships with university-based teacher educators (Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Furlong, 2002; OECD, 2005). All these changes in collegial relationships have dramatically altered the potential range and intensity of teachers' day-to-day collegial interactions.

Finally, relationships between parents and teachers have changed significantly over the last two decades in Ireland and many other countries due to: (i) a new appreciation of the potential role of parents and the home in enhancing children's learning (Conaty, 2002; Sheldon & Epstein, 2005; Conway, 2005); and (ii) new reporting and communication practices between home and school, driven by increasing attention to issues of accountability (Power & Clark, 2000; Hall, Conway, Rath, Murphy & McKeon, 2008).

All these changing relationships point to the emergence of a new set of expectations for the contemporary teacher. Taken together, these new expectations mean that tomorrow's teachers need to be able to engage – in and outside the classroom – with a wider array of people than has been the case. In terms of learning to teach, teachers need opportunities to develop their knowledge and skills in each of these relational settings.

### ***1.3 Three perennial challenges in teacher education: The apprenticeship, enactment and reform-oriented teaching***

Darling-Hammond (2006) identifies two perennial challenges in learning to teach, namely, the apprenticeship of observation and enactment. Recognising the nature of rolling reform of curriculum that characterises education today, we have added a third

perennial problem: the challenge of reform-oriented teaching. This is not only an issue for initial teacher education and induction but remains an issue across the continuum given the new expectations for all teachers today (Table 1.6).

The potential problems associated with the apprenticeship of observation, as we noted earlier in this chapter, originate in teachers' own extensive experiences of schooling which shape and filter their interpretation of all aspects of ITE, induction and subsequent CPD. Of course, much learned in the apprenticeship is valuable but the powerful filtering role played by the apprenticeship may undermine or weaken the impact of teacher education.

The problem of enactment centres on the challenges of doing many things at once while learning to teach. Student teachers have to know a lot about how students learn, they need to plan and undertake lessons in crowded busy classrooms, respond to students, orchestrate small and large group aspects of lessons and address interruptions, all while attempting to execute detailed lesson plans. The problem of enactment brings to the surface the role of knowledge in teaching: do teachers apply knowledge to practice (Schön, 1983; Korthagen, 2001) or is theory inseparable from and embedded in practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Schön, 1983 & 1987)?

Taken together, new conceptions of subject matter, teaching, learning and assessment, present what can be termed the challenge of learning to teach for reform-oriented teaching. This problem is very much a challenge to current schooling as many of the core features of practice are now seen as inadequate to meeting the needs of a knowledge society. In a knowledge society, citizens will need not only to be capable of acquiring knowledge, but they will have a very different relationship to knowledge from that which dominated schooling in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Cultivating a sense that knowledge is creatable and improvable is a characteristic of this new orientation (Bereiter, 2002). In terms of curriculum reform, this emphasis is reflected in efforts to foster greater ownership of learning (sometimes termed self-regulated learning), problem-solving and creativity in education systems around the world (Suarez-Orozco & Qin-Hilliard, 2004; Conway & Sloane, 2006; NCCA, 2005). Promoting this new orientation to knowledge in different subject areas will increasingly be a feature of teacher education across the continuum in the coming decades.

**Table 1.6 Perennial challenges of teacher education**

<b>CHALLENGE</b>	<b>IMPLICATIONS</b>
<i>The apprenticeship of observation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Providing opportunities to consider how the apprenticeship has shaped ‘self’ of student teachers in how they understand all aspects of teacher education, from foundations to methods to teaching practice.</li> </ul>
<i>The problem of enactment</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Providing support for student teachers so they can try different methods over time, learn to observe and reflect on, understand and engage in practice in terms of the complexity and eventfulness of classrooms.</li> <li>• Opportunities to practice key features of new teaching strategies where these have been well modelled by practising teachers.</li> </ul>
<i>Teacher education for reform-oriented teaching</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Creating exemplars of reform-oriented teaching.</li> <li>• Providing teaching practice sites that offer contexts for learning about reform-oriented teaching even if they do not always, or rarely, model such practices. In Ireland, new syllabi and curricula, such as Projects Maths at post-primary level or revised primary school curriculum (DES,1999) highlight the challenge.</li> </ul>

## 1.4 Summary: The continuum, reform and the knowledge society

*The capacity of countries – both the world’s most advanced economies and those experiencing rapid development – to compete in the global economy increasingly depends on whether they can meet a fast-growing demand for high-level skills.*

**Schleicher, in McKinsey Report, 2007, p. 9**

*The knowledge economy primarily serves the private good. The knowledge society also encompasses the public good. Our schools have to prepare people for both of them.*

**Hargreaves, *Teaching in the Knowledge Society*, 2003, p. xvi**

In this chapter we have (i) described the purpose, context and content of this report; (ii) outlined key educational reform trends internationally and their impact on the ‘new’ teacher professionalism; (iii) presented a framework on the continuum of teacher education.

### 1.4.1 Educational reform and the ‘new teacher professionalism’

In relation to trends in educational reform and their impact on the continuum of teacher education, the following key points should be noted:

- *The continuum of teacher education has become a key policy focus for national governments and trans-national agencies* (e.g. UNESCO’s *Education for All: The Quality Imperative*; OECD’s *Teachers Matter* study), as well as inter-governmental bodies (e.g. EU’s Tuning Project). This is evident in the proliferation of reports focusing on teacher education over the professional life-cycle (not just initial teacher education). These policy studies are driven by concerns about how to respond to the challenges of globalisation, sustainable development and the knowledge society.
- *Understanding the politics underpinning educational reform is essential in characterising the so-called ‘new teacher professionalism’*: Expectations that teachers will teach to ever-higher standards for an increasingly diverse study population has led to an intensification of teachers’ work in many countries, and this has been further amplified by the use of high-stakes accountability mechanisms. As such, the specific dynamics of educational reform in national contexts influence teacher professionalism and teachers’ morale and identity in

profound ways. In contexts characterised by standardisation and high-stakes consequences for teachers and schools, teacher morale has dropped and there has been a significant damaging influence on teachers right across the continuum, making teacher recruitment and retention especially difficult. Consequently, decisions about how best to institute educational reform, be it more widely in the education system or within teacher education, impact on teaching and teacher education across the continuum in constructive and/or destructive ways.

#### **1.4.2 The continuum framework: Roles, quality, learning, life-cycle and relationships**

In relation to the continuum of teacher education, the following key points should be noted:

- *The contemporary teacher faces more complex and demanding roles.* He or she is expected to develop according to new images of quality teaching and participate in teacher education programmes across the continuum that are based on a situated and assisted practice (not solo practice) model of learning to teach. It is also essential, in order to attain a broad understanding of teaching and teacher education, that it is situated in its changing political, developmental, historical and relational contexts.
- *A number of core challenges face all teacher educators* and each of these needs to be addressed in designing teacher education programmes: (i) the apprenticeship of observation; (ii) the problem of enactment; and (iii) the challenge of learning to teach for reform-oriented teaching. The perennial challenges for teaching are amplified in the knowledge society and mean that teacher education across the continuum must rise to a new level to prepare a more diverse teacher corps to teach a more diverse student body to higher levels of learning. The presence of a reform-oriented context creates discontinuity between the student and beginning teachers' experiences of learning in schools and the type of teaching and learning environments they are expected to design and in which they are expected to teach. In turn, this discontinuity complicates the problem of enactment for student and beginning teachers.
- *The continuum of teacher education includes the apprenticeship of observation.* Conceptualising the continuum of teacher education in terms of the 3 Is (initial, induction and in-service) has been valuable and influential in

broadening the terms of reference and understandings of the intent, nature and scope of the teacher education curriculum. However, the 3 Is model typically does not take seriously the powerful influence of the apprenticeship of observation.

- *Research on teacher development has been strongly focused on the role of biography and context* and adopted methods that provide insights into the powerful role of both of these on teacher development across the continuum. Research on the initial and induction phases of teacher development is especially well developed.

### **1.5 Conclusion: A broad and deep teacher education**

In adopting a focus on initial teacher education and its interface and implications for the continuum of teacher education, we note the policy appeal (in Ireland and elsewhere) of the 3 Is as a way of framing the continuum of teacher education. In some jurisdictions, early professional development (EPD), a fourth phase, is also recognised. We think the continuum ought to include the apprenticeship of observation and the 3 Is, and also, if we take development of expertise literature seriously, it makes sense to consider the first five years of teaching as a particularly opportune time to promote high-quality teachers and teaching. That is, early professional development (a few years after induction) ought to be viewed as a phase worthy of support and resources focused on refining practice in classrooms. Thus, we pay careful attention to the manner in which we, and others, use key terms in writing our report. Consigning all but the first three-to-five years to one phase of the continuum – the in-service phase encompassing up to forty years of the teacher’s career – may short-circuit important policy conversations and study the changing demands, challenges and opportunities across the teaching life-cycle.

Understanding the developmental dynamics across different phases of the professional life-cycle presents significant challenges in planning teacher education across the continuum. Acknowledging the important and undeniable role of school and community contexts in teachers’ experiences of teaching and learning to teach, Feiman-Nemser (2001), synthesising a range of literature on teacher education, presents what we think is a valuable framework on the core tasks of learning to teach across the continuum (see Table 1.7). Two issues are noteworthy. First, the identified core tasks point to the need

for a curriculum of teacher learning that is both **broad and deep**. That is, the four main tasks in ITE point to an expansive and reflexive teacher education. Opportunities to examine firmly held beliefs, for example the apprenticeship of observation, with a view to developing a vision of good teaching cannot be undertaken in short, tricks-of-the-trade courses devoid of opportunities for observation, coaching and feedback from experienced teachers and deep engagement with subject matter and pedagogical strategies in multiple contexts. Second, the **capacity to learn from teaching** is important across the continuum. The development of such a capacity necessitates both the development of a disposition toward such learning, as well as the use of various strategies and tools in a supportive professional learning climate (in and out of school).

In conclusion, focusing on teacher roles, tasks and practices, as a means of understanding the continuum, highlights the multi-dimensional, complex and uncertain contexts within which teachers exercise professional judgement.

**Table 1.7 Core of tasks while learning to teach**

<i>Initial</i>	<i>Induction</i>	<i>Continuing professional development</i>
1. Examine beliefs critically in relation to vision of good teaching.	1. Learn the context – students, curriculum, school community.	1. Extend and deepen subject matter knowledge for teaching
2. Develop subject matter knowledge for teaching.	2. Design responsive instructional programme.	2. Extend and refine repertoire in curriculum, instruction and assessment.
3. Develop an understanding of learners, learning and issues of diversity.	3. Create a classroom learning community.	3. Strengthen skills and dispositions to study and improve teaching.
4. Develop a beginning repertoire.	4. Enact a beginning repertoire.	4. Expand responsibilities and develop leadership skills.
	5. Develop the tools and dispositions to study teaching.	5. Develop a professional identity.

SOURCE: Feiman-Nemser, 2001

Optimal teaching, whether defined in terms of quality, good or successful teaching, plays a central role in the continuum as it presents canonical images of desirable professional practice toward which teachers and the system more widely strive. These canonical images of desirable teaching practice are underpinned by values – explicit and implicit – of what counts as worthwhile teaching. Through the politics of educational

accountability (and reform when it occurs), these images of optimal teaching practice shape teachers' identities while they learn to teach throughout their working lives.



## **Chapter Two: Learning to teach in different countries: Insights from learning by comparing**

### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter provides an overview of the *learning to teach* context in Ireland and in each of the nine countries selected for detailed consideration in this study: England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Finland, New Zealand, Singapore, the United States and Poland. These are presented here under four headings: initial teacher education, induction, learning outcomes/standards and accreditation. Information under each heading is presented in a table (Tables 2.2-2.5), followed by a brief discussion of the issues arising. The discussion of accreditation processes is more detailed, given the role of the Teaching Council in the accreditation of initial teacher education in Ireland. Section 2.0.4 focuses in particular on those countries where teaching councils play a similar role.

For more details of the context and structure of teacher education in each country, please see Appendix A, which contains a profile of Ireland for comparative purposes followed by profiles of each of the eight other countries in our study. The teacher education country-level overviews are structured as follows: (i) socio-political and cultural context; (ii) structure and governance. Key features of curriculum, assessment and monitoring arrangements in each country are included in order to set the scene for teacher education.

In undertaking country-level reviews, we have sourced two types of documents: (i) primary source documents on teacher education policy in selected countries, that is, material published by ministries of education, teaching councils, etc.; (ii) secondary source documents which provide commentary and analysis of teacher education policies in selected countries. Typically, these are written by academics with expertise in teacher education policy. In accessing key primary and secondary source documents, we have accessed these through the following databases: EURYDICE, INCA, ISI Web of Science. These databases have provided access to:

- Policy reviews undertaken in other countries by and/or for national agencies

- Policy reviews undertaken by international inter-governmental bodies (e.g. OECD) as well as international research agencies (e.g. IEA)
- Conceptual frameworks focusing on standards and competences for teachers and teacher education programmes at all levels (e.g. NCATE, INTASC, NBPTS in the USA) and relevant teacher education/training agencies and/or ministries of education
- High quality empirical studies of teacher education with a focus on professional and scholarly consensus in the areas of learning, teaching, teacher learning, and teacher education.

In relation to the wider literature on teacher education we are using various research handbooks on teaching and teacher education, as well as key reviews of learning and its relationship to and implications for teaching and teacher education. In order to undertake the proposed review for the Teaching Council, we are making considerable use of existing international handbooks and policy reviews of teacher education.

In relation to research on teaching and teacher education in Ireland, we searched issues of *Oideas*, *Irish Journal of Education* and *Irish Educational Studies*, as well as key policy documents on teaching and teacher education in Ireland (e.g. Coolahan, 2003; reports of the Working Group on Primary Preservice Education, 2002; the Advisory Group on Post-primary Teacher Education, 2002; reports of the Inspectorate on *Learning to Teach* and *Beginning to Teach*, 2006, 2007; INTO, 2006; Drudy, 2006).

The country profiles demonstrate how local and global factors impinge on teacher education (see Table 2.1). All the countries in our study have seen major reforms in their education systems over the last two decades, and these are ongoing. These reforms have arisen in response to local factors (e.g. major political and economic changes in the case of Poland) and also as a consequence of more widespread factors such as the global move towards a knowledge society and a culture of lifelong learning. The countries in this study include three of Ireland's nearest neighbours, chosen because of the particularly close relationship and exchange of ideas between teachers and teacher educators here and in Northern Ireland, England and Scotland. Scotland and Northern Ireland in particular share many similarities with the Irish education system and both have conducted reviews of teacher education in recent years.

**Table 2.1 Rationale and primary sources for country-level comparisons**

<i>Country</i>	<i>Rationale</i>	<i>Some key primary source documents</i>
<b>1. England</b>	Neighbouring jurisdiction; Influential role of its school-led teacher education reforms on policy directions and debate; Strong research base on teacher education.	TDA (2007). <i>Professional Standards for Teachers in England from September 2007</i> ; TDA (2007). <i>QTS standards and ITT requirements guidance</i> .
<b>2. Northern Ireland</b>	Neighbouring jurisdiction; Considerable amount of recent comparative research on teacher education via SCoTENS.	DENI (2005). <i>Policy Review of Teacher Education in Northern Ireland (Osler report)</i> GTCNI (2007). <i>Teaching: The Reflective Profession. Incorporating the Northern Ireland Teacher Competences</i> .
<b>3. Scotland</b>	Neighbouring jurisdiction; Teaching Council well-established since mid-1960s; Compare and contrast with other jurisdictions in UK.	The Scottish Executive (2005) <i>Review of Initial Teacher Education Stage: Report of the Review Group</i> ; Scottish Executive (2005) <i>Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland</i> .
<b>4. USA</b>	Strong tradition of research in teacher education; Some very high-quality, well-researched teacher education programmes; Contrasting outcomes for students of teachers who go through conventional high quality ITE and alternative certification (typically low quality).	National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) (2008). <i>Professional Standards for the Accreditation of Teacher Preparation Institutions</i> .
<b>5. New Zealand</b>	Small, successful English-speaking outward country; Has been heavily influenced by OECD advice vis-à-vis education; High standards (TIMSS; PISA); Strong influence of neo-liberal inspired social and economic policies.	New Zealand Teachers Council (2005). <i>Standards for Qualifications that lead to Teacher Registration</i> ; New Zealand Ministry of Education (2007). <i>Becoming A Teacher in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century. A Review of Initial Teacher Education Policy</i> .
<b>6. Finland</b>	Leader internationally in education due to recent recognition of its high educational standards (PISA, 2000, 2003 and 2006); Strong social democratic model which has impacted teaching and teacher education; Significant re-orientation and investment in teacher education from 1970s onwards; High levels of immigration in recent past; Has been heavily influenced by OECD advice vis-à-vis education.	Ministry of Education (Finland) (2006). <i>Final report of the Teacher Education Development Programme</i> .
<b>7. Singapore</b>	East Asian country; Recently highly successful; Consistently high level of investment in education; High educational standards (TIMSS; TIMSS-R; PISA, 2000, 2003, 2006).	Ministry of Education, Singapore. (2006) <i>Teaching as a Career</i> .
<b>8. Poland</b>	Eastern European; Rapidly expanding economy as well as education system; Influx of immigrants from Poland to Ireland.	Eurydice (2005/2006). <i>The Education System in Poland: Teachers and Education Staff</i> Gorzela, M. (2005). National In-service Teacher Training Centre, Warsaw: <i>Reform of Teacher Education in Poland</i> .

Finland is included because of the outstanding achievements of Finnish students in recent international evaluations, e.g. PISA 2006. Similar to Ireland, teachers in Finland have the longest period of initial preparation of all the countries in our study; they are

also well paid and enjoy a high status in society. Singapore comes from a very different paradigm, although it has some similarities with Finland. Its students also perform at high levels in international comparisons, teaching is a high-status occupation and entry into teacher education is highly competitive. ITE in Singapore is centralised at the National Institute of Education, and is closely related both to the needs of the economy and to the expressed image of what a Singaporean citizen should be. Ireland has begun to establish closer economic ties with Singapore in recent years, so it is interesting to consider the differences and similarities in how they have addressed the move towards a high-tech economy there in terms of education.

New Zealand was chosen because it has many points of similarity in size and structures to Ireland, but also because there have been some interesting developments there in recent years. New Zealand has conducted an extensive review of teacher education, and the resulting document, *Becoming a Teacher in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century* (NZ Ministry of Education, 2007) presents a vision of ITE as part of a seamless continuum, across all stages of a teaching career. This document focuses on the processes that are needed to ensure a common understanding of ITE from early childhood to primary and secondary education. New Zealand is also noteworthy for its work on developing an early childhood curriculum framework which has strongly influenced the proposed Irish *Framework for Early Learning* which will link with and enhance the Primary Curriculum at infant level when it is adopted (NCCA, 2008).

The United States presents a very different picture: a huge diversity in provision, regulation, and achievement across a country where each state sets its own standards, and where, nonetheless, much work has been done towards establishing some consensus on what high quality teacher education might encompass.

Poland was chosen as one example of the changes that have taken place in eastern European countries in recent years as they became part of the European Union. Poland is also the accession country with the largest number of migrants into Ireland since the enlargement of the EU in 2004, so the education structure there is of particular interest.

**Table 2.2 Initial teacher education arrangements in 9 countries**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Pre-primary (school based or teacher-led)</b>	<b>Primary</b>	<b>Post-primary (lower)</b>	<b>Post-primary (upper)</b>
<b>Ireland</b>	<p><i>State-funded teachers in Early Start pre-school and infant classes in primary schools:</i></p> <p>As for primary teachers</p> <p><i>Early education and care outside the statutory education system:</i></p> <p>No minimum qualification required as yet. Model Framework for Education, Training and Professional Development in the Early Childhood Care and Education Sector (DJELR, 2002) currently being further developed. Variety of qualifications currently available, including 3- and 4-year degrees in early education and care in universities and institutes of technology, degrees and diplomas in Montessori education, and FETAC Level 4 and 5 qualifications in childcare.</p>	<p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>B.Ed: minimum 3 year degree programme in College of Education</p> <p>Montessori degree recognised for teaching in restricted settings</p> <p><i>Consecutive</i></p> <p>Recognised degree (e.g. B.A., B.Sc.) plus 18 month full-time Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) in one of the Colleges of Education</p> <p><i>Or</i></p> <p>Recognised degree (e.g. B.A., B.Sc.) plus Higher Diploma in Arts in Primary Education (on-line distance learning course from Hibernia College).</p>	<p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>3- or 4-year degree in a teaching subject(s) plus 1-year Postgraduate in Education (PGE) or Graduate Diploma in Education or Higher Diploma in Education (Secondary) or Postgraduate Diploma in Education through Irish (Dioplóma Iarchéime san Oideachas).</p> <p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>3- or 4-year degree in specialised subject (e.g. art, music, physical education, materials and construction technology), with teaching qualification integrated, e.g. B.Ed. in Sports Studies and P.E.</p>	As for Post-primary (lower)

Country	Pre-primary (school based or teacher-led)	Primary	Post-primary (lower)	Post-primary (upper)
<b>England</b>	<p><i>Teachers in state-funded (maintained) nursery schools:</i></p> <p>As for primary teachers.</p>	<p>3- or 4-year degree programme (B.Ed.)</p> <p>Full or part-time Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE)</p> <p>Shorter full- and part-time concurrent programmes for mature students</p> <p>Employment-based programmes, including</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Graduate Teacher Programme (<i>GTP</i>).</li> <li>• The Registered Teacher Programme (<i>RTP</i>).</li> <li>• The Overseas Trained Teacher Programme (<i>OTTP</i>).</li> <li>• The ‘assessment only’ route to Qualified Teacher Status (<i>QTS</i>).</li> </ul>	<p>3- or 4-year degree programme, e.g. B.Ed.; B.A. (Ed.); B.Sc. (Ed.)</p> <p>Full or part-time Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE)</p> <p>Shorter full- and part-time concurrent programmes for mature students</p> <p>Employment-based programmes, including</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Graduate Teacher Programme (<i>GTP</i>).</li> <li>• The Registered Teacher Programme (<i>RTP</i>).</li> <li>• The Overseas Trained Teacher Programme (<i>OTTP</i>).</li> <li>• The ‘assessment only’ route to Qualified Teacher Status (<i>QTS</i>)</li> <li>• ‘Teach First’.</li> </ul>	As for Post-primary (lower).

Country	Pre-primary (school based or teacher-led)	Primary	Post-primary (lower)	Post-primary (upper)
<b>Northern Ireland</b>	In pre-school education located in grant-aided schools, there must be a qualified teacher (as for Primary teaching) and a qualified nursery assistant holding a certificate, diploma or degree approved by the Education and Library Boards (ELB).	<p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>4-year degree programme (B.Ed.) (primary).</p> <p>4-year. B.Ed. with Teaching Certificate in Bilingual Ed. (for teaching in Irish-medium schools).</p> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Degree plus 1-year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) (primary).</p> <p>Degree plus 1-year PGCE (for teaching in Irish-medium schools).</p>	<p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>4-year degree programme (B.Ed.) (secondary, with teaching subject specialism).</p> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Degree plus 1-year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) (secondary). Part-time PGCE option also available.</p>	As for Post-primary (lower)
<b>Scotland</b>	<p><i>Nursery schools or nursery classes in primary schools:</i></p> <p><b>Teacher:</b> qualification as for Primary.</p> <p><b>Nursery nurses and assistants:</b> vocational qualifications as laid down by local authorities. An integrated qualification and professional development framework for childcare workers is being developed and a new award is expected to be introduced by universities, colleges and training providers in Autumn 2008.</p>	<p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>4-year degree programme (B.Ed.) (primary).</p> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Degree plus 1 year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) (primary).</p> <p><i>Distance education:</i></p> <p>Distance-learning ITE course for students in the Highland Council area. Includes the opportunity to train as a Gaelic-medium primary teacher.</p>	<p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>3- or 4-year degree (B.Ed.) (secondary, with teaching subject specialism). Also 4-year degree (B.Ed.) (secondary) for specialists in technology, PE or music.</p> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Degree plus 1 year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) (secondary).</p> <p>Distance-learning ITE course using video-conferencing and internet to train Gaelic-medium teachers in secondary schools in the Highland Council area.</p>	

Country	Pre-primary (school based or teacher-led)	Primary	Post-primary (lower)	Post-primary (upper)
<b>Finland</b>	<p><i>Pre-compulsory education for children within school sector (children aged 6–7):</i></p> <p>Qualifications as for class teachers</p> <p><i>Separate Kindergarten and Preschool classes:</i></p> <p>As for class teachers</p> <p>OR</p> <p>3-year bachelor's degree in Education Science</p>	<p><i>Comprehensive School, years 1–6 (class teachers):</i></p> <p>Master's degree in Education Science compulsory.</p>	<p><i>Comprehensive School, years 7–9 (specialised subject teachers):</i></p> <p>Master's degree compulsory.</p> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Postgraduate pedagogical studies on completion of a subject-specific degree.</p> <p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>Integrated master's degree, with major in academic teaching subjects, minor in pedagogy. Only available in a few subjects.</p>	<p><i>Post-compulsory Upper secondary (specialised subject teachers):</i></p> <p>Master's degree compulsory.</p> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Postgraduate pedagogical studies on completion of a subject-specific degree.</p> <p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>Integrated master's degree, with major in academic teaching subjects, minor in pedagogy. Only available in a few subjects.</p> <p><i>Vocational schools:</i></p> <p>Degree from University or vocational institute of higher education, followed by pedagogical studies at vocational institute of higher education, often after several years of workplace experience.</p>



Country	Pre-primary (school based or teacher-led)	Primary	Post-primary (lower)	Post-primary (upper)
<b>New Zealand</b>	<p><i>Qualifications needed to teach in teacher-led early childhood education and care centres, kindergartens:</i></p> <p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 3-year undergraduate Diploma or 3-year Degree:</li> <li>• Diploma of Teaching (Early Childhood Education)</li> <li>• Diploma of Teaching (Early Childhood) (distance learning)</li> <li>• B.Ed. (Teach.) Early Childhood Education (also with various specialisations – Maori and Pasifika education, Montessori, Steiner)</li> <li>• Bachelor of Teaching and Learning (Maori Education – the early years).</li> </ul> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Postgraduate Diploma (1 year) Graduate Diploma of Teaching – Early Childhood (1-year postgraduate)</p>	<p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>3-year* degree in teaching/education, with specialisation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• B.Ed. (Teaching) Primary specialisation</li> <li>• B.Ed. (Teaching) Maori specialisation</li> <li>• B.Ed. (Montessori primary teaching)</li> <li>• B.Ed. (Steiner primary teaching)</li> <li>• B.Ed. (Teaching) Primary</li> <li>• B.Ed. (Teaching) Early Years (birth to 8 years).</li> <li>• B.Ed. Teaching and Learning (Primary).</li> </ul> <p>4-year degree: B.Ed. Studies/ Graduate Diploma in Teaching – Primary</p> <p><i>Conjoint degrees:</i></p> <p>4 years, 2 subjects and teacher education:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• B.A./B.Teach.</li> <li>• B.Sc./B.Teach.</li> <li>• B.Com/B.Teach.</li> </ul> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Postgraduate Diploma (1 year/15 months*) Graduate Diploma in Teaching (Primary).</p> <p>*May also be completed part-time over a longer period in some HEIs.</p>	<p><i>Concurrent:</i></p> <p>4-year degree:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• B.Ed. with specialisation in Physical Education</li> <li>• B.Phys. Ed.</li> <li>• B.Ed. with specialisation in technology.</li> </ul> <p><i>Conjoint degrees:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 4 years, 2 subjects and teacher education: B.A./B.Teach.</li> <li>• B.Sc./B.Teach.</li> <li>• B.Com./B.Teach.</li> </ul> <p>4 years, 2 subjects and teacher education, with specialisation in teaching Years 7–10; B.A./B.Teach. B.Sc./B.Teach. B.Soc. Sc./B.Teach. B.Sports and Leisure Studies/B.Teach.</p> <p><i>Consecutive:</i></p> <p>Graduate Diploma of Teaching (Secondary) (1 year) B.Teach. (Secondary) (2-year course for graduates who already have a B.A., B.Sc., etc.)</p> <p>Graduate Diploma in Teaching (Secondary) (school and competency based, flexible).</p>	As for Post-primary (lower)

Country	Pre-primary (school based or teacher-led)	Primary	Post-primary (lower)	Post-primary (upper)
<b>Singapore</b>	<p><i>Current minimum standards for teaching in kindergarten (children aged 3–6) or childcare centres (children from birth to 6):</i></p> <p>3 O-levels including a credit in English language, and a Certificate in Pre-school Teaching.</p> <p><i>Minimum qualifications for new teachers, from January 2009:</i> 5 O-Level credits, including English Language, and a Diploma in Pre-School Education-Teaching.</p> <p>Certificates and Diploma Courses from independent providers must be accredited by Pre-School Qualification Accreditation Committee (PQAS).</p> <p>A diploma in pre-school education is required for teachers with a primary teaching qualification who wish to teach in a kindergarten or childcare centre.</p>	<p><i>Compulsory primary education, ages 6–12</i></p> <p>All courses provided by the National Institute of Education (NIE), part of Nanyang Technological University:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) (1 year) following undergraduate degree with one or two teaching subjects</li> <li>• Diploma in Education (2 years) for applicants with A level or polytechnic qualifications</li> <li>• B.A. (Education) or B.Sc. (Education) (4 years)</li> <li>• Teacher Training Diploma in Mother Tongue Language (4 years)</li> <li>• PDGE (PE) or Dip. (PE) (2 years) for teachers teaching PE as one of their subjects.</li> </ul>	<p><i>Compulsory, ages 12–16</i></p> <p>All courses provided by the National Institute of Education (NIE), part of Nanyang Technological University:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) (1 yr) following undergraduate degree with one or two teaching subjects</li> <li>• Teacher Training Diploma in either Art and Music, or Home Economics (4 years)</li> <li>• PDGE (PE) (2 years) for teachers teaching PE as one of their subjects.</li> </ul>	<p><i>Post-Compulsory, ages 16–18+</i></p> <p>As for Post-primary (lower).</p>

Country	Pre-primary (school based or teacher-led)	Primary	Post-primary (lower)	Post-primary (upper)
<p><b>USA</b></p> <p><i>Note:</i> Requirements for being granted QTS vary by state. State boards of education set criteria for licensing and may require applicants to pass tests in general knowledge, reading and maths, as well as having a recognised academic qualification. Over 1000 institutions offer ITE courses, including colleges of education and liberal arts colleges which offer add-on teacher training programmes. States with a shortage of teachers may offer alternate or work-based routes into teaching for people who already possess a bachelor's degree.</p>	<p><i>Pre-kindergarten and kindergarten (ages 3–6):</i></p> <p>As for primary.</p>	<p><i>Compulsory primary (ages 5/6 to 11/12):</i></p> <p>No standard route into teaching. Primary teachers tend to be generalists, though specialist teachers may be available for PE, art, science or music.</p> <p>Typically states require teachers to have a bachelor's degree (4 years), and to either have teacher training incorporated into the undergraduate course or taken as a post graduate add-on in preparation for teacher certification exams. Most states require a major in education with general coursework in both the humanities and the sciences.<sup>6</sup></p>	<p><i>Lower secondary( to age 13/14):</i></p> <p>After grade 6 (ages 11/12), children are taught by subject specialists. 25 states require candidates to have a major in the subject they wish to teach, 11 require at least a minor, and 9 require a pass in a subject matter exam.</p> <p><i>Four main pathways into teaching:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Blended or concurrent:</i> 4-year programmes for students without a bachelor's degree which combines teacher training with a degree course.</li> <li>2. <i>Pre-internship:</i> Courses in subject matter development which aim to help student get places on teacher training courses.</li> <li>3. <i>Internship – 2-3 years:</i> Students with a degree receive supported classroom experience whilst they undertake course work in educational theory and teaching strategies for their teaching credential.</li> <li>4. <i>Post-baccalaureate – consecutive courses:</i> Teacher training course following the bachelor degree. Typically, courses are two or three semesters long and include a placement in school. May lead to a master's.</li> </ol>	<p><i>As for Post-primary (lower)</i></p>

<sup>6</sup> Sources: INCA (2008); OECD (2005). Teachers Matter: United States Country Background Report

Country	Pre-primary (school based or teacher- led)	Primary	Post-primary (lower)	Post- primary(upper)
<b>Poland</b>	<p><i>Pre-primary year in schools (ages 6–7):</i></p> <p>As for primary.</p>	<p><i>Compulsory primary education (6 years from age 7–13):</i></p> <p>Teachers must have either: 3-year Diploma from Teacher Training College: professional title of <i>Licencjat</i> from associated university</p> <p>OR</p> <p>3-year <i>Licencjat</i> or 5-year (or 3+2) <i>Magister edukacji</i> from university.</p>	<p><i>Compulsory lower post-primary Gymnasium (3 years, age 13 to age 16):</i></p> <p>Teachers must have 3-year <i>Licencjat</i></p> <p>OR</p> <p>5-year (or 3+2) <i>Magister edukacji</i> from university.</p>	<p><i>Compulsory to age 18:</i></p> <p>Teachers must have 5-year (or 3+2) <i>Magister edukacji</i> from university.</p>

## **2.0.1 Initial teacher education across the nine countries**

A number of key issues are noteworthy in reviewing initial teacher education provision across the nine selected countries.

### **2.0.1.1 Teaching as graduate profession**

This is noteworthy especially with moves in some countries to provide short emergency teacher certification in response to teacher shortages (Zeichner, 2008; O'Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008). In the Irish context, the move toward teaching as a graduate profession has been debated for over a hundred years. In 1912 the Teachers Guild pressed the then Lord Lieutenant to provide a registration council for intermediate and secondary teachers along with a probationary period, as well as indicating different pay scales for qualified and unqualified teachers. In 1967, the Commission on Higher Education debated strongly the merits of making primary teaching a graduate profession.

### **2.0.1.2 A range of pathways into teaching**

In general, countries have a variety of pathways into teaching that partly reflect considered policy to ensure a diverse teaching force (a more recent concern), but which typically have evolved through historical arrangements and compromises in policy and provision. In the Irish context, there is considerable diversity of pathways into teaching with concurrent and consecutive models available at both primary and post-primary levels. Coolahan (2003) notes that there is a lack of student teachers from minority groups and low socio-economic status groups in Irish society. Addressing this issue in future has implications for the range of provision options in addition to other factors such as entry requirements.

### **2.0.1.3 The emergence of new pathways due to deregulation**

Zeichner (2008) observed that the drive to deregulate teaching in the USA has led to short-term emergency certification. In England a different version of deregulation has led to employment-based teacher education in which higher education institutes (HEIs) have played no role in teacher education. One argument made by those in favour of more pathways into teaching is that it will create a more diverse teaching corps. The challenge of widening participation in teaching for minority groups is a significant

policy concern in a number of the countries in our study. For example, in Northern Ireland (a study of entry selection processes into teacher education called for a more ‘inclusive selection process if a more representative teaching workforce is to be achieved, capable of meeting the needs of increasingly diverse learners’ (Moran, 2008, p. 63).

#### **2.0.1.4 The length of initial teacher education**

In terms of the duration of ITE, a similar pattern occurs across countries with three- and/or four-year undergraduate concurrent programmes and one- to two-year post-graduate or consecutive programmes. Finland is the one exception where prospective teachers must undertake a five-year programme culminating in a master’s degree involving a significant inquiry component.

#### **2.0.1.5 Policy interest in initial teacher education and its links to the continuum**

There is significant interest among policy-makers in considering the links between ITE and the rest of the continuum of teacher education. This is evident in a focus on enhancing methodologies in ITE that will prepare teachers well for the early years in teaching rather than in arguments for extending ITE itself. Rather, efforts to strengthen professional preparation of teachers involve links across phases in terms of professional orientation (e.g. an inquiry stance) and professional standards/competences across phases of the continuum.

### **2.0.2 Induction**

The following table (Table 2.3) summarises the arrangements for induction of newly qualified teachers (NQTs) in all the countries in our study. In several of the countries, (e.g. England, Scotland, New Zealand, Singapore) full registration as a teacher is linked to the requirement to complete a period of induction, while in others, induction is less formal. In the United States, the situation varies from state to state; some states have exemplary programmes of induction and these are discussed in the case studies that follow the table.

The level of support for beginning teachers during this important phase also varies. In general, the countries that require induction also allow a reduced teaching workload

for the NQT and may also allow time for induction mentors to engage in professional development. Induction is increasingly seen as an important part of becoming a teacher, and one of the objectives of the National Pilot Project on Teacher Induction in Ireland (Killeavy, 2004) is to identify best practice as a basis for future policy in this area.

**Table 2.3 Induction arrangements for newly qualified teachers (NQTs) in 9 countries**

Country	Qualified teacher status (QTS) /registration requirements	Compulsory induction?	Length of induction/ Reduced workload?	Features of induction process
<b>Ireland</b>	<b>Registration with Teaching Council:</b> Requirements for recognition as qualified teacher (degree/teaching qualification – see Table 2.1) set by DES. On graduation, subject to Garda vetting, NQTs are eligible for conditional registration with the Teaching Council until they have successfully completed a process of post-qualification experience (for post-primary teachers) or probation (for primary teachers).	Yes, for registration.	Primary: 1-year probation.  Post-primary: 1-year post-qualification experience induction. No reduced workload.	Primary teachers are supported and evaluated by the inspectorate during their probation year.  There is no formal induction scheme at present for post-primary teachers. Registration is granted on satisfactory completion of first year's teaching. Application must be endorsed by school principal.  The National Pilot Project on Teacher Induction was established in answer to growing concerns about the challenges facing newly qualified teachers in their early years teaching. The project aims to develop and evaluate models of induction and to identify best practice as a basis for future policy in the area (Killeavy, 2006).

Country	Qualified teacher status (QTS) /registration requirements	Compulsory induction?	Length of induction/ Reduced workload?	Features of induction process
Scotland	<p><b>Teaching Qualification</b> (<i>TQ – Primary education or TQ – Secondary education</i>) awarded on successful completion of ITE course, with recommendation from principal/head of department in college along with health and police checks. NQTs then <b>provisionally registered</b> with the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS). Full registration follows a period of probation and assessment and depends on the GTCS receiving satisfactory reports on the teacher’s work.</p> <p>GTCS sets out <b>Standards for ITE and Standards for Full Registration.</b></p>	<p>Yes, for registration.</p> <p><b>Full registration</b> granted to teachers who have satisfactorily demonstrated that they have achieved the Standard for Full Registration (SFR), during a period of probationary service.</p>	<p>There are two options for probation/ induction:</p> <p><b>1. Teacher Induction Scheme:</b> 1 year – 3 school terms; 70% teaching workload</p> <p>OR</p> <p><b>2. Alternative route:</b> At least 270 teaching days – 4 school terms.</p>	<p>1. The <b>Teacher Induction Scheme</b> (TIS) provides a guaranteed 1-year training placement to every eligible student graduating with a teaching qualification from one of Scotland’s universities. Each NQT has access to a nominated <b>induction tutor/ supporter</b> within the school to provide advice, support and guidance. NQT compiles portfolio of professional development over the year. <b>Interim profile</b> of NQT sent to GTCS in December, <b>Final profile</b> at end of May. Principal, along with induction tutor, completes Interim and Final profiles of NQT. Funding provided to local authorities to support induction scheme.</p> <p><b>2. Alternative Route:</b> NQT must submit evidence of support provided, periods of observed teaching and CPD, records of teaching done, interim and final profiles and recommendation from principal.</p>



Country	Qualified teacher status (QTS) /registration requirements	Compulsory induction?	Length of induction/ Reduced workload?	Features of induction process
<b>England</b>	QTS granted on graduation from ITT, but continued recognition depends on satisfactory completion of induction.	Yes, since 1999.	3 school terms.  90% workload.	<p><b>School based:</b> individual programme of development and monitoring, and assessment against national standards.</p> <p><b>Induction tutor:</b> an experienced teacher who has day-to-day responsibility for the monitoring, support and assessment of an NQT.</p> <p><b>Headteacher:</b> ensures NQT has appropriate induction programme and makes recommendation that NQT has satisfactorily completed induction.</p>
<b>Northern Ireland</b>	<p><b>‘Eligibility to teach’</b> on completion of ITE course. Course must be accredited by Department of Education on basis of reports by Education and Training Inspectorate.</p> <p><b>Registration</b> with GTCNI compulsory for teachers in grant-aided schools. Initial registration based on completing ITE.</p>	Yes	<p>Year 1: Induction ‘Appropriate timetable and an appropriate amount of non-contact time’.</p> <p>Years 2 and 3: Early professional development (EPD).</p>	<p><b>Requirements for induction</b> set out in Teacher Education Partnership Handbook .</p> <p><b>Career Entry Profile (CEP)</b> of beginning teacher used to draw up plan for induction .</p> <p><b>Beginning teacher</b> compiles portfolio of professional development over the year.</p> <p><b>Principal</b> oversees monitoring and evaluation, facilitates induction.</p> <p><b>Teacher-tutor</b> supports induction of beginning teacher: informs, observes, advises, gives feedback and oversees development, implementation and review of induction action plan.</p> <p><b>Education and Library Boards</b> provide in-service courses to beginning teachers during the induction period, and training and development for teacher-tutors .</p> <p><b>School Board of Governors</b> confirms to DE on the recommendation of the principal and in the light of a satisfactory report that beginning teacher has completed the induction stage of teacher education, and may begin EPD.</p>

Country	Qualified teacher status (QTS) /registration requirements	Compulsory induction?	Length of induction/ Reduced workload?	Features of induction process
Finland	5-year master's degree with significant pedagogical content needed for recognition as a qualified teacher.	Not at present.		3 days per year in-service training available to all teachers. Some studies currently being done on mentoring and support for NQTs.
New Zealand	<p><b>Provisional registration</b> granted on graduation from a teacher education programme that has been approved by the New Zealand Teachers' Council and a satisfactory police record.</p> <p><b>Full registration</b> requires:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• approved initial teacher education qualification</li> <li>• satisfactory police record</li> <li>• gaining and maintaining employment as a provisionally registered teacher for at least two years</li> <li>• participating in an advice and guidance programme in a school or early childhood service</li> <li>• attestation of competence against the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions by the principal or management of the employing school or early childhood service.</li> </ul>	Yes	<p>2 years funded. Maximum of 5 years to complete induction process and achieve full registration.</p> <p>80% workload in first year, 90% workload in second year.</p>	<p>School management, principal, <b>mentor/supervising teacher</b> and provisionally registered teacher her/himself all responsible for ensuring an <b>advice and guidance programme</b> is put in place, including opportunities to observe expert lessons.</p> <p><b>Funding</b> made available to schools for support. Allowance paid to mentor in primary schools.</p> <p><b>Principal's recommendation</b> needed for full registration.</p>

Country	Qualified teacher status (QTS) /registration requirements	Compulsory induction?	Length of induction/ Reduced workload?	Features of induction process
<b>Singapore</b>	<p>Entrance to ITE courses controlled by Ministry of Education.</p> <p>After graduation from ITE, allocated to a school and employed as 'beginning teacher'.</p>	Yes	<p>1 year.</p> <p>80% teaching workload.</p>	<p>School based; <b>mentored and guided</b> by experienced teachers. Beginning teachers learn from them, <b>co-teach</b> and acquire <b>on-the-job training</b>. Mentor also has reduced teaching load.</p>
<b>USA</b>	<p>Requirements vary from state to state within the US. Many (30+) use the INTASC standards as a basis for state standards and requirements. Most states require completion of an approved course of teacher education, and many also require teachers to pass a state test.</p> <p>In 31 states, beginning teachers get an initial license for 2–5 years, with a permanent license when additional requirements are met.</p>		<p>Varies widely between states. Many states have begun to require structured support programmes for beginning teachers. Michigan has a 3-year mentoring/ induction requirement for NQTs; mentoring in New Jersey varies from 1 to 3 years.</p>	
<b>Poland</b>	<p><b>Trainee teacher</b> status on graduation with recognised teaching qualification. Progression to <b>Contract teacher</b>.</p>	Yes	<p>Trainee teacher: first 9 months. Contract teacher: next 2 years 9 months.</p>	<p>Trainee and Contract teachers both supervised by <i>staż tutor</i>, an experienced teacher employed in the school at <b>Appointed</b> or <b>Chartered</b> teacher level. Support also from school-based teacher-specialist or teacher-psychologist as needed, and from teacher-methodological advisers, either based in the school or in regional or local in-service centres.</p>

### **2.0.3 Induction case studies: BEST Practices**

As discussed later in the review of the literature in Chapter 3, California's BTSA and Connecticut's BEST programmes are recognised as powerful teacher learning induction exemplar programmes. These induction programmes are state-mandated and carefully align teacher learning with curricular, content and academic standard frameworks for student learning. Both programmes provide a focused and intensive support framework for beginning teachers for the first two years of teaching.

The design of the BTSA programme was based on research carried out by the California New Teacher Project (CNTP) which highlighted the need for focused induction support with sufficient intensity to make a difference to teaching performance, retention and satisfaction of beginning teachers. It has integrated formative assessment as a key feature in beginning teacher learning with an emphasis on building a 'seamless bridge' between ITE and the continuum of teacher education. Careful attention is paid to building explicit structural and conceptual links between the different partners in teacher education – the university, school contexts and policy-makers. Trained mentors support beginning teachers as they develop teaching practices, habits and skills that ensure the cultivation of highly qualified and effective teachers. A series of collaborative reflective processes keeps a consistent focus on student learning and teacher learning. Beginning teachers are supported by mentors to collect and interpret evidence of their teaching performance, to reflect on their practice and to identify meaningful professional development that is specifically targeted to individual needs. In particular, mentors work with individual teachers to examine practice decisions in order to align them more closely with Californian curricular frameworks and standards for student learning. There is a consistent focus on planning for improving student learning.

An evaluation of this system by Shields et al. (2001) shows that retention rates improved dramatically when novices were given the quality mentoring support they needed. Not only do these teachers stay in the profession longer but they also become more competent earlier and display a high degree of efficacy and confidence. Research by the California Commission of Teacher Credentialing found that 87% of BTSA teachers were still in teaching four years after graduation compared with a national

figure of 50%. The integrated nature of BTSA induction programmes is such that they carefully structure teacher learning to focus on the translation and enactment of school, district and state standards for student learning. This is rarely the reality of most induction programmes as it requires a shared vision, structure and practices. Snyder (1999) and Darling-Hammond (1997) have documented the key features of the BTSA programme. The integrated nature of this programme and its vision of a continuum of teacher learning has been identified by both researchers as demonstrating best practice in induction. Key features identified include the following:

- Subject specialists oversee the induction plan written for each new teacher, observe and meet with beginning teachers, hold support meetings and observations with site mentors, conduct in-service education, assist site mentors and partner teachers, and oversee the final assessment.
- Specialists, site mentors and partner teachers model lessons for new teachers.
- Site mentors also hold monthly site meetings, schedule release time for new teachers and partner teachers, assist partner teachers and meet with BTSA specialists.
- Partner teachers work with beginning teachers on lesson plans, grading issues, preparing for parent conferences and other aspects of classroom practice.
- Partner teachers work at identifying targeted professional development sessions to meet individual needs.
- Scheduling for release time and budgeting for materials are allowed for.

In the BEST programme in Connecticut beginning teachers are assigned a peer advisor who is a teacher in the grade and content equivalent. This peer advisor is paid to observe and assist the beginning teacher in developing and assessing subject-specific pedagogical strategies. In addition, each beginning teacher is also assigned a senior advisor who mentors three to five beginning teachers and creates a community of learners, and supporting them in the construction of a professional portfolio (in relation to state standards) used to assess the beginning teacher as the basis for his/her licence to teach. This programme is highly integrated and interfaced with state standards and accreditation of ITE programmes. The Connecticut Competency

Instrument (CCI) is specifically designed to measure generic teaching competences and the CCI is also linked to the accreditation of ITE programmes, thereby providing an explicit link between them. In the first year, beginning teachers receive up to six observations by trained state assessors from outside their district which assess their general pedagogical proficiency using the CCI. Youngs (2002) has documented how induction programmes in the Bristol district of Connecticut have greatly improved student learning, teacher retention and mentor/advisor learning. The programme focuses on three broad learning goals for NQTs in the first two years of teaching. These are: helping beginning teachers to examine student learning in relation to state standards, helping beginning teachers to construct and apply subject specific instructional knowledge, and supporting them as they engage in reflective practice. Mentors are provided with ongoing training and support in the work of mentoring and are trained as assessors of teaching practice.

An important feature of the BEST system has been the use of a teaching portfolio as a situated assessment tool. Beginning teachers must present a portfolio during their second year of teaching and assessment criteria are linked explicitly to context, grade and subject area. Teachers must provide a written commentary to explain and evaluate instructional decisions and relate this to their plans for student and teacher learning. Based on these portfolios, specially trained state assessors provide written feedback on their competence. The portfolio in this context, as Arends and Regazio-DeGilio. (2000) note, is used as a

*...deliberate collection of school-site evidence in response to a set of questions for purposes of licensure and professional development. Moreover, the portfolio is designed to evoke the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to determine that professional standards are being met over time. (p.11)*

Thus induction continues after the first year into the Early Professional Development phase of a teacher's career.

Other countries in our study that have implemented successful induction programmes are:

- **Poland:** NQTs in Poland have the benefit of a *staz tutor*, an experienced teacher employed in the school at Appointed or Chartered Teacher level who supports the NQT throughout the first three-and-a-half years of teaching.

- **Singapore:** Singapore has a well-developed scheme of induction for beginning teachers. For their first year, NQTs have a reduced workload of 80%. They are mentored by experienced teachers within the school. Co-teaching is a feature of induction. Teaching in Singapore is seen above all as a collaborative profession. Teachers learn through observing one another teaching, through mutual feedback, sharing of lesson plans and pedagogical techniques.
- **New Zealand:** NQTs in New Zealand are given provisional registration on graduation but must undergo a two-year induction period before full registration. Schools and mentors are funded, and the NQT has a reduced teaching load.
- **Scotland:** Scotland has developed an innovative induction scheme, with guaranteed one-year teaching places in schools for participants, reduced teaching hours, time for professional development, and an experienced teacher as a probationer supporter. The scheme has attracted extensive interest internationally.
- **England:** The *Career Entry and Development Profile (CEDP)* is drawn up towards the end of initial teacher education by the tutor and the student and revisited at the beginning and again towards the end of the induction period. It supports dialogue between NQTs and induction tutors and helps the school to make connections between the NQT's induction and professional development and to support these. At the end of the induction period the CEDP is used to identify and plan the next steps in professional development.
- **Northern Ireland:** A *Career Entry Profile* encourages beginning teachers to develop a reflective attitude to their own professional development and ensures that the school is aware of and can make provision for the needs of the beginning teacher during the first year of teaching. Northern Ireland also recognises a phase of *Early Professional Development (EPD)*. This phase, extending over the second and third years of full-time teaching, provides a structured framework of professional development through planning,

evaluation, reflection and discussion. The EPD phase is viewed as part of the professional continuum and the GTCNI has developed phase exemplars for ITE, induction, early professional development and continuing professional development. As such, the EPD phase is intended to provide a context for teachers to further develop competences and extend them in new directions.



**Table 2.4 Statements of professional competences and standards**

Country	Standards for teachers	Regulatory body
<b>England</b>	<p><i>Professional Standards for Teachers</i> (5 levels, pay-related)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Q – qualified teacher status</li> <li>2. C – core standards for main scale teachers who have successfully completed their induction</li> <li>3. P – post-threshold teachers on the upper pay scale</li> <li>4. E – excellent teachers</li> <li>5. A – advanced skills teachers (ASTs).</li> </ol>	Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA: an executive non-departmental public body established by the Education Act, 1994).
	<p><i>Statement of Professional Values and Practice</i></p>	GTCE (professional body for teaching; maintains register of teachers).
<b>Scotland</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Standards for Initial Teacher Education (2006)</i></li> <li>2. <i>Standards for Full Registration</i></li> <li>1 3<i>Standard for Chartered Teacher</i></li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. General Teaching Council Scotland (GTCS – professional body) and Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education.</li> <li>2. GTCS/ Scottish Executive.</li> <li>3. Agreed by GTCS/ Scottish Executive/Educational Institute of Scotland (teachers' union).</li> </ol>
<b>Northern Ireland</b>	<p><i>Teaching: The Reflective Profession.</i> Sets out <i>Code of Values and Professional Practice</i> along with professional competences across 4 phases:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. initial teacher education</li> <li>2. induction</li> <li>3. early professional development</li> <li>4. continuing professional development, collaborative practice and school improvement.</li> </ol>	GTCNI: independent, self-regulatory body established under the Education (Northern Ireland) Order, 1998.

*Statements of professional competences and standards (2)*

Country	Standards for Teachers	Regulatory Body
<b>New Zealand</b>	<p>1. <i>Graduating Teacher Standards</i></p> <p>2. <i>Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions</i> (must be certified as meeting these for renewal of registration every 3 years).</p> <p>3. <i>Professional Standards</i> – performance management standards, related to progression on salary scale. Level-specific.</p>	<p>1, 2: New Zealand Teachers Council (professional body, established under the Education Standards Act, 2001).</p> <p>3. Ministry of Education.</p>
<b>USA</b>	<p>Requirements are state-specific. Many states base their standards on one of those listed below.</p>	
	<p><i>Model core standards</i> for beginning teachers <i>Model licensing standards</i> in mathematics, English language arts, science, special education, foreign languages, arts. Standards for elementary education and social studies/civics being developed.</p>	<p>INTASC: Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, a consortium of state education agencies and national educational organisations dedicated to the reform of the preparation, licensing, and ongoing professional development of teachers.</p>
	<p><i>What teachers should know and be able to do:</i> 5 core propositions that serve as the basis for standards in different subject areas and levels of teaching.</p>	<p>NBPTS: National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, an independent, non-profit, non-partisan and non-governmental organisation.</p>
	<p><i>Professional Standards for the Accreditation of Teacher Preparation Institutions</i></p>	<p>NCATE: National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, an independent accrediting body.</p>

*Statements of professional competences and standards (3)*

Country	Standards for teachers	Regulatory Body
<b>Poland</b>	<p><i>Decree on the competences and qualifications profile of teachers, and the regulation of post-graduate studies (2004).</i></p> <p>Key competences: 3 categories:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Working with human beings-learners, colleagues and other partners in education</li> <li>2. Work with and in society</li> <li>3. Habit of lifelong learning for professional and personal development.</li> </ol>	Ministry of National Education and Sport
<b>Singapore</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Desired Outcomes of Initial Teacher Training</i></li> <li>2. <i>Enhanced Performance Management System</i>: specifying knowledge, skills and professional characteristics for a) Teachers, b) Leaders and c) Senior Specialists.</li> </ol>	Ministry of Education
<b>Finland</b>	<p>Decrees on competences and qualifications needed for teaching:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Master's degree with pedagogical studies included needed for teaching at all levels.</li> <li>2. General guidelines on professional skills of teacher.</li> </ol>	Ministry of Education

## **2.0.4 Professional Standards and Learning Outcomes across the eight countries**

As Table 2.4 (and Appendix B) show, all eight countries in our survey attend to what student teachers and teachers need to develop and achieve in order to be deemed competent professionals. What is also clear is that teachers are assumed to learn throughout their careers.

Not all countries, however, specify in precise terms, and in terms of competences and standards or outcomes, what teachers need to know and be able to do. Finland and Poland appear to adopt a ‘light touch’ approach to the specification of competences and interestingly these are countries that appear to be the least ‘market-driven’. They seem to place considerable emphasis on pedagogic studies and on the collegiate and social context of professional action. England and New Zealand seem more prescriptive, with some 33 and 29 statements respectively associated with the list of key standards. These countries’ standards also link their competences to salary scales and, along with Singapore, appear to be strongly market-oriented and managerialist in orientation.

**Table 2.5 Accreditation of teacher education programmes**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Accreditation of ITE Courses</b>
<b>England</b>	Accreditation of providers of ITE following inspection by OfSTED (Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills; the inspectorate of the Department for Children, Schools and Families). Institutions must show that they satisfy the requirements of the TDA with respect to entry requirements, training requirements (course content and design, work placement and induction) and management and quality assurance requirements.
<b>Scotland</b>	All programmes of ITE in Scotland require the approval of Scottish Government’s Education Department. General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS) carries out the accreditation. The GTCS then advises the Scottish Ministers on whether programmes of study in ITE should receive approval, in terms of the <i>Guidelines for ITE Courses in Scotland</i> (Scottish Executive, 2007), following an extensive review and evaluation process by the Professional Standards Committee of the GTCS, which also includes self-evaluation by the ITE provider. Courses are reviewed on a 6-year cycle.
<b>Northern Ireland</b>	All ITE programmes that lead to ‘eligibility to teach’ must be approved by the Department of Education Northern Ireland (DENI). ITE courses are accredited by DENI on the basis of reports from its Inspectorate.
<b>Finland</b>	Teacher education is either evaluated in connection with institutional evaluations or through wider evaluations specifically focusing on teacher education. Responsibility for such evaluations rests with the Higher Education Evaluation Council, an independent expert body operating in conjunction with the Ministry of Education (OECD, 2005). The Council organises evaluations relating to the operations of higher education institutions, the quality of higher education and higher education policy. The results are used to make general, rather than specific, recommendations across the field.

Country	Accreditation of ITE Courses
<b>New Zealand</b>	Teacher education courses must meet the standards of both the New Zealand Teachers Council and of the NZ Qualifications Authority (NZQA) for university-based courses, or of the other designated quality assurance bodies (CEAC for teacher training colleges; ITPQ for polytechnics and other third-level institutions). Approval involves both external evaluation and self-evaluation. See Chapter 2 for a more detailed account of the process. Courses are monitored annually and must be re-approved after five years.
<b>Singapore</b>	<p>All primary and post-primary ITE done in single institution, NIE. Direct involvement by Ministry of Education in management of NIE.</p> <p>PQAC (Pre-school Qualification Accreditation Committee: a joint body of MOE/Ministry for Community Development, Youth and Sport) accredits pre-school qualifications.</p>
<b>United States</b>	Teacher certification at all levels is a responsibility of each of the 50 states, and requirements vary from state to state. Most states require ITE institutions to be accredited by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) or else they have adopted NCATE's standards for state approval of ITE. Most states have also created professional standards boards, composed mainly of practising teachers and their representatives, that advise state education agencies on certification (INCA, 2008).
<b>Poland</b>	MOE directly oversees and monitors courses for primary teachers in colleges of education, through its inspectors. Polish State Accreditation Committee ( <i>Uniwersytecka Komisja Akredytacyjna – UKA</i> ) oversees quality assurance in higher education. ITE for post-primary teachers in universities is internally and externally evaluated through the universities' quality assurance procedures. Must meet standards set by MOE on qualifications and competences.

### **2.0.5 Accreditation of initial teacher education in the nine countries**

Accreditation of ITE courses is linked to, but must be distinguished from, the development of standards for beginning teachers. Accreditation of teacher education takes place in a wider context of quality assurance for third-level education, which is concerned with setting national standards for the quality of courses on offer and with ensuring the mutual recognition of qualifications among countries. Accreditation is also closely linked to the setting of professional standards for newly qualified teachers,<sup>7</sup> whether implicitly or explicitly. Darling-Hammond (1999, p. 9) makes the point that accreditation, licensing (variously referred to elsewhere as qualified teacher status or registration requirements) and advanced certification are the three major quality-control mechanisms for any profession. Elsewhere in this report, we address the accreditation of CPD in various jurisdictions, e.g. Chartered Teacher (Scotland), and Advanced Teacher (England).

Approaches to accreditation can:

1. Look at inputs into ITE: selection of students, content of curriculum, length and nature of practicum, facilities, qualifications and experience of teaching staff, etc.,
2. Attempt to assess the quality of the outputs from ITE in terms of the skills, knowledge and competences that graduates have;
3. Incorporate both of these into an accreditation process.

All the countries in our study require ITE courses or institutions to be approved by the national or federal ministry of education or its designated agency. However, countries differ in whether accreditation by a professional body is required, how the standard for accreditation is set and how the regulatory process is implemented. Accreditation may be given to an institution (England and Northern Ireland), to a teacher education unit (NCATE in the USA) or to an ITE course (Scotland, New Zealand and Ireland). In New Zealand and Scotland, Teachers Councils have a role in the accreditation of ITE, while elsewhere responsibility for recognition or accreditation lies directly with the ministry of education and its inspectorate (Singapore, England, Northern Ireland,

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<sup>7</sup> See Table 2.4

Finland). In the USA each state sets its own standards while NCATE accreditation is generally voluntary. Tables 2.5 and 2.6 show how responsibility for assuring the quality of teacher education is allocated across the nine countries.

In Ireland, the DES requires that first- and second-level teachers hold a recognised qualification, but does not itself accredit courses of teacher education. The universities have their own academic education procedures, and there is a well-developed and internationally recognised accreditation process in place outside the university sector through the work of the Higher Education and Training Awards Council (HETAC). HETAC accredits institutions and courses in many areas including some early-years education and care courses in the Institutes of Technology, and the distance-learning Higher Diploma in Arts in Primary Education provided by Hibernia College. In Ireland, this academic accreditation of courses is accepted as an assurance that they meet, at least, the minimum requirements for the award of a degree or diploma. Professional accreditation/recognition is another matter; professional bodies may recognise an academic qualification as giving entry into the profession or they may (as with the legal profession) also require additional study and/or supervised practice in the field before giving professional recognition to the individual.

Initial accreditation (i.e. of new courses or institutions) is generally quite a complex procedure, involving extensive documentation, self-evaluation by the teacher education provider, and visits by the panel of external assessors. This requires a major commitment of time and resources on both sides and, except where accreditation is the sole responsibility of the inspectorate, the willingness of peer teacher educators and other stakeholders to serve on panels. Serving on such panels is often seen as part of the professional role of experienced teacher educators; it also gives them an opportunity for an in-depth look at teacher education in settings other than their own. For consistency, it is also important that panel members receive some training or induction into the operation of the accreditation process; this is the responsibility of the quality assurance body, e.g. NCATE in the USA. Accreditation is generally given for a period of five to seven years, after which it is reviewed. Minor changes during this time must be notified to the accrediting body, while major changes may require a more in-depth review or even a repeat of the accreditation process.



However, it must be noted that while accreditation frequently claims to be an objective measure of quality, it is influenced by the values and ideology prevailing in the context in which it takes place. Processes for the accreditation of ITE in the countries in our study reflect not only the educational structures and systems in each country but also the dominant values and attitudes of that country with respect to what education is and what a good teacher should be. These are often expressed as core principles or codes of values, and they reflect a move away from a narrow view of teacher competences as discussed earlier. Most documents cited in the table below stress the need to read the document as a whole (as does the Irish Teaching Council's own *Codes of Professional Conduct for Teachers*) rather than dealing with components in isolation from one another. It is important also that all of the relevant stakeholders should have had an opportunity for input into the setting of criteria for professional accreditation; the Scottish, New Zealand and Australian systems for example all emerged from a lengthy consultation process.

**Table 2.6 Accreditation documents and standards**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Documents outlining administrative procedures and criteria used in the accreditation process</b>	<b>Related documents and standards</b>
<b>Scotland</b>	<i>Policy Statement: Accreditation of Programmes of Initial Teacher Education in Scotland</i> , January 2006 (GTCS).	<i>Standards for Initial Teacher Education</i> (GTCS/QAA).  <i>Standards for Full Registration</i> (GTCS).
<b>New Zealand</b>	<i>Guidelines for Providers of Teacher Education Courses and Qualifications that Lead to Teacher Registration</i> , June 2004 (NZQA/ITP Quality/NZTC).  <i>Standards for Qualifications that Lead to Teacher Registration and Guidelines for the Approval of Teacher Education Programmes</i> , February 2005 (NZTC).	<i>Graduating Teacher Standards</i> (NZTC).
<b>USA</b>	<i>Professional Standards for the Accreditation of Teacher Preparation Institutions</i> (NCATE). <i>FAQs about First Accreditation and Handbook for Accreditation Visits:</i> <a href="http://www.ncate.org/institutions/FirstFAQ.asp">http://www.ncate.org/institutions/FirstFAQ.asp</a>	<i>What teachers should know and be able to do</i> (NBPTS).  <i>Model core standards for beginning teachers and</i> <i>Model licensing standards</i> (INTASC).
<b>England</b>	<i>Framework for the inspection of initial teacher training for the award of Qualified Teacher Status 2005–11</i> (OfSTED, 2005a).  <i>Handbook for the inspection of initial teacher training for the award of Qualified Teacher Status 2005–2011</i> (OfSTED, 2005b).	<i>Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training</i> (TDA).

### 2.0.5.1 Approaches to accreditation

The mechanism for accreditation of individual courses or institutions varies from country to country<sup>8</sup>. It may be done directly by the ministry of education or its inspectors or through a body designated for the purpose or by a combination of both; teaching councils may also have a role in the process. The accreditation panel may or may not include practising teachers or teacher educators.

In countries with a strongly centralised and controlled ITE system (Singapore being an extreme example), the tendency is for accreditation/quality control to be centralised also, usually in the ministry of education or its inspectorate. In Singapore, there is a very close relationship between the Ministry of Education and the National Institute of Education (NIE), the sole provider of ITE for teachers at primary and secondary levels, with ministry officials sitting on its council and the Permanent Secretary of the ministry being chairperson. Consequently it is largely NIE's own evaluation of its work and identification of future needs that determines the direction of its work. More commonly, however, accreditation is the responsibility of an evaluation body or agency (Eurydice, 2006a), or an independent body such as NCATE in the USA (NCATE, 2008; [www.ncate.org](http://www.ncate.org)) or the proposed Australian Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (Teaching Australia, 2007).

In Poland, the situation is somewhat similar to that in Ireland, in that ITE for primary teaching comes directly under the Ministry of Education while that for post-primary teaching is the responsibility of the universities and must comply with national decrees and regulations relating to third-level education in general and the decrees on the competences and qualifications of NQTs in particular. University-based courses generally have more autonomy in the design, monitoring and arrangements for self-evaluation and external evaluation of courses. Universities in Poland have begun to implement the kind of internal and external quality assurance procedures that are common in the rest of Europe, and which are often required as part of the accreditation process. This is part of the Polish effort to harmonise its third-level system with that of

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<sup>8</sup> See Table 2.5 for an overview of accreditation in the countries included in this study.

the other countries in the Bologna process. Similarly the outcomes for teacher education that have been adopted in Poland are inspired by the TUNING Project (Kijowska, 2003; Gonzales & Wagenaar, 2005).

In England, the TDA, an executive non-departmental public body, sets the entry requirements, training requirements (course content and design, work placement and induction) and management and quality assurance requirements, and OfSTED, the inspectorate of the Department for Children, Schools and Families, carries out the inspection process to ensure that ITE providers meet these standards (OfSTED, 2005a, 2005b). In England, it is the course provider (i.e. the college, university department, etc.), rather than the course itself which is accredited (TDA, 2007).

Similarly in the USA, it is institutions, or rather those sections of them which are concerned in any way with teacher education – ‘professional education units’ – that are accredited by NCATE, and all relevant courses must be submitted for accreditation.

In Northern Ireland, ITE courses are accredited by the Department of Education on the basis of reports from its Inspectorate, which oversees and inspects all ITE courses provided in higher education institutions. .

In New Zealand, it is programmes of teacher education rather than providers that are accredited by the NZTC. All initial teacher qualifications must meet both the criteria for accreditation of the New Zealand Qualifications Authority and the *Standards for Qualifications that Lead to Teacher Registration* of the New Zealand Teachers Council. These standards were developed in consultation with the wider education community, including teacher educators, teaching unions and government agencies.

The Scottish system is one of the most developed in regard to making explicit the link between graduating teacher standards and accreditation. ITE courses in Scotland must be accredited by the GTCS as well as meeting the requirements of the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) in order to be approved by the Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED). The SEED inspectorate thus places greater emphasis on advice and evaluation rather than on a narrowly defined inspection role. The *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland* (SEED, 2006)

state that programmes must ensure that student teachers meet the requirements of the GTCS *Standard for Initial Teacher Education* (GTCS, 2006) which are expressed in terms of broad learning outcomes (though that term is not used in the document). McKie (2005, p. 5) comments that the widespread consultation involved in drawing up the standards and the fact that the GTCS provides an important and collegiate voice for Scottish teachers means that there is widespread acceptance of the standards, and that ‘crucially, the people involved in accrediting the profession are, or were, teachers themselves’ so that ‘ITE can be regarded as largely self-regulating in Scotland’.

### **2.0.5.2 Accreditation processes**

The actual accreditation procedure, in those countries where teachers’ councils or their equivalent play a role, while it may differ in detail, has many features in common with the familiar Irish accreditation systems operated by HETAC and its predecessor the NCEA, with the quality reviews now common in Irish third-level institutions and with accreditation processes operated by professional bodies such as Engineers Ireland.

A typical accreditation process is carried out by a panel of external reviewers, who make site visits and also review written documentation relating to the course. More specifically, they may consider entry requirements, course contents and methods of delivery, the supervision and monitoring of teaching practice, how assessment is carried out, and the quality of staffing and resources provided by the institution. There may also be specific requirements as to the length of the course, the amount of practical experience or the inclusion of specific elements in the curriculum; e.g. the NCATE (2008) standards include requirements on the preparation of students for teaching diverse populations. Where countries have developed sets of standards for graduating teachers,<sup>9</sup> ITE providers must show how programmes and courses address these standards. The panel may also require evidence of internal evaluations and quality reviews carried out by the institution. Box 2.1 sets out the steps to accreditation as envisaged in the Teaching Australia (2007) consultative document; this is fairly typical of the process internationally.

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<sup>9</sup> See Table 2.4 on GTCS and Table 2.5 on Accreditation

## Box 2.1 Steps to accreditation

### Steps to accreditation

- Preliminary discussion
- Determination of eligibility
- Initial application by the institution
- Establishment of a panel to assess the programme and make recommendations
- Self-assessment by the institution against accreditation standards
- Detailed application with supporting evidence in relation to the standards
- Assessment of evidence of quality by a visiting panel
- Formal accreditation decision based on the panel recommendation
- Appeal provisions

Teaching Australia (2007). *A Proposal for a National System for the Accreditation of Pre-Service Teacher Education*. <http://www.teachingaustralia.edu.au/>

The structure set out in this Australian document is broadly similar to that operated by NCATE in the United States (see NCATE, 2008, and the information for institutions on the NCATE website, [www.ncate.org](http://www.ncate.org)) and by the Teachers Council/ NZQA in New Zealand. Within these bodies, there are subsidiary boards or committees specifically charged with overseeing accreditation of initial teacher education and recommending programmes or institutions for approval. The proposed Australian accreditation board (to be known as Australian Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education) is to be made up of an appointed Chair and 14 nominated members, to include three teacher educators, three teachers, two principals, two representative of teacher registration and accreditation authorities, two employers of teachers, one Teaching Australia representative and one representative of parent associations.

### **2.0.5.3 Accreditation: the New Zealand system**

While the Australian system is still under discussion, New Zealand has a system of accreditation by the NZ Teachers Council already in place. Relevant documents include the *Guidelines for Providers of Teacher Education Courses and Qualifications that Lead to Teacher Registration* (New Zealand Qualifications Authority/New Zealand Teachers Council, 2004) and the *Standards for Qualifications that Lead to Teacher Registration/Guidelines for the Approval of Teacher Education Programmes* (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2005). Under the provisions of the New Zealand Education Act 1989, the NZ Teachers Council (NZTC) works with the NZ Qualifications Authority (NZQA) to accredit programmes of teacher education. All ITE programmes that lead to teacher registration must have current approval from the NZTC. The requirements for teacher education programmes are closely aligned to the *Graduating Teacher Standards* (NZTC, 2007; see Appendix B.3). The timeline for approval/accreditation is outlined in Box 2.2 below, which is taken from the NZTC/NZQA *Guidelines for Providers of Teacher Education Courses and Qualifications that Lead to Teacher Registration*. The actual assessment in each case is carried out by a panel of at least five assessors, who review the documentation provided by the institution, make the on-site visits and make recommendations to the board.

In New Zealand, the composition of the panel is decided jointly by the Teachers Council, the quality authority and the institution itself, which is required to nominate persons from whom some members of the panel will be selected. The panel will consist of at least the following:

- an independent panel chair or evaluator
- two external experts from equivalent teacher education programmes, one of whom may be the external monitor
- a representative from the institution itself who is not directly involved with the programme
- an appropriate Māori representative
- a Teachers Council representative.

Further panel members (e.g. representatives from the Teacher Education Forum of Aotearoa New Zealand (TEFANZ) or from employer bodies) may be invited by

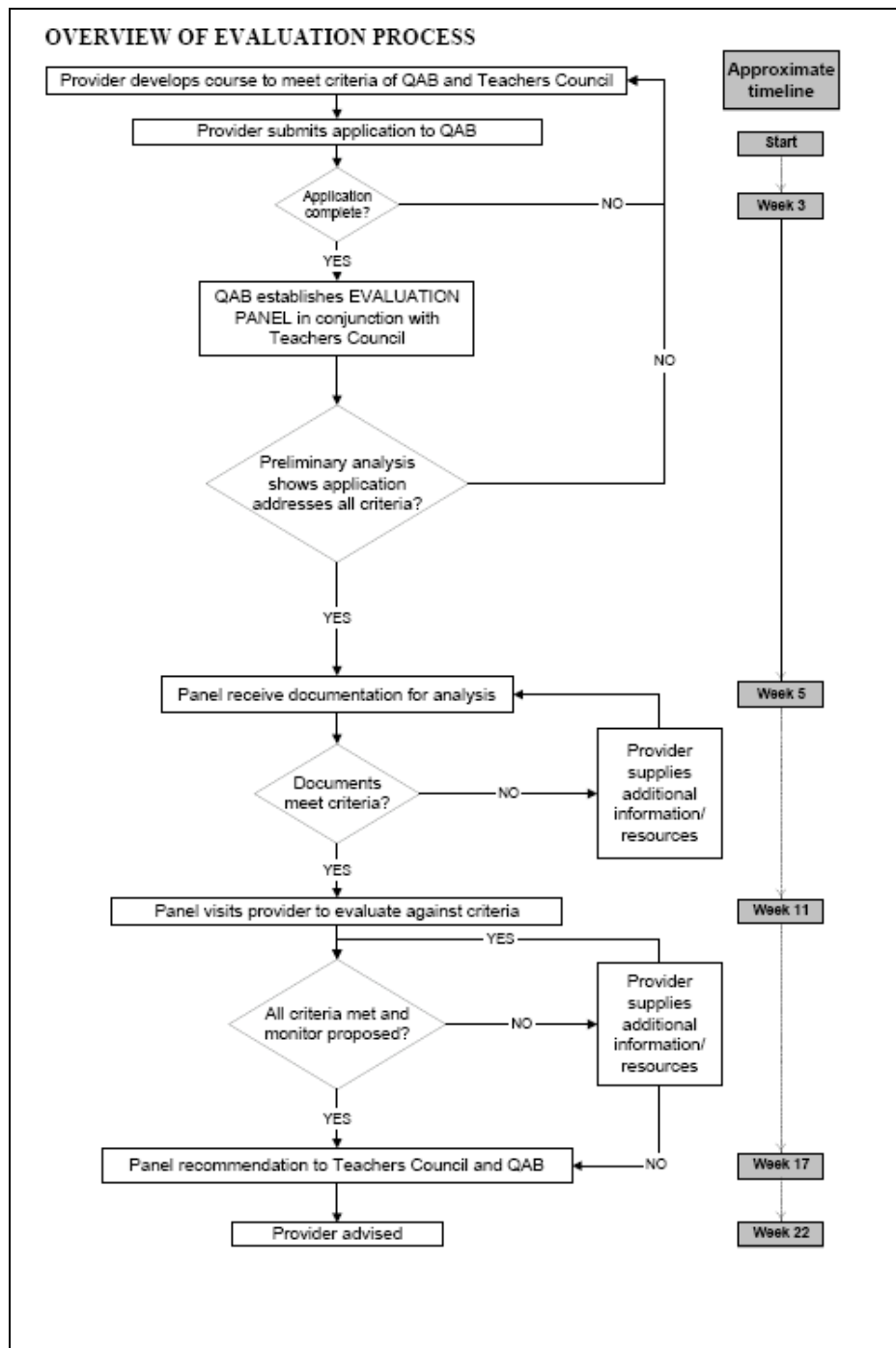
agreement between the Teachers Council, the quality assurance agency and the institution. (NZQA /NZTC, 2004; New Zealand Teachers Council 2005).

The institution must provide extensive documentation with its application for accreditation, setting out the conceptual framework and aims of the teacher education programme, showing that it meets the requirements for a bachelor's degree or diploma set down by the NZQA, demonstrating how graduates meet the GTS standards of the NZTC, showing that the programme has a sound basis in research, and that consultation has taken place with internal and external interest groups in the development of the course. It must also provide detail in relation to the programme content, design, structure and progression; assessment policies and procedures; information on the practicum; entry requirements; arrangements for recognition of prior learning; learning and teaching resources; staff members; staff research and professional development; and student support and guidance systems. Thus, before the visit, the panel has a comprehensive view of the background and operation of the programme, and the opportunity to seek further information or clarification if necessary.

The panel then makes a site visit, which can last for two to three days (see Box 2.3), and includes individual and group interviews with students, staff and external stakeholders. A report is drawn up, and sent to the ITE provider to check for factual accuracy. The panel may also set out requirements that have to be met prior to any recommendation for approval and accreditation. Only when the panel is satisfied that all of these have been met is the recommendation made to the Teachers Council.



**Box 2.2 New Zealand accreditation process**



SOURCE: New Zealand Qualifications Authority/New Zealand Teachers Council (2004) *Guidelines for Providers of Teacher Education Courses and Qualifications that Lead to Teacher Registration*. (QAB: Quality Assurance Body)

Panels may also observe students on teaching practice, or graduates in the classroom. Accreditation is generally time-limited, e.g. given for a period of five years, after which it must be renewed. ITE providers are required to submit satisfactory annual self-evaluation reports in the interim.

### **Box 2.3 Panel visit**

#### **Panel Visit: 2 days**

- a review of course documentation against the criteria
- discussion with management, staff, development team, existing or potential students, external stakeholders/advisory groups and associate or supervising teachers
- visiting off-site campuses, including a tour of premises, facilities and resources, if appropriate
- consideration of the capability of the provider against the accreditation and approval criteria
- a verbal report to the provider on the findings of the panel.

(NZQA/NZTC, 2004)

In New Zealand, an external monitor is also appointed to ensure that agreed standards are being observed and that any recommendations are being addressed in the early years after a course has been approved. External monitoring may be lifted by the QAB once it is satisfied that the programme is stable and being implemented as planned, that the annual report will give sufficient information on the programme and that alternative mechanisms are in place to ensure independent, external input during programme reviews or enhancements (NZQA/NZTC, 2004). There is also agreement on the level and kind of changes that can be made before QAB evaluation and approval is needed.

#### **2.0.5.4 USA: NCATE accreditation**

The NCATE accreditation procedure in the USA has some differences to that outlined above. NCATE accredits ‘professional education units’ (i.e. whole colleges or departments of education) rather than individual courses, so it requires a greater depth of information on the institution. This applies, in particular, to private colleges which are applying for accreditation for the first time. Applicants must submit all of their teacher education programmes, and show how each programme meets NCATE’s core standards in each of six areas:

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*

**(NCATE Core Standards for professional education units, 2008)**

NCATE panels have between three and eight members, depending on the size and complexity of the institution being visited, and site visits last for three days. These include a representative of teacher educators, a teacher representative and a representative from one of the organisations that contribute to drawing up NCATE’s standards and policies. NCATE states that every effort is made to include at least one team member from an institution that is similar in type to the institution being visited, and to represent gender and ethnic diversity.

NCATE also defines additional specific standards for subject teachers and for areas such as early childhood education. These are drawn up in consultation with the relevant professional body, e.g. the National Science Teachers’ Association, the National Association of Gifted Children/Council for Exceptional Children and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC). See [www.ncate.org](http://www.ncate.org) for more detailed descriptions of the documentation and accreditation procedures in each case.

## **2.1 Distinctive features of the continuum in comparison countries**

### **2.1.1 Introduction**

While the previous section discussed the findings from the cross-national study under each of the headings, this section summarises some of the most striking features of learning to teach in each of the nine countries, focusing on those aspects which are distinctive, which are particularly relevant to future developments in Ireland, or which offer innovative ways of looking at the continuum of teacher education.

### **2.1.2 England**

- 1. Competences and the Continuum:** The GTC for England has drawn up detailed standards stating the profile and competences required for teachers at five levels, from beginner to advanced teacher. These aim to provide clarity of expectations for each career stage and to denote what progression looks like. The standards are performance-based, and linked to teachers' professional responsibility to be engaged in effective, sustained and relevant professional development throughout their careers.
- 2. Career Entry and Development Profile (CEDP):** The CEDP is drawn up towards the end of initial teacher education, in collaboration between the tutor and the student, and revisited at the beginning and again towards the end of the induction period. The student/NQT is asked to reflect on achievements, strengths and development needs. Although the CEDP is aimed primarily at student and newly qualified teachers, it is also of use to those who support them. It supports dialogue between NQTs and induction tutors, and helps the school to make connections between the NQT's induction and professional development and to support these. At the end of the induction period, the CEDP is used to identify and plan the next steps in professional development.
- 3. Partnership with schools:** Schools in England are increasingly a key site for the professional shaping of teachers. Features include classroom observation of practice, teacher training and classroom assistant training, assessment and monitoring, coaching and mentoring. Schools are funded to support student teachers, and NQTs have a reduced teaching load. Schools play an especially important role in one of the alternative routes into teaching: school-centred

initial teacher training (SCITT) which is designed and delivered by groups of neighbouring schools and colleges.

4. **Implications for Ireland:** All of these, especially the CEDP, offer useful insights into possible ways of supporting the continuum of teacher education in Ireland. However, as noted earlier, the usefulness of competence frameworks depends on how they are implemented, and there has been much criticism to the effect that they have been used in an overly prescriptive and constricting way in England, as opposed to using them in a way that maximises their potential as a tool for development.

### 2.1.3 Scotland

1. **ITE Standards:** The General Teaching Council Scotland (GTCS) has set out detailed standards of what is expected of a student at the end of ITE. The *Standards for ITE* also specify what a programme of teacher education is expected to do. Together, these give a comprehensive framework for initial teacher education.
2. **Professional development framework:** Building on the ITE standards, a professional development framework of standards across the continuum has been developed in Scotland. On graduation, NQTs are provisionally registered with the GTCS. Full registration is conditional on meeting the *Standard for Full Registration* after completing a period of induction. The *Standard for Chartered Teacher* sets out what is expected of an accomplished or expert teacher. Chartered Teacher status can be reached by a number of routes. Scotland thus has a less complicated system, with two main phases of professional development, rather than the five stages in England.
3. **Induction and probation:** Scotland has an innovative induction scheme, with guaranteed one-year training places in schools for participants, reduced teaching hours, time for professional development and an experienced teacher as a probationer supporter. The scheme has attracted considerable interest internationally. All newly qualified teachers are required to complete a period of probation to show that they meet the Standard for Full Registration. This is to ensure that all new teachers are able to take on the demands and responsibilities of teaching. There are two ways in which new teachers can complete their probationary period: the Teacher Induction Scheme and the

Alternative Route. According to the General Teaching Council Scotland the ‘Teacher Induction Scheme provides a guaranteed one-year training post to every eligible student graduating with a teaching qualification from one of Scotland’s universities’ (GTSC website, November, 2008). Teachers opting for the Teacher Induction Scheme (non-compulsory) probationary route do so under the following conditions: (i) a maximum class commitment of 0.7 full-time equivalent, (ii) dedicated time set aside for professional development, and (iii) access to an experienced teacher as a nominated probationer supporter. Probationer teachers not completing their probationary service on the Teacher Induction Scheme, or who decide to opt out of the scheme, are permitted to undertake their probation via the Alternative Route. The Alternative Route enables teachers who cannot commit to a full-time post to complete their probation on a part-time basis. It also enables teachers to complete their probation in the independent sector or outside of Scotland. The Alternative Route involves one of the following: (i) supply teaching or completing temporary service in Scottish state schools, (ii) teaching in the independent sector, (iii) opting to complete the probationary period outside Scotland, and (iv) accumulating teaching service in exceptional circumstances. The GTSC has a dedicated probationer website which has information on the process of probation, and offers help, support and guidance to teachers undertaking their probationary service in Scotland: [www.probationerteacherscotland.org.uk](http://www.probationerteacherscotland.org.uk).

4. **Funding:** Scotland places a high value on education and makes substantial investment in ensuring its quality. This is reflected in the funding for teacher induction, for example. Schemes like these will not succeed without adequate resourcing, reduced workloads for NQTs and mentors, and time allocated for professional development.
5. **Consultation:** The Scottish standards were developed after much consultation with all the stakeholders, and the teaching profession there is largely self-regulating. This has facilitated acceptance of the standards and regulations by teachers in general.

### 2.1.4 Northern Ireland

1. **Teaching as a complex enterprise:** In drawing up the Northern Ireland Teacher Competences, the GTCNI Council claims to have rejected any attempt to adopt a reductionist approach to teacher education and endorses teaching as a complex enterprise concerned as much with values and professional identity as with knowledge and competence.
2. **Competences and the continuum:** The NI competences cover a) initial teacher education, b) induction, c) early professional development, and d) continuing professional development. The phase exemplars show how the competences might manifest themselves at each stage. The aim is to provide a common language and to assist all of those involved at each stage of the continuum. While the statements of competences are reasonably detailed, they are much less so than the initial version which was found to be unwieldy and largely unworkable.
3. **Induction 1 – the ‘Career Entry Profile’:** ITE institutions provide this profile of the strengths and development needs of each NQT. It encourages beginning teachers to develop a reflective attitude to their own professional development and it ensures that the school is aware of and can make provision to meet the needs of the beginning teachers during the first year of teaching. See also the CEDP in England.
4. **Induction 2 - Early Professional Development (EPD):** This phase, extending over the second and third years of full-time teaching, provides a structured framework of professional development through planning, evaluation, reflection and discussion. It aims to allow the NQT to further develop competences and extend them in new directions.
5. **Implications for Ireland:** The Northern Ireland view of the teaching life-cycle recognises EPD as a distinct phase in a teacher’s career and one that requires ongoing support. This is a particularly valuable insight into the continuum. Another lesson from the Northern Ireland experience is that competence statements need to be clear, need to recognise the complex and multi-faceted nature of teaching, but should not be over-elaborate or they become unworkable. The Northern Ireland competences are prefaced by a statement

that teaching is a complex enterprise concerned as much with values and professional identity as with knowledge and competence.

### 2.1.5 Finland

1. **Teacher qualifications:** Some of the success that Finland has had in the PISA surveys has been attributed to the long period of initial teacher education, a five-year master's degree for both primary and secondary teachers. Finland combines this long period of ITE with a great deal of autonomy for teachers in their professional practice. This contrasts with the relatively short period of ITE in Ireland.
2. **Academic preparation:** Finnish teacher educators claim their students are exposed to more theory, are more aware of research and are better able to develop their own critical thinking over this long period of academic study, so they are better prepared to work as independent professionals. Teaching also enjoys a high social status as a profession. This contrasts with the apprenticeship or work-based models and comparatively low status of teachers in some parts of the USA. Irish teachers have a generally high level of academic achievement at the initial level and a relatively high social status. It might, however, be argued, based on the Finnish model, that their EPD and CPD should include an introduction to research skills (action research, etc.) and to research-based findings to enable them to further develop their critical thinking and enhance their professional competence.
3. **Induction:** Induction is not officially a feature of the Finnish system. Nevertheless, induction will happen, whether structured or not. NQTs in Finland have expressed the need for support in their first years of teaching in spite of their extended period of ITE and supervised practice.
4. **Mentoring:** Again, mentoring is not officially a feature of the Finnish system though projects are underway to develop mentoring for NQTs. Finnish researchers have also identified peer mentoring as a useful tool for CPD through which teachers share their own professional experiences and develop their professional identity.



### 2.1.6 New Zealand

1. **Graduating Teacher Standards (GTS):** New Zealand has a large number of teacher education providers and a variety of pathways into teaching. The GTS of the New Zealand Teachers Council sets the standards that all providers must meet, and provides some uniformity among different providers and across the profession. The standards are written with the intention of providing broad guidelines that allow teacher educators to design curricula and experiences that will enable students to meet the standards on graduation. However, alignment between teacher education and faculty and the teaching profession's demands are not always congruent.
2. **Graduate profile:** Teacher education providers must produce a Graduate Profile for each NQT showing how they meet these standards. The standards are broad enough to include all teachers (from early years to primary to post-primary), yet include essential elements of cultural and professional competence.
3. **Accreditation:** New Zealand offers a useful model for the involvement of a teaching council in the accreditation of teacher education (see the section on accreditation earlier in this chapter). Accreditation is closely related to the GTS.
4. **Induction:** NQTs in New Zealand are given provisional registration on graduation but must undergo a two-year induction period before full registration. Schools and mentors are funded, and the NQT has a reduced teaching load. The New Zealand experience offers some useful lessons for Ireland in this respect.
5. **Early childhood education:** New Zealand's Strategic Plan for Early Childhood Education envisages a large increase in the number of qualified, registered early childhood teachers in teacher-led services, including kindergartens and early childhood centres. These ECE qualifications come under the remit of the Teachers Council. It is interesting to note the difference here with the Irish situation, where there is currently a divide between early childhood education within and outside the primary school system, but where considerable work has been done on a competence-model framework for qualifications in the early childhood sector (DJELR, 2002).

### 2.1.7 Singapore

1. **Initial teacher education** includes experience of service to the community through the GESL (Group Endeavours in Service Learning) project. This prepares student teachers to take on leadership roles within the school and for the community involvement and service-learning projects that are part of the curriculum for all schools. Not only does the GESL project reflect the high priority that Singapore puts on citizenship, but it brings a different perspective to the development of skills and attitudes in ITE.
2. **Learning from peers:** Teaching in Singapore is seen, above all, as a collaborative profession. Teachers learn from one another through observing one another teaching, through mutual feedback, sharing lesson plans and pedagogical techniques. (As Irish teachers increasingly act as part of a team, collaborating with resource and learning support teachers in particular, they will have more opportunities to observe one another at work and to learn from one another.)
3. **Induction:** Singapore has a well-developed scheme of induction for beginning teachers. For their first year, NQTs have a reduced workload of 80%. They are mentored by experienced teachers within the school. Co-teaching is a feature of induction (see 2 above).
4. **Progression:** Teachers can advance along one of two tracks, either as leaders (principals, heads of departments, etc.) or as senior specialists within their own subject or area of teaching. This means there are opportunities for advancement for those who do not wish to move into more administrative areas. It also means there are incentives to engage in CPD.

### 2.1.8 The USA

1. **Accreditation:** NCATE has a well-developed model of accreditation of teacher education, and while it is voluntary, more and more colleges of education are seeking NCATE accreditation as an assurance of quality to students, to employers and to the public at large. This is particularly important in a country with such a huge number of ITE providers and routes into teaching, not all of which enjoy public confidence.
2. **Standards:** NCATE has core standards that apply to all teachers and programmes of initial teacher education. These are complemented by subject- and area-specific standards that have been developed in co-operation with subject-teacher associations, the NAEYC, organisations for teachers of special education, etc.
3. **Pathways into teaching:** Because of teacher shortages and poor working conditions in some areas a variety of pathways into teaching have been created in order to make teaching a more viable career option. Wilson and her colleagues (Wilson, Floden & Ferrini-Mundi, 2001, p. 30) found that the most effective alternative routes into teaching shared many characteristics with traditional routes:
  - a. high entrance standards
  - b. extensive mentoring and supervision
  - c. extensive pedagogical training in instruction, management, curriculum, and working with diverse students
  - d. frequent and substantial evaluation
  - e. practice in lesson planning and teaching prior to taking on full responsibility as a teacher
  - f. high exit standards.
4. **Mentoring:** The USA has some exemplary programmes of mentoring for beginning teachers (see the section on induction earlier in this chapter).

### 2.1.9 Poland

Poland is going through a period of reform in education, and has begun to move towards a competence-based approach to teacher education. Some points of interest are:

1. **Teaching practice:** During their first and second years, student teachers are, by law, not allowed to teach. Their school-based experience at this stage is largely as an observer. Only in their third year do they engage in actual teaching practice.
2. **Progression:** The Teachers' Charter sets out the career structure for teachers. This has four stages which are salary-linked, and progression depends on satisfactory evidence of CPD. As in some of the other countries in our study, this means that there is scope for recognition of teachers' increasing professional capabilities within the classroom.
3. **Mentoring and support for beginning teachers:** Student teachers and contract teachers are supported by a *staz tutor*, an experienced teacher employed in the school at Appointed or Chartered Teacher level. This means that NQTs receive support throughout the first three-and-a-half years of teaching, and that expert teachers can share their expertise with NQTs. It should be noted that support is provided not only in the induction phase but through the EPD phase as well.
4. **CPD:** A national body, the CODN, the National In-Service Teacher Training Centre, supports and co-ordinates training for teacher educators as well as for teachers. This means that teacher educators are kept in touch with one another and with the latest developments in the education system.
5. **Implications for Ireland:** The Polish approach to teaching practice, where students are only allowed to observe initially and only allowed to teach in their final year, contrasts with the Irish model, especially with the consecutive model (post-graduate diploma) where students are expected to take responsibility for class teaching at a very early stage. Polish NQTs also enjoy a much higher level of formal support through their first years of teaching than Irish NQTs.

## 2.2 Conclusion

It is immediately apparent from the country profiles that, while local factors have a huge influence on the structures of teacher education, a number of common issues and concerns can be identified. All of our countries have similar preoccupations in terms of lifelong learning, the knowledge economy, encouraging critical thought, flexibility, meeting diverse needs and promoting good citizenship. It is interesting to note that many of them have made or are in the process of implementing major reforms to teacher education in response to these concerns. Consistent with the framework we developed in Chapter 1 of this report, the debate about what constitutes quality teaching and quality teacher education is also a live issue in several of the countries.

**Teachers' practice:** All the countries in our survey recognise teaching as multi-dimensional: teachers as instructional managers, as caring and moral persons, as generous expert learners and as cultural and civic beings (see section 1.2). These roles are acknowledged, either explicitly or implicitly, in the sets of graduating teacher standards/statements of professional competences and values in New Zealand, Scotland, the USA and Northern Ireland. Singapore pays particular attention to the development of its teachers as citizens – especially through the incorporation of service-learning into ITE.

**Quality in ITE:** A number of points can be identified at which countries address the quality of teaching and learning: (i) entry into teaching/the selection of candidates, (ii) reviews of teacher education, (iii) establishing standards for QTS, whether through drawing up sets of learning outcomes or otherwise, and (iv) accreditation of teacher education.

- *Entry into teaching:* The point of selection for entry into the teaching profession varies among countries. It is noteworthy that the countries with the highest performance in international comparisons of student learning (e.g. Finland's PISA results) have high entry standards into ITE, and do not wait until after ITE to select. These countries (like Ireland) seem to have a high degree of confidence in their teacher educators and trust them to ensure that graduates are well prepared. In countries like the USA, where standards are

more variable and trust is low, stringent post-ITE tests for licence to practise as a teacher are more common.

- *Reviews of teacher education:* Extensive reviews of teacher education have been conducted in several of our countries, as part of the OECD review (Finland, England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, USA, Ireland) and/or in preparation for reform of the teacher education system or the introduction of teaching councils (New Zealand, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Ireland, England).
- *Learning outcomes/standards:* There is an international trend (e.g. the TUNING project) towards assessing QTS in terms of outputs rather than inputs, i.e. by codifying what a beginning teacher should know and be able to do (New Zealand, Northern Ireland, England, NCATE in the USA). The experience in these countries shows that it is important that these sets of standards or learning outcomes should include values and dispositions as well as knowledge and skills and that they should be applied in a way that fosters the growth of the teaching profession rather than stifling it by being overly prescriptive.
- *Gate-keeping, accreditation:* All the countries in our study have some form of accreditation of ITE. The bodies responsible for this are split between ministries of education and teaching councils in collaboration with quality assurance bodies. New Zealand and Scotland are perhaps the most interesting here, in terms of similarity to the role envisaged for the Teaching Council in Ireland.

### **Teacher development in context and the professional life-cycle of teachers:**

Teacher education in all the countries is seen as a continuum, going from ITE to induction to early professional development to advanced or expert teacher and leader. Northern Ireland, for example, has a four-phase model:

1. ITE
2. Induction (year one of teaching)
3. Early professional development (years two and three)
4. Continuing professional development.

In addition, teachers' career advancement with a focus on classroom practice, as well as mentoring other teachers to enhance their classroom practice, is facilitated, supported and recognised, for example by Scotland's Chartered Teacher programme.

**Professional relationships and partnerships:** ITE is increasingly seen in many of our countries as a partnership between the colleges/universities and schools. This applies not only to the role of schools in hosting teaching practice, but in the involvement of experienced teachers in the delivery of courses (e.g. in Singapore) and in the mentoring of newly qualified teachers (e.g. Scotland, Singapore, USA). This has benefits for all concerned; there are opportunities for experienced teachers not only to help beginning teachers but to develop professionally themselves without necessarily moving into administrative roles. It should be noted also that a number of countries insist on a reduced teaching load for NQTs and also, in some cases, for their mentors (see Table 2.3).

**Lifelong learning and the continuum:** Finally, it is interesting to note also that several of the countries in this study have begun to create frameworks that acknowledge that lifelong learning begins at a very early stage, and have begun to create curriculum frameworks that span the traditional divides between early childhood, primary, lower and upper secondary and even on into tertiary education. This has implications for ITE; while teachers are, in most countries, trained to specialise at one stage, they also need to be more aware of building on the earlier and preparing for the later stages. In some countries also, there are opportunities to re-train and to move into one of the other sectors. This can address teacher shortages in certain areas by giving more flexibility to the workforce, as well as enriching each sector by breaking down some of the barriers between them. The increased awareness of the early years as the foundation of lifelong learning and of the potential of early childhood education to make a huge difference in children's lives is reflected in moves towards the accreditation of ITE for pre-school teachers (e.g. in New Zealand, Singapore) and in a greater focus on early years as an option within mainstream ITE.





## **Chapter Three: Initial teacher education, induction, professional standards and accreditation**

### ***3.0 Introduction: Initial teacher education, induction, learning outcomes and accreditation***

In this chapter, we review research on learning to teach under four headings: initial teacher education; induction; learning outcomes and professional standards; and accreditation. At the end of each of these sections we highlight key lessons emerging from the literature review noting issues for the Irish context. The final section of the chapter brings together the conclusions from the four chapter strands. Finally, Chapter 4 addresses the Irish context in greater depth, revisiting the points we identify in this and earlier chapters.

### ***3.1 Initial Teacher Education: Ideology, structures and outcomes***

#### **3.1.1 Ideological directions and structural arrangements**

Initial teacher education is and has been a vast and diverse enterprise characterised by long-standing institutional arrangements, and debates about structures and orientation/ideological aspects of ITE. Internationally, debates about structure and ideological orientation are increasingly drawing on research studies, given the prominence of an evidence-based approach to policy-making (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; OECD, 2005; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Moreno, 2005; Schwille & Dembélé, 2007). Numerous reviews of initial teacher education practices and models, over time and across different countries, have pointed out the significant diversity in the provision of initial teacher education, the power of institutional arrangements, recognisable patterns of progression in provision over time and an acceptance that ITE can no longer be seen as sufficient education/training for a forty-year career in teaching. Importantly, despite this diversity in provision there are patterns that have become more dominant than others over time, as well as a progression or direction in preferred ITE models (O'Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008). For example, in the nine countries we studied teaching is, by and large, a graduate profession with debates centring on the nature, duration and quality of initial teacher education and induction. Contemporary policy concerns revolve around the recruitment, development and retention of an

adequate supply of well-prepared teachers (Moreno, 2005; OECD, 2005; Schwille & Dembélé, 2007).

Debates about ideological orientations in teacher education share some features but also differ across countries. Zeichner (2008), writing about the USA, identified three influential ideological orientations: professionalisation, deregulation and social justice. Each emphasises a particular view of teacher expertise and the best means of educating teachers. In the New Zealand context, Openshaw and Ball (2008) note that there is general consensus that teaching is a learned profession whereas in the past a strong craft orientation was typical. Similar to New Zealand, in Finland there has been acceptance since the 1970s that teaching is a learned profession and the rise of deregulation seen in the USA and England is not evident.

Furthermore, debates about the structure of initial teacher education have been evident over time. For example, in the Irish context interest has primarily focused on the structures rather than the orientation or ideological directions of teacher education (Deegan, 2007). Structure-focused debates cover (i) the relative merits of concurrent versus consecutive models; (ii) the exact role and arrangements for involving schools and universities, if any is envisaged for the latter; and (iii) the optimal relationship between foundation, methods/curriculum and teaching practice components of ITE. Increasingly, in tandem with a focus on outcomes in education, the outcomes of teacher education have come to the fore (as we noted in Chapter 2, Cochran-Smith, 2001). In some jurisdictions the focus on outcomes has taken a decidedly political tone, in the USA and England in particular, with a strong push toward deregulation of the teaching profession as evidenced by the rise of employment-based and school-led teacher education in England and the prominence of alternative, short-term emergency certification programmes in the USA.

For the purposes of this section of the report, we focus on the characteristics of high quality teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 2006) in the context of a strong trend internationally to provide alternative routes into teaching. These alternative forms of initial teacher education are often introduced in response to a shortfall in the supply of teachers, due either to difficulty attracting students into a teaching career or to a high attrition rate among teachers, or both (OECD, 2005). These alternative programmes

(e.g. Troops to Teachers programme in the USA) are typically shorter, involve minimal coursework and focus on immediate concerns via a ‘tricks of the trade’ approach to the curriculum for pre-service teachers. They emphasise the need for ‘practical’ focus in preparing teachers, with an implied need for much more time in schools relative to time studying modules in an ‘impractical’ university. A focus on the characteristics of powerful or high quality teacher education, in our view, is important because of: (i) the changing roles of teachers given the current restructuring of the school-society relationship (Hargreaves, 2003); (ii) the accelerating pace of social, technological, cultural and economic change and their impact on teaching and learning in schools (OECD, 2005; Townsend & Bates, 2007); and (iii) heightened expectations for schools that focus on educating all learners (plus an increasingly more diverse student body) to higher and more complex levels of understanding than ever before (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

One of the distinguishing features of policy and research on teaching and its impact over the last decade, has been the focus on and use of value-added models (VAMs) (Sanders & Horn, 1996; McCaffrey et al., 2003; 2000; Rubin et al., 2004). This is largely due to the combined impact of accountability imperatives and advances in statistical modelling, to ascertain the extent to which teachers in general as well as particular teachers and/or schools have a more powerful impact on student learning. Three key findings have emerged from this line of research:

- (i) Teachers matter; i.e. some teachers, taking other variables into consideration, increase student achievement more than others
- (ii) Schools matter (that is groups of teachers); i.e. some schools, taking other variables into consideration, increase student achievement more than others
- (iii) School organisation matters; i.e. some school organisational arrangements (e.g. nature of grouping practices), taking other variables into consideration, increase student achievement more than others.

These important findings – that teachers, schools and school organisational arrangements matter – have created a context in which the extent and manner in which teacher education might impact upon teachers (and ultimately student learning) has become a focus of policy and research. As such, the current VAM-oriented policy and research context, as we noted in Chapter 1, begs that question: *in what ways does teacher education impact upon student learning?*

### 3.1.2 Screening for entry into initial teacher education

Several reports, most notably the 2005 OECD *Teachers Matter* and the 2007 McKinsey Report, have made links between the quality of those who enter initial teacher education, the quality of teachers that emerge and the likelihood that gifted teachers will stay in the profession (although other factors, including induction processes, pay and conditions, and opportunities for professional development and career progression may have a major role to play in the decision to stay in teaching after completing ITE). The ease of entry into initial teacher education and into teaching as a profession varies between countries, and sometimes even within countries. The point of selection also varies, with some countries screening at entry to ITE (Ireland, Scotland, Singapore, Finland) and others (England, USA) requiring graduates from ITE programmes to pass additional tests before they can begin to teach. In some systems, it is relatively easy to get into a teacher education programme, but there is a high degree of wastage, with many failing to find jobs as teachers. Selection/screening which is delayed to a later stage may also mean difficulties arising with steering highly-qualified but temperamentally, or otherwise, unsuitable candidates into alternative careers. In other systems, either there is a rigorous selection process for entry or the number of places available each year is strictly controlled so only the best-performing candidates get in. Rigorous selection processes generally mean the majority of graduates from ITE courses go on to enter the teaching profession.

The McKinsey Report, in its analysis of the best-performing school systems, instances Finland and Singapore, two of the countries included in this study, as having stringent entry requirements. They are also among the countries whose students perform best in international comparisons such as PISA. In Finland, teaching enjoys a high status and places on ITE courses are highly sought-after. Consequently the calibre of candidates is high. Nevertheless, Finland introduced a national first (or qualifying) round in its selection process from 2007, checking on the literacy, numeracy and problem-solving skills of candidates before they begin their ITE. The top-scoring candidates then enter a second round of selection run by individual universities, which includes both assessments of their academic abilities (written tests, academic record) and of their suitability for teaching (interview). Singapore also has strict controls over entry to teaching at both school-leaving and graduate levels. Candidates must show they are

highly qualified academically, must pass tests of literacy unless exempt (e.g. by already having a degree in English) and an interview, which may include a practical element. Successful candidates then become employees of the Ministry of Education, and are paid while they train. They are also monitored during their course to ensure their suitability. In Poland, as well as possessing the *Matura* (school leaving) certificate, candidates might have to sit a competitive entrance examination set by the university. In England since 2002, candidates for Qualified Teacher Status must pass skills tests in numeracy, literacy and ICT before they can be recommended for the award of QTS by their ITE provider. Most countries also require some form of character reference which may include a police check, equivalent to Garda vetting in Ireland, before beginning to teach.

In the United States, teacher selection operates at a later stage, and requirements vary from state to state. Because of the huge number of ITE providers, the varying quality of teacher preparation courses, and the variety of pathways into teaching, most states operate a licensure system which requires would-be teachers to satisfy certain criteria before beginning to teach. One of these may be graduation from an accredited course, but this is by no means universal, especially in areas with a high need for teachers because of difficulty in recruitment or retention. Some colleges and universities require candidates to pass tests of basic skills in literacy and numeracy (e.g. Praxis I) during their undergraduate career as a precondition for enrolment on an ITE course, while tests of subject and pedagogical knowledge (e.g. Massachusetts Tests for Educator Licensure, Texas Educator Certification Program Tests, or Praxis II) are required by many states in addition to a teaching qualification as part of the teacher licensing and certification process. A third level of testing may be used to assess the skills of beginning teachers in classroom settings before they achieve full licensure (e.g. Praxis III). These general tests of literacy/numeracy and/or suitability may also be used when there is a shortage of teachers and it is wished to open recruitment to suitable candidates who lack the standard educational qualifications.

A common means of controlling entry to teacher education is for the relevant government department to limit the number of places available, usually by limiting funding and/or by insisting on basic selection criteria for candidates. Where places are limited in this way, it usually means candidates are of a high calibre academically,

provided, that is, that teaching is seen as a desirable profession. The system in Ireland operates in this way (and similarly in Northern Ireland, England and Scotland). It generally succeeds insofar as it means entrants to ITE courses are high achievers in their school-leaving or university examinations. Their suitability for teaching is assessed during the ITE course, during teaching practice, and finally during the probationary period. It is interesting to note that institutions in Ireland use the student's academic record as the basis for entry to ITE, while in Northern Ireland most short-listed applicants are interviewed. An interview is generally not part of the selection process in Ireland, except in the case of entrants to the postgraduate diploma in primary teaching where an interview is included in the selection process. Interviews are seen as more appropriate for postgraduate courses and mature students than for school-leavers.

Some countries also give credit for previous teaching experience to people applying for teacher education courses. There is concern that this encourages unqualified people teaching in schools. In Poland, for example, students on ITE courses are by law allowed to observe only and not to teach during placement in the first two years of their ITE course. Only in their final year are they allowed to actually teach a class. In contrast, Singapore encourages those who have been accepted for ITE to gain experience in schools, albeit under the supervision of experienced teachers, on the grounds that this will help them to decide whether they are suited to a teaching career.

There seems to be general satisfaction at present with the current mode of selection and recruitment in Ireland, in that teachers in general are not in short supply and teaching is still seen as a desirable career choice. However the current system is not entirely unproblematic. For example, high-achieving males do not seem to be attracted into teaching especially at primary level (only 18% of primary teachers were male in 2005 [DES, 2005]), and there is some concern at under-representation of people from disadvantaged and minority ethnic backgrounds which will need to be addressed.

### 3.1.3 Reconfiguring foundations, methods and teaching practice components in ITE

The relationship between the components (i.e. foundations modules, methods<sup>10</sup> modules and teaching practice) in initial teacher education has been widely debated over the last twenty years in particular. In England, for example, so called ‘foundation’ courses have been increasingly marginalised over the last twenty years in a political process in which responsibility for ITE has shifted markedly from higher education to schools (Goodson, 1996; Furlong, 2002). In contrast, in the USA, while there has been considerable debate about their role they have been reconfigured rather than marginalised (Anderson, Blumenfeld, Pintrich, Clark, Marx & Peterson, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 2006). Debates have centred on two key issues: (i) the role of foundation courses in ITE; and (ii) the relationship between coursework (foundations and methods courses) and teaching practice/field placement(s). Both of these issues have been intertwined with debates about the nature of the theory-practice relationship. Changing understandings of the nature of learning and cognition have spurred the reconfiguration of the relationships between the components of ITE (Anderson, Blumenfeld, Pintrich, Clark, Marx & Peterson, 1995). Reconfiguring the relationship between ITE components has significant implications for overall teacher education programme design, module design and delivery, collaboration between teacher education staff (and school staff) in module design and assessment modes (i.e. coursework, assignments and examinations).

In the Irish context, over the last decade the problems associated with the current configuration and delivery of ITE components have been addressed, in reviews of teacher education (Byrne, 2002; Kellaghan, 2002) and by a number of teacher educators (Goodson, 1998; Sugrue, 1998; Leonard & Gleeson, 1999). In relation to post-primary teacher education, Leonard and Gleeson (1999) note that:

*...the Regulations of the Registration Council for Secondary teachers, drawn up in 1926, dominate professional aspects of initial teacher education in Ireland. These regulations identify Studies in the Foundations of Education as an essential component of initial teacher education while Curriculum Studies are an optional element only. It is indicative of a comparative lack of interest in new*

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<sup>10</sup> We think the term ‘pedagogy modules’ is a better term than ‘methods’ to characterise the complex integration of knowledge needed to enact quality teaching. That is, the terms ‘methods’ is often used both in opposition to ‘theory’ (as if methods are theory free) and also in an instrumental fashion. As Bruner (1996) reminds us, pedagogy is never ‘innocent’ in the sense that it is devoid of theory.

*problems of practice in schools that when these regulations were revised during the eighties, the relative status of the Foundation Disciplines and Curriculum Studies was not changed. This neglect of Curriculum Studies suggests a serious lack of attention to both theoretical and practical aspects of the curriculum in a situation of wide ranging change. (p. 51)*

In the case of primary education, the Kellaghan Report (2002) addressed the function of course components and their lack of integration in some detail, highlighting that:

*...in considering aspects of teacher preparation programmes that are unsatisfactory, it may be noted that the components of programmes seem to be inadequately integrated. When it is largely left to students to integrate knowledge from academic courses, foundation studies, and curriculum methods, and to determine their relevance to teaching, many students are likely to experience difficulty. (p. 56)*

The basis for the criticisms of the lack of linkage between the coursework components (especially foundation courses) and teaching practice is that coursework is premised on ‘assumptions that principles, concepts and theories can be learned first out of context and then retrieved and applied when a practical problem is encountered’ (Anderson et al., 1995, p. 143). From the perspective of learning, the issue of transfer is at the heart of the ‘foundational’ metaphor underpinning the belief that student teachers apply or use ideas (or propositional knowledge) learned in foundation courses (psychology, sociology). As Peterson, Clark and Dickson (1990) note, the teaching of foundation courses

*....in teacher education has rested on certain classic but typically unquestioned psychological assumptions about the learning of the prospective teacher and the transfer of that learning to teaching. (p. 325)*

Contemporary learning theorists (Sawyer, 2006; Greeno et al., 1996; Bruner, 1996; Collins, 2006) emphasise the situated nature of knowledge which has provided substantive evidence that ‘knowledge... is inextricably linked to the situations in which it has been acquired and used’ (Anderson et al., 1995, p. 143). The aforementioned study by Anderson et al. (1995) (undertaken by the Educational Psychology Division of the American Psychological Association) did not conclude that there is no role for what are currently termed foundation courses such as sociology, psychology etc. Rather it questioned the conventional content (a psychology of individual differences, rather than one of situations and a learning community) and delivery (via lecture) of such courses, advocating a move toward teaching them ‘in a form that renders them useful’ (p. 144).



They argue that, for example, educational psychology courses ought to focus on providing student teachers with a *psychological perspective* focused on ‘the analysis of an action in teaching situations’ (p. 145). They nominate two ideas as core to a contemporary psychological perspective: (i) ‘the image of learners as active and social constructors of meaning’ (p. 145); and (ii) the ‘image of learning as an act of construction through social interaction in many contexts’ (p. 145). They then argue that a comprehensive understanding of teachers’ practice (as we presented in Chapter 1 of this report) ought to inform how best to support teachers to develop a psychological perspective focusing on teaching as complex activity and on the nature of teacher knowledge. They note that complexity in teaching is due to its multi-dimensional, uncertain, social and ethical nature. Schön (1983), Dewey (1904) and Kennedy (1988) identify four types of knowledge that student teachers need in teaching: technical, principled, critical analysis of situations, and finally a fourth type, based on Dewey’s notion of reflection, that encapsulates the other three, and permits ethical judgement and action in classrooms. They then identify a range of implications and recommendations for the content and delivery of courses, including:

- Drawing links between ideas typically taught separately in teacher education (e.g. class management and subject methods)
- Revisiting concepts/topics, to foster student teacher understanding, rather than only covering topics once in brief over modules packed with content
- Linking course content with teaching practice through assignments, including joint assignments with other modules to facilitate knowledge integration
- Rich cases (developed for student teachers or developed by student teachers) to support students’ understanding of how a psychological perspective (and possibly sociological, philosophical or historical perspectives as well) can help understand and enhance practice
- Discussions, simulations and analyses of cases and situations to assist student teachers’ understanding of students’ ‘hearts and minds’ in the ebb and flow of classroom life (this is a key feature of teaching practice and important in both teaching and assessment).

Current delivery of, for example, sociology and psychology courses as part of teacher education programmes in Ireland is based on lecture and examinations of propositional knowledge. Following the logic of Anderson et al., above, consideration might be given

to how sociology and psychology modules involve a joint assignment (e.g. a child/adolescent study, work sample study or video study over a number of lessons/weeks), where student teachers undertake observations, gather and interpret student work (while observing other teachers or in the context of their own teaching). Core concepts from psychology and sociology might then be used as the basis for analysing data gathered. In order to foster an inquiry stance among student teachers, key aspects of this assignment might be driven by student teachers' own curiosity, hunches and questions based on their teaching practice.

A number of initiatives provide promising examples of strategies to promote knowledge integration as envisaged by Anderson et al., (1995), Darling-Hammond (2006), Korthagen (2001) and others. For example, lesson study (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999) and case studies supported by new learning technologies in the Three Amigos Project (PT3 Group Venderbilt, 2003; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2006). In the Three Amigos project researchers used rich case studies (what they termed anchored modular inquiry) to help prepare future teachers integrate knowledge through inquiry. The studies explored some initial effects of attempts to enhance the education of student teachers in three areas: (a) how people learn; (b) mathematics; and (c) adolescent psychology. The case studies involved technology architecture for flexible modular design. The purpose of such strategies as lesson study and technology-supported case studies is to develop student teachers' capacity to be 'adaptive experts' (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2006).

### **3.1.4 School-university partnerships in initial teacher education**

Internationally, the development of mentoring in schools in conjunction with university-school partnerships has become a key feature of re-designed teacher education over the last decade (OECD, 2005; Scottish Executive, 2004). It is common for formal partnership arrangements to be developed between higher education institutions and schools to provide structured support and a gradual increase in classroom responsibility for student teachers. The nature of such arrangements varies considerably (OECD, 2005; Maandag et al., 2007). Maandag et al. (2007) provide a useful framework (see Box 3.1) for characterising the nature of university-school collaboration. Based on a five-country cross-national study (England, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden), they describe how these partnerships vary along a continuum from the school

playing a host role (work placement model) to shared responsibility between the school and the higher education institute (partner model) to the school providing the entire training (training school model).

### **Box 3.1 Five models of university-school partnerships in ITE**

#### ***Model A: WORKPLACE/HOST MODEL***

In this model, the school is the location where the student teacher undertakes a placement. The tertiary institution provides all coursework. This model typically involves some coaching by supervising teachers.

#### ***Model B: CO-ORDINATOR MODEL***

In this model, the school has a central supervisor or liaison teacher with the tertiary institution. This model is a variation on Model A. The difference is that in this model the school takes on the task of supervising student teachers by appointing an experienced colleague to co-ordinate teacher education.

#### ***Model C: PARTNER MODEL***

A teacher in the school acts as a trainer of professional teachers. The school is partly responsible for the course curriculum. In addition to coaching the student teacher, the school also provides some of the training itself.

#### ***Model D: NETWORK MODEL***

In this case, the trainer in the school is the leader of a training team in the school. The school is only partly responsible for the course curriculum. The school has a teacher education training team consisting of one or more trainers at school and coaches who are trained in teaching methods.

#### ***Model E: TRAINING SCHOOL MODEL***

In this model, the entire training course is provided by the school. The tertiary institution functions as a backup or support institution, focusing on training the trainers at school and developing teaching and training methods.

SOURCE: Maandag et al., 2007

In Ireland, school/higher education partnerships in ITE are, we think, typically at the work placement (model A) end of the continuum.

### **3.1.5 Principles**

*...the work of teaching, like that of other professions, is viewed as non-routine and reciprocally related to learning; that is, what teachers do must be continually evaluated and reshaped based on whether it advances learning, rather than carried out largely by curriculum packages, scripts, and pacing schedules as many districts currently require. This means that teachers need highly refined knowledge and skills for assessing pupil learning, and they need a wide repertoire of practice – along with the knowledge to know when to use*

*different strategies for different purposes.*

**Darling Hammond, 2006b, p. 394**

Frameworks for powerful teacher education have been advanced by a range of teacher educators (Darling-Hammond, 2005; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006a; Korthagen, 2001; Tatto, 1999; Kennedy, 1998; Kennedy, 2005; Brouwers & Korthagen, 2005; OECD, 2005). As we noted above, there is an emerging evidence-base, though not necessarily a consensus, that the nature of teacher education does matter.

An important point emerging from debates about teacher education is that processes and cultures within teacher education programmes and their allied schools are important in mediating outcomes for student teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2006a). That is, what goes on inside the ‘black box’ of teacher education – be it in the university or school classroom spheres of ITE – matters in highly significant ways. Drawing on and building upon Darling-Hammond’s (2006a) synthesis<sup>11</sup> of research on quality teacher education, the following principles provide compelling guidance for the design of powerful teacher education:

- **Vision:** A common, clear vision of good teaching practice integrated across course modules and teaching practice in schools.
- **Focus on Excellence in Professional Practice:** Clearly defined and agreed standards of ‘good teaching’ linked to wider professional standards.
- **Knowledge of Learners Linked to Curriculum:** Teaching of curriculum permeated by an understanding of the contingent nature of learning and the impact of both the immediate and wider social context on learning and teaching.
- **Integration of Foundations, Methods and Teaching Practice:** Strategic initiatives to integrate foundations, curriculum/methods and teaching practice as the three core components of ITE.

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<sup>11</sup> Darling-Hammond’s study (2006a, pp. 6–18, 41–74) is especially convincing as it involved a detailed study of seven initial teacher education programmes (reputed to be of high quality). Drawing on multiple sources of evidence, she and her colleagues undertook in-depth case studies of the seven programmes, interviewing and surveying graduates and employers of the graduates (comparing them to a random comparison group of new teachers); observing the ITE programme practices as well as their graduates teaching in schools; and examining the module syllabi, assessments and the quality of teaching practice placements (2006a, p. 7).

- **Addressing the Apprenticeship of Observation:** Given the long-term influence of the 15,000 hours student teachers have already spent in classrooms prior to entering ITE, there must be significant opportunity to make explicit the impact of these experiences on learning, teaching and curriculum.
- **Strategies to Examine Culture and Schooling:** Strategies to highlight the impact of culture (cultural homogeneity, diversity and change) in teacher education coursework and teaching practice.
- **Strong Relationships, Common Knowledge and Shared Beliefs:** Well-structured alliance between schools and universities built around strong relationships, common knowledge and shared beliefs to support ITE.
- **Integration-Focused Projects:** Use of case studies, portfolios, performances of understanding and other projects focused on supporting the integration of different knowledge sources on teaching, learning and curriculum emerging from schools and universities.

### 3.1.6 Conclusion: ITE and implications for the Irish context

In this section, we note key points from our preceding review of literature on initial teacher education.

#### 3.1.6.1 Understanding ITE in a historical frame

One way to interpret the current debates over the relative merits of various approaches to teacher education is to locate these in a historical perspective. Writing from a historical and comparative stance, O'Donoghue and Whitehead (2008), in their recent edited book on teacher education based on 'insider' accounts written by teacher educators in ten English-speaking countries, use Beeby's (1966) four-stage model of educational development to locate and characterise the changing practices in relation to initial teacher education internationally in a historical context. Beeby's four stages are as follows:

- *Dame-school stage:* 'ill-educated and ill-prepared teachers' (O'Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008, p.194) resulting in an emphasis on rote teaching of simple, prescribed, low-level content.

- *Formalism stage*: some basic training for teachers but overall they are poorly educated, resulting in focus on well-planned but rote learning using prescribed low-level curriculum.
- *Transition stage*: teachers are better prepared and have higher standard of education resulting in focus on rote learning but also some opportunity to address issues of meaning in classrooms with a curriculum that provides some scope for teacher autonomy.
- *Meaning stage*: teachers are well educated and well prepared, resulting in a focus on engaging students in meaning-making with an emphasis on an engaging and multi-faceted curriculum, problem solving and active student engagement in learning.

This framework is useful in analysing current debates in teacher education. First, moves toward alternative certification (with their focus on brief, ‘practical’ and instrumental teacher education coursework) can be seen as regressive and counter-productive given the contemporary challenges facing society and the allied enhanced expectations for teaching, and by implication for teacher education. Second, Beeby’s model assumes that teachers’ own educational preparedness as well as their professional education impacts upon the manner in which they will eventually address knowledge, meaning and learning in classrooms, an assumption with which we agree. As such, with the emergence of a knowledge society, the extent to which teachers are able to address the complex, contingent and constructed nature of knowledge becomes an even more important and essential feature of teachers’ professional education than before.

In the Irish context, we can locate initial teacher education somewhere within Beeby’s third and fourth stages given the high academic attainment of those who enter teaching at both primary and post-primary levels, the ambitious curriculum goals at both primary (e.g. 1999 Primary School Curriculum) and at post-primary (e.g. NCCA proposals for Senior Cycle as well as focus on key high-order cross-curricular skills) and the general move toward more active student engagement in learning. However, the strong culture of rote learning, particularly in the context of examination-oriented post-primary education in Ireland, positions initial teacher education in the third rather than fourth stage as outlined by Beeby.

### **3.1.6.2 Characteristics of powerful initial teacher education**

There is an emerging consensus around the essential dimensions of powerful teacher education. In the context of initial teacher education in Ireland, as discussed in the Byrne Review of Post-primary Teacher Education and the Kellaghan Report on Primary Education, these dimensions of powerful teacher education address some of the weaknesses identified in both those reports, and also echo, as well as go beyond, some of the recommendations of both reports. Both reports, for example, focused on the potential of stronger school-university partnerships as cornerstones in advancing initial teacher education. Neither report, however, accorded the apprenticeship of observation the central role it plays in the literature we reviewed for this report. In the context of the cross-professional dimension of this study, the ITE emphasis on enhancing opportunities for integrating course components and including more synthesis-focused assignments for students strongly parallels the move in medical education towards what is what termed the SPICES model (Spencer & Jordan, 1999). That is, the SPICES curriculum aspires to promote medical education that is:

- Student centred
- Problem based
- Integrated (i.e. clinical exposure at same time as basic sciences)
- Community based (i.e. less hospital based)
- Evaluation focused (i.e. more formative feedback) and
- Special studies modules oriented (i.e. broader exposures for medical students).

### **3.1.6.3 Concurrent and consecutive: dilemmas of design**

The distinction between concurrent and consecutive is a long-standing and important distinction in that it has potential implications for the strengths and weaknesses of various teacher education programmes in light of the key dimensions of powerful teacher education outlined in the preceding paragraph. For example, given the pervasive manner in which the apprenticeship of observation mediates how initial teacher education students experience and understand ITE, the typically briefer consecutive model provides far fewer opportunities for student teachers to actively articulate and reframe their own apprenticeships of observation. Such limitations are especially important in that they may inhibit efforts to promote reform-oriented teaching, given that student teachers' own experiences as students at primary or post-primary level may

not provide a sufficiently rich set of exemplars of desirable professional practice. So, for example, we would predict that, over the next few years, incoming PGDE students will find the new images of post-primary mathematics advanced by the NCCA in *Project Maths* challenging to put into practice in light of their own apprenticeships of observation.

#### **3.1.6.4 Conventional and alternative: a pressing policy challenge**

There is considerable debate internationally in relation to whether short-term teacher education courses are sufficient for teacher preparation. These debates have occurred most prominently in the USA (for review see Darling-Hammond, 2006). Frequently underpinning the move towards short-term ITE (sometimes termed emergency or alternative certification programmes) is a belief that teacher education does not matter, as it has little or no impact on student teachers, and that it is actual practice in school which results in ‘real’ learning. That is, the school of hard knocks is better than the school of hard books. Darling-Hammond provides convincing evidence that these short-term programmes do not provide student teachers with sufficient pedagogical content knowledge or a range of teaching skills and are more likely to increase teacher attrition and loss to the profession over the first few years. Typically, the move towards short-term emergency certification models of ITE occurs in jurisdictions where there is insufficient supply of well-educated teachers. In the Irish context, fortunately, there has not been a move to date toward the provision of emergency short-term initial teacher education programmes.

### **3.2 Induction**

#### **3.2.1 What kind of induction programmes provide an integrated and seamless continuum of teacher education?**

In the last two decades research on teaching and learning has provided considerable evidence that the quality of teaching in schools is the most important variable in promoting quality schooling for students (Darling-Hammond, 2006a; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Claxton & Wells, 2002; OECD, 2005; Hargreaves, 2003). However, there is no such consensus on what defines teacher quality, nor on how to test or measure it. These two questions are at the centre of standards-based reform initiatives. Proponents of standard-based reforms use standards to drive the direction



and measurement of teacher quality, arguing that the professional standing, performance and learning of teachers will be enhanced. Those against argue that the standard-based reform movement works to control and regulate teachers' work in overly prescriptive ways.

Two divergent discourses take centre stage in this teacher quality debate, and come from very different knowledge bases, epistemic orientations and histories. The first can be loosely characterised as a Technical-rational discourse that seeks to improve quality by prescription and control. This discourse is characterised by a focus on improving teaching by setting accountability measures for assessing quality. Technical-rational discourse assumes there is agreement about the goals of education. It views teaching and learning as linearly linked and views educational problems as straightforward and technical in nature, requiring instrumental policy direction and implementation. From this orientation, setting fixed goals accompanied by prescribed road maps, checkpoints and end points best solves educational problems. This tradition deals in the language of competences, measurement, evidence, tests, accountability, inputs/outputs, and efficiency control measures. The 'No Child Left Behind' policy in the USA, for example, typifies this orientation. Schools that do not meet accountability student assessment outcomes are punitively treated. The diversity, agency and nuanced interpretation and goals of embodied professionals, situated in particular contexts, with differential access to resources and tools, is largely absent from this discourse. This discourse assumes that good policy directives and clear educational curricula and goals that are rationally enacted in practice can decree quality teaching.

The second discourse can be characterised by a research tradition that engages with the 'curse of complexity' (Cochran-Smith, 2005). In this tradition, the practice context is a key variable in determining what quality is and the goals that emanate from it. This discourse seeks to capture the complexity, situatedness, uncertainty and negotiated nature of teaching and learning contexts. It addresses the many contextual variables and conditions that influence student learning, acknowledging the reciprocal nature of culture, context and knowledge. It focuses on the need to educate and assess teacher quality in terms of capturing this complexity, and on educating teachers who are able and committed to engage intellectually in examining, analysing and reflecting on practice in order to inform and modify new instructional/assessment practices to meet

new contextual demands. Education is primarily viewed as a transaction that has to be negotiated, enacted and modified to meet the dynamic contexts within which it is situated. Teacher quality is defined by the ability to negotiate these dynamic contexts and demands, drawing from the multiple knowledge funds that inhere there. The growth in this knowledge base attests to the complexity and difficulty in educating teachers to meet the new teaching and learning challenges in settings that are multifaceted, diverse linguistically and culturally, and with uneven professional support (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Craig, 2006; Ladson-Billings, 2005).

In reviewing the literature on induction programmes, these two discourses are animated and enacted in the goals, purposes and processes that frame different programmes in different country contexts. In our case study, countries' various programmes lean generally in one direction or the other. For example, England, the first European country to implement a teacher induction programme in 1999, was very much situated in an educational reform agenda largely underpinned by a rational–technical paradigm. UK induction programmes adversely linked stringent assessment procedures to the probationary year and thus failed to take seriously the learning needs of new teachers and the different contextual features of learning to teach (Tickle, 2001; Totterdell, 2004). On the other hand the New Zealand model was very much situated within a professional discourse that sought to structure teacher induction within a broader base of support and assisted performance whilst using a range of strategies.

In the midst of these two broad discourse orientations, however, there is, increasingly, a consensus that learning to teach effectively cannot happen in ITE alone. Rather, learning to teach must occur within a context of a continuum of teacher education often known in Ireland as the '3 Is' – initial, induction and in-service (Coolahan, 2003). Increasingly, teacher induction is viewed as a necessary and critical element in any teacher education reform agenda and is an important element in retaining beginning teachers and assisting them to build productively on the early teaching foundations of ITE (Arends & Rigazio-DiGilio, 2000; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Kelly, 2004; Youngs, 2002; OECD, 1998, OECD, 2005). In Ireland, various reports and reviews have recognised the need for a structured and integrated induction process within this continuum with the learning goals and interfaces of each stage clearly demarcated, interconnected and related to a holistic view of professional

practice (Kellaghan, 2002; Byrne, 2002; OECD, 2005; Government of Ireland, 1995). The implementation of the National Pilot Programme of Teacher Induction (NPPTI) in 2002 was a step toward realising this continuum. The transition from student teaching to becoming a practising teacher is now viewed as a critical phase in becoming a teacher (Killeavy & Murphy, 2006).

### **3.2.2 Why induction now?**

The agenda to structure beginning teachers' entry into the profession in deliberate and intentional ways in order to influence their future commitment, engagement, and orientation towards learning also comes from the recognition that induction *will* happen, with or without a programme. Thus research attests to the need to design programmes that focus on teacher learning. Key questions are: induction into what, and for what purpose? Increasingly research demonstrates that quality induction must consciously induct beginning teachers into new professional norms and expectations around teacher learning. In the absence of a formal programme of induction focused on inducting beginning teachers into reform-oriented teaching practices and collegial learning, beginning teachers are inducted into the prevailing norms of the culture, beliefs and dominant practices of the professional context. These traditional norms often reflect views of knowledge, teaching and learning that run counter to reform directions. New contextual demands have substantially increased the complexity of teaching and learning, requiring ongoing teacher learning in a collegial environment. The autonomous professional working in classrooms, isolated from peers, is increasingly an obsolete model for thinking about teachers as professionals. Many of the policy documents and research papers reviewed in our various case-study countries attest to this orientation. There is a move towards the teaching profession being a lifelong learning profession (Fulton et al., 2000; OECD, 1998; OECD, 2005; Coolahan, 2003; Wang & Odell, 2002). The best programmes induct beginning teachers into learning cultures that sponsor this orientation.

**Box 3.2 Induction: programme features from an eleven-country study**

In a review of programme features of eleven APEC countries (Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Singapore, Chinese Taipei and the USA) a number of structures are dominant. To varying degrees our nine case-study countries also encompass many of these features:

**Mentoring:** All programmes had some type of mentoring system, which structured learning between an experienced teacher and a beginning teacher. Typically mentoring lasted throughout the first year.

**Training:** Seven of the APEC countries relied on training and workshops as an induction strategy. Training was provided by education bodies working at different levels – national, state, local – and there was considerable variation across countries who provided the induction programmes.

**Participation:** Half of APEC countries required participation. Others allowed for voluntary participation.

**Timing:** Most induction programmes lasted one to two years.

**Teaching Assignments:** In only three nations (Japan, New Zealand and Chinese Taipei) were beginning teachers given a lighter teaching load and class assignments that were viewed as less difficult.

Arends & Rigazio-DiGilio, 2000

Internationally, a number of variables have converged to put teacher induction on the educational reform agenda. These include an ageing teaching profession, chronic teacher shortages, teacher attrition, diverse student populations, public accountability and the push for more ambitious teaching and learning standards. The demography of teachers is now a major concern in many European countries. In Germany almost 50% of secondary teachers are aged over fifty, in the Netherlands and Sweden more than a third are (Maandag et al., 2007). According to the OECD (2005), teacher shortages are leading to more schools employing under-qualified teachers. This is especially the case in schools serving high-need students, as happens in parts of the USA. Another major concern is the push to think of ways of retaining teachers and recouping the investment in their ITE education. Research shows that there are high levels of teacher attrition, especially in the poorest urban schools, where 30 to 50% of beginning teachers can leave the profession in the first five years in the UK and USA (Murnane et al., 1991;

Tickle, 2001; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004). Similar teacher shortages loom in Australia (McCormack & Thomas, 2003).

Ingersoll and Smith (2003) have conceptualised this problem as a ‘leaking bucket’ and have argued that blaming teacher shortage on outside demographic forces and offering fast routes into teaching is the ‘wrong solution’ to teacher shortages. Instead their data indicate that we must look at the working conditions and lack of support within schools and districts. This, coupled with the push for more ambitious student learning outcomes and the ever increasing demands for higher accountability and transparency, have underscored the inadequacy of traditional models of teacher education that have left beginning teachers to sink or swim in these first years. Murnane et al. (1991) linked high SAT scores with teacher attrition, suggesting that the ‘best and brightest’ tend to leave. Thus, teacher induction has been one way to help teachers stay in teaching. However, the form and structure of such programmes varies widely. Darling-Hammond (1997, p. 34) notes that the proportion of new teachers who have gone through an induction programme in their first year of teaching has more than tripled over the last decade, from 16 to 17% of teachers with more than ten years of experience to 55% of teachers who have taught for fewer than five years. In the USA 27 states have a formally approved state-wide support system for beginning teachers, usually in the form of mentoring (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

A cross-national study (primarily Japan, New Zealand and Australia) of induction programmes undertaken by the USA Department of Education (Moskowitz & Stephens, 1997) identified a number of best practice principles:

1. In general, new teachers are viewed as professionals on a continuum with increasing levels of responsibility and experience. Novice teachers are not expected to do the same job as experienced teachers without significant support.
2. Typically, new teachers are nurtured and not left to flounder on their own.
3. More often than not, teacher induction is a deliberate, purposeful and valued activity. In Japan new teachers must have no fewer than sixty days per year of in-school training and thirty days out of school.

4. In general, schools possessed a culture of shared responsibility and support for induction. As such, all staff are expected to contribute to the nurturing of the new teacher.
5. In all three countries assessment was downplayed, though there is an attempt to filter out incompetent teachers. However, in the USA teacher induction focuses primarily on assessment, and assistance when it exists is strongly linked to aiding new teachers achieve assessment criteria.

Wong, Britton and Ganser (2005) looked at the successful induction programmes of five countries: Switzerland, France, New Zealand, Japan and China. Crucially, they found that there were three similarities across all of them:

1. All countries have well-structured induction programmes and saw induction as a crucial component of the continuum of teacher education.
2. All countries focus on professional learning opportunities.
3. All programmes emphasise collaborative learning among beginning teachers.

In terms of designing the ‘seamless professional continuum’ (Howey & Zimpher, 1999, as cited in Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999) in the early phases of the teaching life-cycle, the various induction programmes in Switzerland (see Box 3.3) and those in Shanghai (see Box 3.4) as promising programmes whose integrated design is in line with a growing body of research on teacher learning (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2002; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005).

**Box 3.3 Induction: Case study 1: Switzerland**

In Switzerland induction programmes are generally well funded and an array of well-designed professional development opportunities are offered to beginning teachers, albeit with regional variations occurring across different cantons. From the outset, the beginning teacher is inducted into becoming a professional who is committed to lifelong learning. Central to the structure is a focus on practice and on developing communities of learners who learn to problem-solve around teaching dilemmas and concerns. Mentors support this work and a central team in turn supports them.

In ITE student teachers are organised into a network of three students and are taught to support each other's development through observation of teaching and formative assessment. In the first years of teaching this practice network is extended to about six teachers who meet regularly to reflect on practice issues and share concerns. These six teachers observe each other regularly and observe their mentor teacher. They are offered a set of induction experiences that include obligatory and optional courses. In addition, as the need arises, 'impulse' courses may be offered.

At the end of the first year of teaching, the group organises into a *Standortbestimmung* which is a self-evaluation process of their professional development. The overall personal-professional development of the beginning teacher is central and counselling is generally offered as the need arises and also one-to-one mentoring. In some cantons counselling is obligatory.

SOURCE: Wong, Britton & Ganser (2005)

**Box 3.4 Induction: Case study 2: Shanghai**

Consistent with the culture of learning to teach in China (Payne, 1990), in Shanghai teaching is seen as a collective enterprise and a practice open to peer scrutiny and feedback. Teacher research and collective lesson-planning are viewed as central professional activities. A wide network of support activities at the local and district level is offered.

In addition there are a lot of public displays of welcome and celebration of teaching, peer and mentor observation, district-level mentoring, a district hotline for new teachers, district awards for outstanding mentor/beginning teacher work, public or open lessons with debriefing afterwards, half-day professional training days offered on a monthly basis, report lessons where teachers are observed and offered comments and criticisms, and public ‘talk’ lessons where a beginning teacher has to talk through a lesson and justify its design and so on.

Each beginning teacher must belong to a teacher research group and is encouraged to enact action research projects in the classroom. They must observe at least eight lessons each semester and most observe more. These observed lessons provide a context for public conversation about teaching between mentors and beginning teachers, thus offering beginning teachers a forum for learning the language of this public conversation. A central feature is the lesson-planning group where teachers, both novice and veteran, analyse and talk about the lesson they are teaching.

Teaching competitions further highlight teaching and motivate teachers to think deeply about their teaching. Each competition is videotaped and an archive of material is available for teachers to learn from and observe. Thus teaching becomes a community property rather than the private, isolated ‘secret garden’ that characterises teaching in many Western countries.

SOURCE: Wong, Britton & Ganser (2005)



### 3.2.3 Induction: Goals, structures and processes within a continuum

As stated above, there has been burgeoning research interest in the last two decades on induction and mentoring processes through this beginning stage of teaching. A survey of the research literature on teacher induction indicates that this is a unique transition phase of teacher development, where the motivation to learn is high and understanding and supporting this transition is a critical component of teacher education. Feiman-Nemser et al. (1999) view the beginning teacher as a Janus-type figure placed at a crucial intersection, looking back on pre-service education and looking forward to in-service education. They argue for the centrality of teacher learning as a key focus, overriding other concerns such as accountability and assessment in this distinct phase in learning to teach. New teachers must be supported and assisted in taking responsibility not only for what goes on in their classrooms, and the quality of student learning for all students, but also for their participation in professional learning as a lifelong endeavour. Inducting beginning teachers into becoming a member of a learning community and taking on new professional norms is a necessary structure and goal (Fulton et al., 2005). In a conceptual review of the research literature on induction, Feiman-Nemser et al. (1999) identified three broad understandings of the induction process as:

1. A distinct phase in learning to teach
2. A socialisation process
3. An integrated programme for teacher learning

#### 3.2.3.1 Induction: a distinct phase in learning to teach

*We misrepresent the process of learning to teach when we consider new teachers as finished products, when we assume that they mostly need to refine existing skills, or when we treat their learning needs as signs of deficiency in their preparation. Beginning teachers have legitimate learning needs that cannot be grasped in advance or outside the contexts of teaching.*

**Feiman-Nemser, 2003, p. 26**

The first conceptualisation views induction as a specific phase in learning to teach. This research usually focuses on the differences between novice and expert teachers in terms of knowledge, skills and capacities. It has been criticised as overly concerned with deficit views of novice practitioners. In particular, this literature focuses on the specific quality of beginning teacher concerns as they begin their professional careers and the anxiety that characterises this phase of learning to teach (Rajuan, Beijaard & Verloop,

2008). Veenman (1984), in a review of novice concerns over a seventy-year period, ranked classroom discipline as the most serious problem followed by student motivation, dealing with individual differences, assessing student work and relating to parents. In the Irish context, similar topics have been identified by beginning teachers as major concerns (Killeavy & Murphy, 2006, 2008). As a number of authors have argued (Zeichner & Teitelbaum, 1982; Buchmann, 1987; Conway & Clark, 2003), dealing solely with concerns as the major focus of induction (or during ITE) is not sufficient to help novice teachers learn the thinking skills and practices associated with adaptive expertise. It is important to address the specific learning needs of the beginning teacher as a unique phase and also to understand that phase's place within a broader continuum of teacher development and its connection to both pre-service and continuing professional development. Thus, defining the learning needs and goals of beginning teachers in flexible ways and relating them specifically to the context of teaching is important in developing a learning orientation towards problems of practice. In addition, beginning teachers need to learn the skills for identifying assumptions and principles underlying practices and challenging dominant practices that are not consistent with reform-oriented teaching.

### **3.2.3.2 Induction: a socialisation process**

The second orientation sees induction as a 'socialisation' process. Here the focus is on the context of teaching and the importance of socialising new teachers into the professional norms, values and practices that are recognised as productive and which lead to engagement in lifelong learning practices. It recognises that 'learning on the job' without support can set beginning teachers into survival mode and thus short-circuit learning at a time when teachers are very motivated to learn. In addition, the culture of some schools is antithetical to learning and beginning teachers are left to sink or swim with little support or opportunity to learn from practice. In these contexts new teachers often develop safe practices that enable them to 'survive' in classrooms. As Brock and Grady (1989) assert, there is no other time in the teaching career in which the motivation to learn is so high as in than the first critical years. Unfortunately without a structured, integrated model of teacher learning teachers are often socialised into the culture of schools which are not set up for learning for either novice or veteran (Fulton et al., 2000; OECD, 1998; Sarason, 1996; Little, 1990).

### 3.2.3.3 Induction: An integrated programme for teacher learning

The third orientation focuses on induction as a deliberate programme for sustained and systematic support and assistance for beginning teachers. In the first phase of the development of induction programmes the focus was on providing assistance and support in the first year of beginning teachers. However, as reform efforts have called for more ambitious teaching and the improvement of student learning there is a recognition that the beginning teacher phase has been extended to include the first few years. Howey and Zimpher (1999) suggest that the induction phase is critical to providing this interfaced continuum of teacher education:

*Nowhere is the absence of a seamless continuum in teacher education more evident than in the early years of teaching. At the same time, no point in the continuum has more potential to bring the worlds of the school and the academy into a true symbiotic partnership than the induction phase. (p. 297)*

Increasingly in later years assessment has been added on to the induction phase and in the USA assessment and licensing of beginning teachers is increasingly the case with states linked to the INTASC standards.

### 3.2.4 Induction: Toward a socio-cultural perspective

*If America is to meet the needs of 21st century learners, we must move away from the norms that governed factory-era schools... Transforming schools into 21st century learning communities means recognizing that teachers must become members of a growing network of shared expertise.*

**Induction Into Learning Communities (Fulton et al., 2005)**

There is growing recognition in the literature of the importance of learning communities as a structured part of induction programmes and a critique of programmes that conceptualise the induction process in deficit terms or conceptualise it as a solo learning phase (Fulton et al., 2005; Tickle, 2000; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Increasingly the learning needs of beginning teachers are viewed as the professional responsibility of the whole community of teachers and can lead to a synergy of learning for novice and veteran teachers. In addition, conventional mentoring programmes have historically emphasised emotional support and induction into the social mores of the setting within hierarchical relationships with little attention given to the development of teaching and learning (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999).

Many mentoring programmes have been structured narrowly on setting up support systems to help new teachers in their adjustment to the existing arrangements of school cultures or to support them to stay in schools, thereby seeking to address the teacher retention issue. However, this model often short-circuits the legitimate ‘learning to teach’ needs of beginning teachers. Mentoring programmes can reinforce traditional norms and practices if they are not carefully structured to counter norms that do not view teaching as an ongoing learning process (Fulton et al., 2005, Feiman-Nemser, 2004; Ingersoll & Smith; 2004, Wang & Odell, 2002). New teachers struggling to survive without adequate learning structures may turn to veteran teachers for advice and support, advice that might centre on keeping students occupied and busy. Feiman-Nemser (2004) argues that veteran teachers may have a professional identity that is happy to ascribe teaching difficulties to traits in pupils or which blames external forces such as parents or the administration. Thus, this identity or propensity needs to be carefully challenged in mentoring education programmes. A quote from the California New Teacher programme encapsulates the development needs of mentors:

*Supporting new teachers is complex and demanding work, and rarely intuitive. Exemplary classroom educators do not always become outstanding teacher educators. Veteran teachers stepping forward to mentor beginning colleagues need time, careful training, and ongoing support to develop new skills and understandings that will enable them to become talented teachers of teachers.* (New Teacher Center, 2008)

Mentoring support that has as its primary focus the induction of beginning teachers into existing norms has been criticised as short-sighted and far too narrow (Fulton et al., 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001, 2004; Wang & Odell, 2002). Wang and Odell (2002) argue that mentor preparation has been a badly conceptualised field of research and needs careful structuring to ensure that it contributes directly to the improvement of teaching and educational outcomes. This view of framing mentoring as a context for educational improvement, better learning outcomes for students, and helping teachers become more effective change agents has increased in recent years with an attendant growth in research into the qualities, attributes and structures that sponsor this kind of learning (Orland-Barak, 2002). According to Roberts (2000), the core features of effective mentoring include the following: a supportive relationship; a career development process; a teaching–learning process; a reflective process; and a

formalised process. All of these attributes focus on an educative mentoring relationship that facilitates reflection and interrogation of practice.

Therefore the best induction programmes carefully and intentionally attend to the legitimate professional learning needs of beginning teachers and their induction into learning communities for lifelong learning as professionals. In addition, they also attend to careful mentor preparation, viewing the teacher education role of the mentor as a crucial determinant of learning outcomes for the whole school community, offering a context for interaction, collegiality and learning. This is particularly the case in successful, well-structured induction programmes which have synergistically fed into the larger learning community of teachers, such as Connecticut's Beginning Educator Support and Training Programme (BEST) or California's Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) (see Chapter 2 for a more detailed description of these programmes). Increasingly, there has been a move to recognise that one-to-one mentoring and individual-based programmes are not sufficient. Mentoring is more often seen as a subset of a larger framing of induction programmes that serve both developmental and supportive needs of mentee and mentor at this pivotal stage in professional development (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, 2004; Darling-Hammond & Bransford; 2005; Tickle, 2001; Rajuan et al., 2008). Feiman-Nemser (2001) has conceptualised the dual role of beginning teachers: 'New teachers have two jobs – they have to teach and they have to learn to teach. No matter how good a pre-service program may be, there are some things that can only be learned on the job' (p. 1026). Both roles of mentor and mentee and their learning needs have to be substantively supported and integrated within wider learning standards and goals.

Programmes that have sought to link induction with probation and high-stakes assessment have run counter to the learning needs of beginning teachers. The pressure on teachers to perform in overly prescribed ways typically pushes beginning teachers into thinking about teaching as a solo survival journey rather than a shared professional endeavour. Setting high-stakes testing expectations without adequate learning structures can short-circuit professional learning, leading to much stress and anxiety (Tickle, 2001).

The best induction programmes frame teachers as practitioners who have the skills, knowledge and commitment to reflect on the design, enactment and evaluation of student learning. Teachers develop the capacity to learn from reflective engagement and enact new teaching practices that are in line with curricular and student needs. Developing reflective action research routines within a context of formative feedback and assessment is essential if beginning teachers are to negotiate the complexities and competing goals and dilemmas that are the cornerstones of professional practice. A synthesis of research data demonstrates the centrality of providing structures for novices to engage in a community of practice, while more experienced practitioners mediate the complex meanings and dilemmas that they experience in daily professional life. This work has been labelled ‘identity work’ and is crucial to identity formation (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This is a central theme in recent research on quality mentoring and induction programmes (Williams et al., 2004).

Fulton et al. (2005) emphasise the need to move away from traditional and inherited practices of teacher learning that have isolated teachers from each other, and from professional norms that are not conducive to collaborative participative learning in communities of learners. Dominant forms of teacher learning characteristically view learning to teach as a solo, unassisted enterprise and emerge from a view of learning that is outdated. They argue for a socio-cultural view of teaching and learning that recognises the distributed nature of knowledge and expertise within the school community.

### **3.2.5 Conclusion: Induction and the implications for the Irish context**

#### **A research-based vision: ITE as a first step in understanding learning and teaching**

There is compelling evidence that the best induction programmes offer a vision of integrated teacher and student learning. Central to this vision is a view of the teacher as a reflective, engaged practitioner. In reviewing the literature on best learning to teach practice, there is a clear consensus that it cannot be fully completed in ITE programmes. At best, ITE programmes prepare the ground for later lifelong learning and adaptive professional engagement. Consequently, ITE ought to emphasise the knowledge, skills and dispositions for further learning. Crucially, beginning teachers have legitimate learning needs that cannot be grasped in advance, that is, during initial teacher education.

#### **No induction – not an option: induction informal or formal?**

In the absence of a formal programme of induction into the profession, beginning teachers are inducted informally into the prevailing dominant culture of teaching and learning practices. This prevailing culture may often run counter to what is needed for the new professional in meeting current expectations in a knowledge-based society. Typically, high-quality induction programmes deliberately provide professional learning structures to enculturate beginners into new norms of professional engagement.

#### **Quality induction: structured for intentional learning by beginning teachers**

There is now a clear consensus that the beginning years of teaching are a rich and important developmental phase of learning to teach. Beginning teachers are highly motivated to learn during these years and if unsupported may revert to survival mode and to teaching practices that they have experienced as students. Without structured learning opportunities, beginning teachers are mentored into school cultures and professional norms that may run counter to best practice in knowledge-based societies, where the teacher is seen as a solo practitioner, or the beginning teacher as a ‘finished product’. This is now viewed as obsolete and does not serve new views of teaching and learning where knowledge is distributed across context and individuals.

#### **Viewing teaching as a collective rather than a solo endeavour**

Policies that produce the best outcomes for teacher education use this important learning phase in deliberate and structured ways and provide programmes for beginning teachers that consciously and deliberately mentor them into new norms of collegiality, professional learning and engagement. Formative assistance is provided through an array of supportive structures including the provision of one-to-one mentoring, opportunities to observe expert teachers, formative feedback on planning, enacting and evaluating teaching and learning, reflective inquiry on the practice of teaching, and so on.

### **The professional dividend: the fruits of quality induction across the continuum**

There is a professional dividend that accrues for all if induction is linked clearly across the continuum of learning to teach. Induction optimally should be based on the foundations laid down in ITE and there should be clear structural links across the continuum in terms of the knowledge, skills and dispositions learned at each phase. Interfacing all three phases provides learning opportunities for raising teaching standards for all involved, including mentors and experienced teachers. Research shows that there is a ‘professional dividend’ for mentors engaged in the mentoring process and for the whole school community if structures are in place for such engagement. Research on best practice also demonstrates that mentors need to be educated into the mentoring role to support and assist beginning teachers to improve, evaluate and adapt instructional strategies.

### **The induction of beginning teachers: a mentoring culture – not just mentors**

The best systems understand that teaching is best viewed as assisted performance and that knowledge is distributed throughout the system. Therefore, providing opportunities for beginning teachers and experts to collectively look at student outcomes, teaching strategies, and evaluating teaching performance in a community of learners is essential and improves the learning outcomes of all – veteran and beginning teachers.

### **Connecting induction and reform-oriented teaching for student learning**



The best induction programmes explicitly focus induction practices on supporting beginning teachers and expecting them to examine and evaluate teaching and learning practices. The close observation of teaching and learning provides a key context for generative conversations about teaching and learning between expert and novice. These conversations focus on helping beginning teachers to learn to evaluate their practices in light of reform frameworks and subject-specific expectations for student learning. Furthermore, they are expected to identify and question assumptions underlying practice decisions as well as question prevailing practices that run counter to best practice – while recognising that the notion of best practice is often contested. In addition, beginning teachers are assisted in developing and experimenting with specific and relevant teaching designs focused on improving student learning.

### ***3.3 Learning Outcomes: Standards in teacher education and issues for Ireland***

#### **3.3.1 Introduction**

Most countries are increasingly exercised by the need to specify and recognise the knowledge, skills and dispositions needed by the qualified teacher. Teaching Councils and teacher education agencies, including government agencies, in collaborating with key stakeholders – teacher education providers, the teaching profession, teacher unions, subject associations – seek to determine processes for guaranteeing the quality of those admitted to and promoted within the profession. Descriptions of our nine countries in Chapter 2 show the influence of the movement which favours the specification of centralised sets of professional standards for teacher preparation.

What should a newly-qualified teacher know and be able to do at the beginning of her or his career? How might this set of knowledge and skills differ following a period of induction? And how might the more advanced or established teacher be recognised and rewarded? As we noted in Chapter 1, these questions are bound up with all of the following: the purposes of education, society's expectations of and demands on the teacher, available resources, priorities and political will, the status of the profession, assumptions about learning, perceived external/international pressures, existing traditions and culture within a country, and the broader societal context in which teaching and teacher education occur. Thus, establishing what constitutes valued professional knowledge and competence, at whatever phase of a teacher's career, is not

simple and straightforward or neutral and universal. Neither is it fixed and certain. Rather it is historically and culturally bound and as such subject to change and contestation.

Whether and how to frame professional knowledge in terms of standards and teacher competences are further significant questions. A recent OECD survey of teacher education (OECD, 2005) concluded that a key priority is that all countries should articulate clearly teacher skills and knowledge:

*The overarching priority is for countries to have in place a clear and concise statement or profile of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do. This is necessary to provide the framework to guide initial teacher education, teacher certification, teachers' ongoing professional development and career advancement, and to assess the extent to which these different elements are being effective. (p. 131)*

The report goes on to assert that:

*A fundamental precondition for the preparation of a profile of teacher competences is a clear statement of objectives for student learning. Teachers' work and the knowledge and skills that they need to be effective must reflect the student learning objectives that schools are aiming to achieve. There needs to be profession-wide standards and a shared understanding of what counts as accomplished teaching. The profile should be evidence-based and built on active involvement by the teaching profession in identifying teacher competences and standards of performance. A clear, well structured and widely supported teacher profile can be a powerful mechanism for aligning the various elements involved in developing teachers' knowledge and skills. (p. 132)*

A significant Irish academic and policy advisor, commenting on this recommendation, concludes that:

*...the design of teacher profiles and the designation of teacher competences, in a performance outcome mode, is the recommended way for the future, is of considerable importance to teacher education in Ireland, which has not hitherto adopted this approach. (Coolahan, 2007b, p.14)*

In reviewing some of the relevant literature on the theme, this chapter identifies factors and issues that need to be taken into account if a framework for describing the knowledge and competences that the teacher needs to demonstrate is to be constructed.

We now go on to review literature on teacher competences and standards with reference to the following themes: definitions; origin and impetus; consensus on teacher

knowledge and skills; issues and controversies; approaches, purposes, functions and, finally, issues for consideration.

### 3.3.2 Definitions

A *standard* in relation to teaching refers to what teachers are expected to know and be able to do (Ingvarson, 1998). This implies common and agreed focuses and a level of quality that is appropriate for specific purposes (Richardson, 1994; Koster & Dengerink, 2008). Competences can be usefully thought of as developing over several experiences/units of study and periods of time and can be assessed at different stages. According to the TUNING<sup>12</sup> project, competences represent a dynamic combination of knowledge, understanding and skills that a person builds on and develops. This means that competence is not something possessed by or lacking in a person in absolute terms but rather is something that can be demonstrated to a certain level of achievement along a continuum (drawing on TUNING Project and the Education Working Group). In this sense competency means a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and personal characteristics which empower the individual to act appropriately and professionally in a given situation. A person who is competent then, according to this definition, deploys their knowledge, skills, attitudes and personal characteristics and values with alertness to the specific situation and in an integrated, coherent way (Koster & Dengerink, 2008).

In a recent review of *Standards for Teaching* for the New Zealand Teachers Council by Kleinhenz and Ingvarson (2007), an exhaustive definition of standard in the context of professional practice is offered. They pointed out that professional standards:

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<sup>12</sup> The Bologna Declaration (1999) set in motion a process in which EU countries sought to change and attune, rather than prescriptively harmonise their higher education systems. In response to both Bologna and subsequent Communiqués in 2001 and 2003, the TUNING project is a cross-national initiative, begun in 2001, undertaken by over a hundred universities within the EU involving many programmes across the tertiary education programmes (including teacher education). The TUNING project is meant to reflect the 'method of open co-ordination' approach advocated in the Lisbon Process (2000), rather than stringent standardisation leading to one model of European higher education (or teacher education in this case) (Gonzales & Wagenaar, 2005; Hudson & Zgaga, 2008). In teacher education (see Hudson & Zgaga, 2008; Deegan 2007; Drudy, 2008), the TUNING project has provided the context for comparing the knowledge, skills and dispositions expected of teachers in ITE across different European countries, as well as fostering debate about the origins, meaning and impact of the competences movement in education and teacher education. See the TUNING Project website – *Tuning Educational Structures in Europe*: <http://tuning.unideusto.org/tuningeu/>

1. describe a consensus model of what is of most worth in teaching knowledge and practice and
2. provide specifications about levels of achievement.

In other words, standards provide a vision of teaching practice and a measuring tool for professional judgement. In relation to the first part of the definition it is claimed that standards ‘encourage the reconciliation of divergent views’ (Kleinhenz & Ingvarson, 2007, p. 5).

The five core values of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards in the USA exemplify such a consensus. These statements provide the basis for the development of standards for specialised areas (e.g. science teaching) and phases (e.g. primary):

1. Teachers are committed to students and their learning.
2. Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach these subjects to students.
3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning.
4. Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.
5. Teachers are members of learning communities.

According to Kleinhenz and Ingvarson (2007), standards must also be understood as measures. If they are to be used as fair and valid measures of professional competence then there are three essential steps in their formulation, they suggest:

1. Defining what is to be measured (content standards or the domain of what is to be assessed).
2. Defining how teaching will be measured (how relevant evidence will be assembled).
3. Identifying what counts as meeting the standard (leading to performance standards).

Sykes and Plastrik (1993) capture the above in the following definition: ‘A standard is a tool for rendering appropriately precise the making of judgements and decisions in a context of shared meanings and values.’

It is important to make a distinction then between the two components of *standard* noted above. A helpful approach might be to think in terms of ‘content’ and ‘performance’ standards or as one researcher puts it ‘generic’ and ‘specified’ standards (Thrupp, 2006). The second of these, the ‘performance’ or ‘operationalised’ element, is designed to enable judgements to be made and would clearly be more detailed than the more generic or ‘content’ standard. A more loosely-defined standard would imply and invite local interpretation by teachers, principals, inspectors, teacher educators and so on. Leaving aside for a moment issues of validity and values, it is obvious that adopting a performance standard approach would entail greater expense and technical work. It would also be likely to increase workloads and would very likely take time away from pedagogic engagement in that teachers would have to attend to how they were meeting the details of the specification, thus constraining time for planning learning and teaching.

### **3.3.4 Origin, impetus and rationale**

The specification of teaching standards and competences (and indeed all occupational standards) is rooted in a movement that has pushed towards standardisation of education and outcome-based education reform – what Sahlberg (2007) has termed the *global education reform movement*. It is a movement that has grown internationally over the past three decades. There is a substantial literature on the history, politics and implementation of the standards movement (e.g. Ball, 2003; Hyland, 1994; Pring, 1992, 2000; Eraut, 1994; Mahony & Hextall, 2000; Reynolds, 1999) attending to the assumptions underlying them, how they are translated into practice, their fitness for purpose and their coherence in terms of values.

The reasoning behind competences and standards is based on technical rationality whereby direct and simple linear connections are made between behaviours and outcomes, e.g. a teacher’s practice and the exam results of the pupils. Such ‘what works’ thinking frequently likens education to medicine and so the claim is made that professional action is akin to a medical intervention like a new drug or diet. It brings with it a particular view of practice that assumes neutrality on the part of the people involved in the ‘treatment’ – where all the participants can be assumed to stand outside the practice or treatment (i.e. teaching method or approach). The assumption of

impartiality on the part of teachers in the ‘what works’ way of thinking about effectiveness has been heavily criticised for its limited and limiting approach, not just in education but in other aspects of social life as well (e.g. Slee et al., 1998; Biesta, 2007; Hollway, 2001). It assumes that the only relevant issues are questions about the effectiveness of techniques and methods or programmes and it ignores the reality that what constitutes effectiveness can’t be separated from beliefs and judgements about what is educationally worthwhile – in other words values and purposes. The concept of professional standards fits into this way of thinking. Gronn (in Thrupp, 2003) explains how standards are designed to regulate and control behaviour, describing them as:

*vehicles for the steerers of systems to micromanage the day to day work of institutional personnel by seeking to ensure adherence and conformity to officially sanctioned codes of conduct... In some respects standard-setting and standardisation can be seen as the final piece in the mosaic of new managerialism... As a means of bringing allegedly recalcitrant occupational groups to heel, in order to make them responsive to client interests, and to discipline their work performance in the pursuit of advantageous national positioning for a competitive knowledge economy, standards regimes [have] proved irresistible to governments.*

Standards are seductive, especially to the outsider, insofar as they express simple, desirable statements of goals and outcomes. The use of standards has proved to be effective for quality control in manufacturing and business: consumers can readily understand the meaning of warranties, guarantees and service contracts. Professional standards suggest similar commitments (Yinger & Hendricks-Lee, 2000) but herein lies the challenge. As has been shown in Chapter 1 and below, teaching and learning are complex endeavours that do not comply with the consumerist and service activity of trade and production.

Defenders of the specification and use of standards in teacher education, Yinger and Hendricks-Lee (2000) argue that the knowledge base of teaching and learning is legitimised primarily by academics. They point out how academic professional study and scholarship provide ‘culturally accepted formulations of the world of practice’ (p. 96) and that the knowledge base generates and justifies the establishment of standards for the profession. In their view the agreed standards establish internal control by the profession over training, entry to practice and practice itself. By demonstrating attention to performance and quality control, these researchers claim, the profession consolidates

its legitimacy. In addition, a large part of being a profession involves convincing the rest of society of the justification of that status. So they conclude that standards ‘can be used by professionals to improve the quality of practice and at the same time gain social and cultural recognition and legitimisation’ (p. 97).

The use of ‘good performance standards’ (that is standards that place the teacher in relation to the students and the subject matter), it is argued, compels the teacher to interpret her or his classroom practice with reference to the parameters set by the standard. This guards against teaching being seen as an idiosyncratic activity to which some teachers are born and some are not (Yinger & Hendricks-Lee, 2000).

In anticipation of the criticisms against the potential standardisation resulting from standards, Klenhertz and Ingvarson (2007) argue that standards do not by definition prescribe and standardise, nor do they define one way to be a teacher. If they are ‘well written’, they claim, they place emphasis on what pupils ‘would be doing and learning as a result of the conditions for learning that a teacher has established in the classroom’ (p. 9).

Before discussing some of the challenges to the above stance on competences and standards it is worth noting the extent to which there is agreement in the literature about the teacher knowledge and skills that teachers need.

### **3.3.5 Consensus on teacher knowledge and skills**

The EU’s involvement in education and its commitment to promoting quality across member states – endorsed by Article 126 of the Maastricht Treaty – alongside the OECD’s push towards convergence in policy on teacher education (Lawn & Lingard, 2002) mean that within the EU there is some degree of harmonisation in relation to what teachers need to be able to do. Based on a review of the standards and competences incorporated into the policies of our nine survey countries (see Chapter 2) together with the analysis offered in Chapter 1, there are several aspects that would suggest a degree of consensus about what knowledge, skills and dispositions teachers need to develop to be able to teach successfully. Although some are more emphasised than others by the various countries and in the literature, they are worth summarising here as follows:

- Knowledge of learners and how they learn and develop within social contexts
- Conceptions of curriculum content and goals: an understanding of the subject matter to be taught in light of the social purposes of education
- An understanding of teaching in light of the content and the learners to be taught, as informed by assessment and supported by classroom environments (see Bransford et al. 2000, p. 10, for these first three)
- The importance of a culturally sensitive approach and a sense of the role of the teacher in the promotion of inclusion and equity
- The need for the teacher to exercise judgement in the classroom, to be able to make adaptations in teaching, curriculum and assessment practices to fit learner needs
- The capacity to be reflective and analytic and learn from teaching experience
- The need for solid theoretical background underlying pedagogical approaches
- A strong sense of moral purpose
- The importance of a repertoire of teaching methods and strategies including behaviour management and assessment strategies.

Standards in the USA cover a broad range of elements of teaching such as knowledge of content, learning, teaching and assessment approaches. They follow a learning-centred approach to teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Zeichner, 2008). The following are examples from teacher education programmes of how one standard is specified and how the knowledge, skills and dispositions are expressed:

Standard #2: The teacher understands how children learn and develop, and can provide learning opportunities that support their intellectual, social and personal development.

Knowledge: The teacher understands how learning occurs – how students construct knowledge, acquire skills, and develop habits of mind – and knows how to use instructional strategies that promote student learning.

Disposition: The teacher is disposed to use students' strengths as a basis for growth, and their errors as opportunities for learning.



Performance: The teacher stimulates student reflection on prior knowledge and links new ideas to already familiar ideas, making connections to student experiences, providing opportunities for active engagement, manipulation, and testing of ideas and materials, and encouraging students to assume responsibility for shaping their learning tasks.

### **3.3.6 Issues and controversies**

Despite the growing use of competences in teacher education internationally, significant concerns have been raised about their appropriateness and effectiveness. There is no shortage of literature challenging the merits of framing teaching in terms of standards and competences. While it is not proposed to rehearse these arguments in detail here, it is important to document the main objections and potential pitfalls.

The scale and nature of objections evident in the literature indicate that the values underpinning standards statements or lists of professional competences do not take account of the complexity of teaching and learning (Alcorn, 1999; Eraut, 1994; Korthagen, 2004; Zeichner, 2005; Mahony & Hextall, 2000; Thrupp, 2006). Some supporters of standards view them as a potential curriculum that could be directly implemented (e.g. Gibbs & Munro, 1994 in New Zealand) while critics argue that standards would potentially reduce teaching to a rigid technicist set of behaviours. A well-known international scholar in teacher education, Cochran-Smith (2001; 2003) argues that, as normative structures, professional standards may lead to de-professionalisation because they reduce the incentive for teachers to reflect critically on their own norms and values. In similar vein, Judith Sachs (2003) shows that when standards are imposed teachers rely on external norms, taking them for granted. The extent to which they relate to improved performance at either the individual or system level is also questioned (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Thrupp, 2006). Among the weaknesses overall are the following:

- The reductive way in which the approach to competences atomises and fragments the teacher's role rather than representing it as an integrated and coherent whole.
- The generic nature of teaching competences that assumes a common set of capabilities regardless of the teaching context.

- The focus on current and past performance rather than on future requirements.
- The privileging of competences that foreground measurable behaviours and outcomes to the neglect or exclusion of more subtle qualities and situational factors.
- The limited and narrow approach to education that results.
- The privileging of the standard setter's voice over the teacher's and the resultant push towards uniformity as opposed to diversity.

As already noted above, the competency approach is founded on an objectivist view of the world that considers the teacher and the teaching as distinct entities – a view that is deeply problematic to many education writers and researchers (e.g. Berliner, 2001; 2004; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Seeing teacher and teaching as inseparable would see teacher knowledge as person- and context-bound.

Specifying standards in prescriptive ways would undermine teachers' capacity to be responsive to local situations where the standard and the demands of the context clashed. According to Richard Pring, good teaching can't ever be encapsulated into a set of standards because teaching will always be a cultural and contested activity which means a technical response will never be adequate:

*[T]eachers belong to a specific social and educational practice, coming to acquire the values and purposes inherent within it whilst at the same time contributing (through their constant reflection and critical appraisal) to its development. An 'educational practice' is necessarily a 'contested area', embracing as it does, a range of values over which there is not, nor could there ever be, a complete agreement. Such a tradition both of what is worth learning and of how morally that learning should take place has in an important sense 'a life of its own'. It is something which cannot be deliberately created anew. Its development arises from critical appraisal from within the tradition as much as from external pressures and regulations. Teachers, seeing the demotivation of alienated young people, will question the value of **this** learning objective for **these** pupils. They will reassess what it means to educate this or that child, given the particular economic or social circumstances. They will draw upon the cultural traditions they have inherited to make sense of the situation and to help the learners to make sense. In other words teaching as part of an educational practice must include deliberation about the end or values of teaching, as much as it does deliberation about the means or techniques.*

Pring, 2004, pp. 78–79, his emphasis, cited in Thrupp, 2008

If teaching is reduced to a set of competences there is a danger that teachers will be overly concerned with performance and compliance rather than the quality of learning

of their pupils. ‘Impression management’ (Ball, 2001), where teachers are encouraged to jump through hoops, takes precedence over finding ways of enabling learners to experience the curriculum at a deep level. A study by Gewirtz (2002) shows how the use of a heavy managerial and standards approach directed attention and resources away from pedagogic encounters with learners and towards the generation of evidence of teaching and learning to satisfy accountability requirements. Others have argued that reducing teaching to a set of behaviours trivialises the teacher’s work and undermines the significance of interpretation and judgement. Drawing on a music metaphor, Bolden and Gosling (2006) argue that

*While a competency framework might be a useful guide to how the melody may sound, if we focus too closely on the written music we may miss the most interesting and significant features of the performance, producing only sterile renditions devoid of emotion...Unlike music, however, which adapts its instruments and scales to different genres and moods, the competency approach applies the same techniques with little consideration to how well suited they may be to current and emerging social and organisational contexts. (pp. 151–2)*

These authors make the case for extending people’s competences (in their analogy, music reading and basic playing skills) but also extending their interpretation, improvisation and performance abilities which include emotions, intuitions, moral judgement and experience.

Parker (1997) argues that the demands of the post-modern world suggest a radical reconstruction of teaching along quite different lines to that offered by competences:

*Postmodernism issues in a plurality of educational dialogues, practices, ends and values. This will involve education and teacher-education institutions in becoming less like departments of science and more like departments of literature; less like the factory production line... and more like a fashion house, where the multiplicity of styles coexist. (cited in Menter et al., 2006, p. 283)*

Two contrasting approaches about competences and standards in teacher education are evident in the literature. The fundamental difference hinges on the use to which descriptions and evaluations of competences are put, i.e. on consequences. One is regulatory with the main (even sole) emphasis on measuring, monitoring, comparing and regulating behaviour – accountability in a narrow, technical sense (e.g. differentiating teacher performance). The more complex facets that defy numeric or simple description and evaluation tend to be marginalised. The other is developmental,

involving the use of loosely formulated teaching competences as illustrative and indicative of performance. Principles and codes of practice become more significant and helpful in this approach.

The skills-based, primarily regulatory model, which in England and some states in the USA represents the more reductionist and technicist approaches, has been the subject of much debate and criticism (e.g. Hargreaves et al., 2001; Sergiovanni, 2000; Apple, 2005; Sachs, 2003). These authors have criticised the rationale on which the standards were drawn up, questioning what they deemed to be a bureaucratic system of assessing, recording and reporting on individual teachers' performance, as opposed to holistic professional development. Furlong et al. (2000) refer to how standards have been recruited to 'invent content' and to marginalise matters to do with values, attitudes and personal qualities. In the USA, Sergiovanni referred to a 'standards stampede', by which he meant the draining of life from education through the inordinate and 'excessive preoccupation with the technical world of standards' (cited in Deegan, 2000, p. 19) which trivialised or ignored teacher values, beliefs and passions.

Regulatory approaches to standards/competences are usually accompanied by a raft of other policy mechanisms: performance management systems, performance pay, performance appraisal/review, quality audits and league tables. They are also variously associated, at least in some countries like the USA with a whole industry centred on teacher portfolio writing and with the involvement of personnel in much 'busy work' involving the documentation of how standards are assessed and covered in their respective institutions. Performance standards have to be interpreted and some have written rubrics to specify a range of performance indicators (Yinger & Hendricks-Lee, 2000) that would indicate the meeting of the standard. Hence a whole industry develops around the use of standards and competences. Inevitably the use of standards sets up a compliance culture where conformity is valued over diversity at the individual level.

Some Irish academics have expressed serious reservations about embarking on a competences route at this time (Deegan, 2007; Moran, 2007; Burke, 2007) while others (Gleeson & Moody, 2007) have cautioned against competences being used for bureaucratic/contractual purposes and in an overly prescriptive and reductionist way.

A developmental approach requires the learner teacher to recognise the temporal and situational context of teaching – that it requires meaningful professional relations with others, and the significant role played in general by wider socio-cultural factors. The role of reflection, discussion and experience would become highly relevant in the developmental approach. A ‘light-touch’ (generic) competency framework, with this purpose, could be seen as a representation (albeit a simple one) of a highly complex activity, as a descriptive tool for sense-making and as a useful guide to action and as a means of articulating professional values and objectives. In this approach a ‘not too tightly defined’ set of teaching competences could act to draw attention to the most significant facets of teaching and identify developmental opportunities at the individual and school levels.

The key difference in the two approaches is that the regulatory model, at its extreme, sees the teacher and the teaching as separate entities while the developmental approach sees the teacher and the teaching as essentially enmeshed.

Kleinhenz and Ingvarson (2007) have argued that standards and competences can provide a basis for developing valid systems for teacher accountability and performance and as vehicles for professional learning. Darling-Hammond (2001) and several others (Pyke & Lynch 2005; Danielson & McGreal, 2000) have all found that standards-based teacher evaluation systems can lead to enhanced professional learning if they allow teachers to play an active role in self-directed enquiry. However, using competences for both accountability/assessment and development may undermine their value for developmental purposes. Rather like the distinction that is often made between summative and formative assessment of learning, developmental/formative tools place an emphasis on openness and honesty yet their application for accountability purposes introduces a competing dynamic of complicity. This means that issues which might emerge within a developmental approach are suppressed or withheld if the teacher assumes that they may influence her or his career opportunities.

It takes several years of experience to develop sophisticated expertise. Teachers develop new understanding and competence over their careers in practice. They do not merely acquire some finite set of knowledge and skills in their entirety before entering the classroom. A developmental approach to competences, specified in terms of broad

guidance and direction, would be able to acknowledge this and use a standards framework as a reference tool for the critical review and self and peer reflection of practice and progress.

Clarity about purposes and functions would be an important pre-requisite to the drafting and use of standards in Ireland.

### **3.3.7 Approaches, purposes, functions**

Studies of the purposes, functions and impact of teacher standards (e.g. Mahony & Hextall, 2000) found that the ways in which the standards are converted into practice vary depending on the contexts of their implementation and who is responsible for doing the judging. Mahony and Hextall conclude that ‘standards do not guarantee standards’. The devil is in the interpretation. Standards can be understood and used in a limited way – as a list that describes what one has to do and how one has to do it. As a ‘tick list’, standards tell the teacher in detail how to behave and the only thing the teacher has to do is tick off a long list of behavioural elements. On the other hand, standards can be used to look carefully at an individual’s actions and professional practice, as a description against which to analyse the ‘what’ and ‘why’ of one’s practice, to consider alternatives for enhancing one’s practice – standards as a descriptive reference frame and for self-appraisal (see Koster & Dengerink, 2008).

Some countries operate on the assumption that by setting high performance standards for schools and by monitoring teacher performance in relation to set targets, teachers and students will improve the quality of outcomes. In the past 30 years centrally-defined ambitious performance outcomes or targets have been set by several countries in our survey (see Chapter 2). Curricula have been prescribed, learning outcomes have been determined, assessment regimes have been introduced to direct attention and energy to that which is assumed to be of importance. National targets have been set and high stakes accountability procedures put in place to maximise compliance with national prescriptions on curriculum and assessment, all of which have pushed towards greater convergence within (and increasingly without) national systems. Matters of teacher autonomy, trust and teacher professional judgement about what is best for students could be said to be less relevant in the attempt to pin down what to teach and how to teach and assess it. The standards-based model that has been developed and

implemented in England is a good example of an initiative that accords well with state policies to promote high standards by placing increasing pressure on individual teacher performance. Although the system seeks also to be formative and to facilitate professional development, teachers experience it primarily, and in many cases exclusively, as a system for holding them to account at the individual level (Jeffrey & Woods, 2002). This is due to the sanctions imposed for not meeting the standards: student teachers not obtaining qualified teacher status, teachers not being promoted, schools being reclassified (as ‘unsatisfactory’) and teacher education departments being forced to reduce their intake of students. This is why professionals themselves are often sceptical about professional development systems which draw heavily on statements of standards and competences (Sachs, 2003).

How competences are used changes the nature of people’s work and changing what teachers and teacher educators do also changes institutional cultures, and vice-versa. So the use of competences changes what it means to be a teacher/teacher educator. Commenting on what they perceive to be an instrumentalist and prescriptive approach in Australia, Smyth and Dow (1998) state that ‘the work of teachers is reconfigured so they become deliverers of knowledge, testers of student outcomes and pedagogical technicians’ (p. 293). Many researchers have made similar statements about the use of standards in England.

How teacher competences, regardless of how they are framed, are used in different countries is worth attention. Differences across countries in relation to what it is to become a teacher can be made visible based on such an analysis. Some countries have resisted adopting a narrow approach to standards. Finland, for instance, has evolved a flexible system whereby a culture of trust is built upon and standards are loosely-framed and generic, rather than tightly-specified and prescribed. In England government control over processes by which one may become a teacher is much tighter than most other countries, even within the UK. A comparative content analysis of key official documents, including standards and competences frameworks, that set out the framework by which people may qualify to teach in England and Scotland (Menter et al., 2006) showed that Scotland pays more attention to teachers’ commitment and values, especially inclusion and equality, than England does. Combating discrimination and the sociology of migrant populations are more explicit in Scotland. Also there is

more emphasis on ‘research and theory’ while in England the emphasis is more narrowly on ‘evidence’. All of this leads Menter et al. (2006) to conclude that Scotland’s conceptualisation of teaching is a more extended one, while England’s is more restricted. Some researchers (e.g. Yinger & Hendricks-Lee, 2000) have argued that standards in and of themselves are benign, that it is how they are used that generates conflict and tension. However, the study by Menter et al. would challenge this assumption. What the standards contain in terms of their detail (and what they do not contain) is highly relevant in terms of denoting what is deemed to be valued and thus what it means to become and be a teacher. We see a different positioning of the teacher and teaching in operation in Scotland and England.

### **3.3.8 Issues for consideration**

There is much debate about competence-based learning and performance, with considerable criticism about mechanistic and reductive sets of competences that represent teaching as a technical enterprise that can be simplistically mapped and assessed. What emerges from the literature is the need to resist the idea that teaching can be reduced to a number of discrete competences.

Very many researchers caution against over-managerialism in professional work which would in turn suggest caution about the approach to standards and competences. If used in a way that suggests a lack of trust in teachers, and thus for high accountability, then more might be lost than gained. Olssen et al. (2004) sum up this tension well:

*The specification of objectives, performance reviews and other management techniques may encourage teachers to behave in ways that are antithetical to certain fundamental educational values such as altruism, intellectual independence and imagination... the restoration of a culture of trust and professional accountability within all educational institutions is a necessary prerequisite for the maintenance of a robust and prosperous democratic society.*  
(p. 197)

Given the business and entrepreneurial origins of competences, the move to frame teaching in terms of competences changes the language of teaching and by implication changes the culture of teaching. Language not only represents the world but also constructs it. What needs to be guarded against then is that the undermining of the spiritual, moral and personal dimensions of education, as well as the variety and



diversity of practices, in a rush to reach targets, achieve outcomes and demonstrate narrow professional competences. Richard Pring's advice summarises the message well:

*As we think in business terms, so the ethos of the school is transformed from a place of moral and professional deliberation to one in which the teachers are skilled in meeting other people's targets...The spiritual and more dimensions are virtually eliminated; exposure to what is inspiring and heroic becomes irrelevant; the openness to diversity and deliberation is seen as a threat to the rational planning of the political masters. (Pring, cited in Burke, 2007, p. 71)*

There are problems even with generic competences if they are assumed to describe a common set of capabilities that can be applied regardless of the nature of the situation. A reliance on teacher behavioural competences – even those designed to lead to enhanced performance – overstates the individual and understates the local culture of the school as an organisation. The standard setter's view is privileged over the teacher's, thus incurring a loss of professional autonomy for the person engaged in the practice. This point highlights the importance of the distributed or shared nature of competence. What one can do is related to others – other teachers, classroom assistants, etc. – and to the cultural practices of the school one teaches in. Competences at the level of the individual teacher constitute only one side of the coin. We need to attend to what Bransford et al. call 'better teachers and better systems': 'Schools will need to continue to change to create the conditions within which powerful teaching and learning can occur, and teachers will need to be prepared to be part of this change process' (Bransford et al., 2000, p. 5).

Teaching can't be dissociated from the temporal and situational context in which it occurs. One can imagine for instance how in the presence of a rigid and authoritarian school culture, a teacher may remain powerless to achieve what is expected of him or her or to demonstrate what s/he can actually do. In other words, failure to consider the broader social context, including the nature of the school environment, is to ignore the significant role played by the wider culture of which a teacher is a part. Moreover, simply acquiring a competence does not guarantee its use. This suggests that teaching occurs in a situation and cannot be distilled into a number of constituent elements. It also supports the view that teaching is not an individualistic activity but is a relational one. The European Commission's work on teacher competences would seem to respect this view when it states that not all teachers should be expected to possess all the necessary competences. 'The challenge for educational leaders,' it is suggested, 'is to

ensure that such competences are present at a collective, institutional level' (European Union, 2005, cited in Moran, 2007). In this sense it is perhaps best to think of competency frameworks as simply representations of teaching that may support reflection, discussion and interpretation. Teaching then is seen as a profession with moral as well as technical expectations.

Whatever terminology is employed to describe the professional learning of teachers it is necessary that a complex, dynamic, reflexive and holistic approach is adopted in recognition of the situated and judgement-based reality of teaching.

On the basis of the issues raised in the chapter, the following key points for the Irish policy-maker in relation to the framing of teaching standards and competences can be listed:

- Clarity regarding purpose and problems would be an essential prerequisite to any decision to specify and use competences and standards. Would the purpose be to improve the quality of teaching and teacher education? If so, the specification of standards may not be the best route to take to achieve such an aim. Or would the purpose be to extend state control over teachers and their work conditions?
- In terms of opportunity cost, and making the best use of available resources, should the development of professional standards take precedence over other agendas and imperatives? Would programmes of excellent professional development designed to raise the quality of teaching (for example in relation to multicultural, multiliteracy and diversity issues) be a more appropriate route to take before adopting a standards approach?
- In terms of focus and specificity of standards, should they be specified in terms of key principles or generic standards or be more detailed and performance-oriented? The thrust of this chapter is away from more detailed, specified standards linked to individual accountability in a narrow sense on the grounds that the likely increase in teacher workloads would not be in proportion to enhanced provision and would probably reduce responsiveness to individual pupil need. A key question becomes: would standards (however specified) empower or constrain teaching and therefore expand or limit pupil learning?

- The complexity of professional practice would need to be captured in any approach to the specification of standards.
- Determining the appropriate balance in practice between individual professional development and individual accountability requires discussion and planning. There seems to be limited evidence to support the case for a ‘high stakes’ accountability of teacher performance.
- Acknowledging that individual teacher performance is ever situated, dynamic and unpredictable challenges the imposition of a prescriptive competences framework at the individual level.
- Finally, it would seem that caution would need to be exercised in relation to international policy borrowing and that it would be important to recognise the distinctiveness of the local/national context.

The key message from this chapter points to the need to consider the question of teaching standards in the context of the broader imperatives and purposes of education, and more specifically, to consider whether this topic is the most urgent contemporary issue for the profession. If it is decided that a standards route is the direction to take, then it would be important to evolve a flexible approach in Ireland whereby the existing culture of trust is built upon and where teaching competences/standards, if identified, are loosely framed rather than tightly specified. Adoption of a flexible framework and attention to developmental functions in Ireland could highlight the importance of assisted performance, evolving competence, and adaptive expertise across the 3 Is of teacher education. It could capitalise on the strong traditional autonomy of the Irish teacher while locating it in a broader professional framework where professional dialogue, contemporary educational challenges and pedagogical issues are examined with candour and honesty.

### **3.4 Accreditation**

#### **3.4.1 Why accredit? Programme and graduate quality, teacher mobility and phased professional education**

Across the European Union and elsewhere, much work has been done in recent years with regard to quality assurance in higher education in general and to the initial education of teachers in particular. It has been driven by a number of factors: the need to be accountable for public funding; an awareness that high quality initial teacher

education is an important (though not the only) prerequisite for a high quality education system (OECD, 2005; American Council on Education, 1999); the introduction of new and alternative pathways into teaching as a career, especially in countries where there is a multiplicity of providers of ITE; reforms in higher education in general and a move towards mutual recognition of qualifications between different states and different countries (the Bologna process: the TUNING<sup>13</sup> project; NQF, 2006; Buchberger et al., 2000, Drudy, 2006; Filmer-Sankey et al., 2006); the move to ensure that teaching is an all-graduate profession; and finally analogies with the way that other professions (e.g. medicine, the law, engineering) regulate their intake and the recognition of professional qualifications. Several countries (amongst them Denmark, Sweden, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Finland, Australia, New Zealand) have conducted overall reviews of their teacher education systems in recent years, either with a view to reform or as an evaluation of recently implemented reforms. These wide-ranging reviews also considered issues such as the capacity of existing systems to meet future needs. However, the focus in this section is on review/accreditation of individual providers/programmes of teacher education.

An overview of accreditation approaches and procedures across all the countries in our study is to be found in Chapter 2 (see 2.0.4), along with a more detailed case study of the accreditation process in New Zealand, chosen because of the role the NZ Teachers Council plays in the accreditation process.

With increasing mobility of an educated workforce, there is a concern at international level that qualifications gained in one country should be recognised elsewhere. This operates in particular at European level, and is also a factor across the English-speaking world. Several countries have set up bodies at national level to oversee qualifications in general, similar to the National Qualifications Authority in Ireland (NQAI), as well as sector-specific bodies (e.g. ITPQ in New Zealand). Forty-five countries in Europe are working towards the establishment of a European Higher Education Area, and the

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<sup>13</sup> *TUNING* is a pilot project developed by a group of universities, addressing several of the Bologna objectives, notably the adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees, the adoption of a system based on two cycles (undergraduate and masters level degrees) and the establishment of a system of credits. A number of broad learning outcomes have been identified, as well as subject-specific outcomes in a number of areas including Education Sciences (Deegan, 2008; Drudy, 2008; Gonzales and Wagenaar, 2005).

Bologna Process aims to provide a mechanism to relate national frameworks of qualifications to each other and to enable international transparency, international recognition of qualifications and international mobility of learners and graduates (NFQ, 2006). This has in turn led to a focus on learning outcomes (expressed as statements of what students know, understand and/or can demonstrate at the end of a period of learning). The idea is that learning outcomes or competences are a better way of assessing the relative levels of achievement of students from different educational systems than mere length of time spent in education. Within countries, graduation from an accredited course is generally considered to give a qualification that is nationally (and potentially internationally) recognised.

External and/or internal evaluation of higher education courses is common. Of the 30 countries reviewed in the *Quality Assurance in Teacher Education in Europe* report for the European Commission (Eurydice, 2006a), all except Luxembourg have a regulated system for evaluating teacher education, although this evaluation process may not be specific to teacher education. Campos (2004, p. 3) makes the useful distinction between two categories of higher education accreditation: academic and professional, each of which can refer to institutions or to programmes. Academic accreditation is based on a judgement on the suitability of a programme for the award of a degree, and is often linked to recognition of that degree at national or international level. In Ireland, degrees outside the mainstream university system are frequently accredited in this way by HETAC. Professional accreditation on the other hand is a judgement as to whether a course or programme provides a suitable preparation for entry into a profession. It is distinguished by the existence of criteria that are specific to the professional field, and by the involvement of professionals and employers from the sector in defining those criteria (Campos, 2004).

Professional accreditation is defined in a recent Australian review (Ingvarson et al., 2006, p. 1) as

*an endorsement by an independent external agency that a professional preparation course is adequate for the purpose of a particular profession; that the course is able to produce graduates who meet standards for entry to the profession and are competent to begin practice.* (Ingvarson et al., 2006, p. 1)

It is therefore an evaluation of the course in question and of the quality of the graduates that emerge from it. It is linked with the professional status of graduates. NCATE (the

National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education in the United States) states that:

*Professional accreditation of preparatory education programs is the bedrock upon which all professions (e.g., architecture, engineering, medicine, law) have built their reputations. It assures that those entering the respective field have been suitably prepared to practice through assimilation of a body of knowledge and pre-service practice in the profession. Accreditation of schools of education indicates that the school underwent rigorous external review by professionals, that performance of a teacher candidate in the program has been thoroughly assessed before he or she is recommended for licensure, and that programs meet standards set by the teaching profession at large.*(NCATE, 2008)

However, there is little or no research to show that accreditation directly improves outcomes. Most research in this area is descriptive rather than analytical (Wilson & Youngs, 2005). Accreditation is however often seen as linked to professional status. Analogies may be drawn with other professions where courses and providers have to satisfy the relevant professional bodies before graduates are admitted to membership of professional associations (e.g. medicine, engineering).

Accreditation is specifically linked in some countries (England, Scotland, New Zealand) to the standards that are required to achieve qualified teacher status (QTS) and to the development of professional development frameworks where students on ITE courses are on the first step (TDA, 2007; GTCS, 2006; SEED, 2006; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2007). Even when QTS and accreditation are separate processes, they are inevitably linked since ITE courses by definition aim to produce graduates who can begin to teach. The first of NCATE's standards for accreditation, for example, considers whether the course produces candidates for teaching who have the 'knowledge, skills and professional dispositions to help all students learn' (NCATE, 2008, p. 4).

Accreditation in these countries is therefore closely linked to the development of sets of professional standards. These standards have been drawn up in consultation with the various stakeholders, since it is vital that all concerned accept the validity of the measures used. Among these stakeholders are the relevant registration/accreditation authorities, teacher educators from universities or colleges of education, teachers, principals, teachers' unions and associations and parents' association representatives. These stakeholders may also be represented on accreditation boards and councils where these exist. Coolahan (2007, p. 14) points out the potential of a competency-based

approach to be either professionally positive and benign, or alternatively to be of a narrow check-list character and professionally malign. Accreditation has similar potentials for good or ill. It can be narrowly prescriptive or it can be developmental, depending on how it is applied and on whether it gives teacher educators space to use their own professional expertise in designing a curriculum to meet broad learning objectives.

### **3.4.2 What is the accreditation and quality link? Espoused and evidence**

There is a widespread belief in the close relationship between accreditation and quality, especially where there are a multiplicity of providers and variability in the standard of provision. This is particularly noticeable in the larger countries with less centralised control over the education system such as the United States and Australia, and is related to the relative status of teaching as a profession and to the calibre of those seeking to enter it. Assuring the quality of teacher education is less of an urgent concern in countries such as Finland, where teachers enjoy a high social status and there is keen competition for places on teacher education courses. In Australia, the concern with the variability in the quality of teacher education and in the academic standards required to gain entry to ITE has led to a push to introduce national standards and a national accreditation system with a view to raising professional status and driving quality improvements within the sector (Ingvarson et al. 2006).

Similarly, in the United States, where professional standards for teachers (licensure/certification requirements) are set at state level and there is no national requirement for teacher education courses to be accredited, many states have aligned themselves with the INTASC (1992, 2002) standards for beginning teachers and with the NCATE (2008) standards for teacher preparation and development. Two-thirds of new teaching graduates are now from NCATE-accredited institutions, and many of the remainder have been reviewed by state bodies that also use the NCATE standards. A third body, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), sets standards for teacher certification, which is seen as a further step on the continuum of teacher education and development. NBPTS offers certification for ‘accomplished teachers’ in a variety of areas: ‘Like board-certified doctors and accountants, teachers who achieve

National Board Certification have met rigorous standards through intensive study, expert evaluation, self-assessment and peer review' (NBPTS, 2008).

The shift towards a harmonisation of state regulation and professional standards is attributed by Boatwright (2002) to a changing emphasis on teacher knowledge and skills and new definitions of professionalism, leading to greater control over entry to the profession and more regulation of its members. There is also a widespread move towards specifying the learning outcomes that are to be expected from graduates of an ITE course, rather than merely requiring them to spend a certain length of time in an accredited institution. This competences-based approach underlies the OECD (2005) report. It has advantages in terms of accountability and of facilitating the mutual recognition of qualifications across countries. Hence sets of standards or competences have been incorporated into accreditation of teacher education in several countries. See for example the QTS standards in England (TDA, 2007), the New Zealand standards (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2005), the Scottish standards (GTCS, 2006) and the proposed Australian standards for accreditation (Teaching Australia, 2007: see Appendix B.4).

However, statements of competences are not the whole story. In this respect, it is interesting to note that Singapore places values first in the framework of *Values, Skills and Knowledge* which underpins curriculum development in teacher education in that country. Both accreditation processes and assessment of whether beginning teachers have reached the required standard need to take account of what Burke (2007, p. 83) calls the 'interpersonal or moral dimension of teaching', that is the beliefs, values, attitudes, integrity, flexibility, maturity and so on of the teacher, and of the potential development of the teacher as an 'adaptive expert' (Berliner, 2004; Bransford and Darling-Hammond, 2005; see also Chapter 1, section 1.2):

*Adaptive or fluid experts appear to learn throughout their careers, bringing the expertise they possess to bear on new problems and finding ways to tie the new situations they encounter to the knowledge bases they have. (Berliner, 2004, p. 203)*

This view ties initial accreditation into the continuum of lifelong learning, and sees the initial qualification as only the first step on that road. It highlights the importance of



high quality initial teacher education, and sees accreditation as one element in ensuring that high quality.

### **3.4.3 Accreditation of new areas and alternative routes**

While accreditation is generally discussed with regard to programmes of teacher education that take place in colleges or universities, in some countries there is now a variety of alternative routes into teaching. These work-based routes into teaching, such as Teach for America, allow people to work towards gaining QTS while teaching in schools. Employment-based teacher training (EBTT) in England comprises training programmes that allow trainees (usually mature people who are well qualified in other areas and who may have relevant experience) to work in a school and follow an individual training programme leading to qualified teacher status (QTS). Accrediting such pathways into teaching means that a different approach must be taken, allowing for alternative forms of assessment and recognition of prior learning, but still ensuring the quality of teaching.

Wilson and her colleagues (Wilson, Floden & Ferrini-Mundi, 2001, p. 30) found that most effective alternate routes into teaching shared certain characteristics:

- high entrance standards
- extensive mentoring and supervision
- extensive pedagogical training in instruction, management, curriculum, and working with diverse students,
- frequent and substantial evaluation
- practice in lesson planning and teaching prior to taking on full responsibility as a teacher
- high exit standards.

Berliner (2004) also warns that

*alternative teacher-training programs that require little or no classroom observation and little or no student teaching may be placing novice teachers at great risk of failure in their early years. Furthermore, individuals from such programs may be at risk of not growing suitably as professional educators, making the achievement of competency or expertise more problematic. (p. 203)*

Thus, accreditation or recognition of alternate routes must not only take into account the immediate needs of student and beginning teachers, but also ensure that the long term development of their professional identity and capabilities is taken into account.

#### **3.4.4 Accreditation and CPD**

Just as accreditation of ITE is related to QTS standards, accreditation of CPD is related in several countries to the award of Chartered, Advanced or Expert Teacher status. In Ireland, the 2004 SCoTENS report pointed out that:

*Growing teacher preoccupation with mandatory professional development activities, the advance of on-line learning and e-portfolios, pressures upon schools to support, manage, evaluate and verify reflective practice, and increasing teacher demands for its accreditation will continue to challenge existing university provision. (p. 117)*

The demand for accredited CPD is reflected in the uptake of courses such as the Master's in Education (M.Ed.), the various diplomas and certificates that are available in colleges and universities throughout the country, and the new structured education doctorates in UCD, NUIM, SPD, DCU and UCC. These already go through the universities' own internal academic approval processes. Whether they would come within the scope of advanced professional recognition by the Teaching Council or other professional body is a matter for discussion.

#### **3.4.5 Accreditation and early childhood education**

A trend is noticeable in several of the countries in our study towards the extension of formal accreditation processes into areas that have not hitherto been included, such as the training of pre-school teachers. In some cases (e.g. England and the Early Start classes in Ireland), nursery education within the state sector is carried out by qualified primary school teachers in collaboration with teaching assistants, nursery nurses and volunteer helpers, while people working in private and voluntary provision have a variety of qualifications. In many countries (Italy being one notable exception) people working with very young children do not enjoy the same status and conditions of employment as teachers in primary schools. One reason for this perceived lower status has been the lack of accredited qualifications in this area. This is now changing; many third-level institutions in Ireland and elsewhere offer degree programmes in early childhood education and care.

There is also a trend in some countries towards integrating the accreditation of early childhood qualifications with that of mainstream teacher education, although this is at an early stage in most cases. In the United States, the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) has drawn up sets of standards of professional preparation for early childhood programmes at colleges and universities at associate degree, initial licensure and advanced level. The NAEYC works as a specialised organisation with NCATE to review early childhood programmes at bachelor's and graduate degree level in colleges and universities. If a programme meets the NAEYC standards and if the institution goes on to be accredited by NCATE, it receives a nationally known mark of quality.

Singapore has adopted a different approach, but the accreditation of pre-school qualification does come within the remit of the Ministry of Education (MOE). The MOE, jointly with the Ministry for Community Development, Youth and Sport, has set up a Pre-school Qualifications Accreditation Committee (PQAC) which sets standards for the admission, administration, course content, assessment, teaching practice, staffing and resources of ITE courses for pre-school teachers. Unlike ITE for primary and post-primary teachers, training for pre-school teachers in Singapore is not centralised and takes place in a variety of institutions both public and private. The PQAC was therefore seen as necessary in order to ensure the quality of training for pre-school teachers.

The country in our study which has gone furthest in this respect is New Zealand. Under its strategic plan for the development of early childhood education, the New Zealand Ministry of Education (2002) has begun to integrate early childhood teaching into the mainstream. Accredited qualifications in early childhood education for teachers in 'teacher-led' services, including kindergartens and early childhood centres, come under the remit of the New Zealand Teachers Council (TeachNZ, 2008). Here again, accreditation is seen as raising both the quality of preparation and the status of those who work in early childhood education.

The integration of early childhood qualifications with those of mainstream teacher education is obviously easier when the former are considered to come within the remit of the national education ministry. Historically, early childhood services have often been seen as the responsibility of health or social ministries. However, given the increasing recognition of the importance of the earliest years for children's learning and

development, it would seem logical for the future that greater co-operation between ministries in this area will be needed. This has been recognised in Ireland by the establishment of the Office of the Minister for Children. The need for those working in the area to have accredited qualifications is also an issue. It is interesting to note in this regard the considerable work that has been done on a competence-model framework for qualifications in the early childhood sector in Ireland (DJELR, 2002).

### **3.4.6 Conclusion: Accreditation: Implications for the continuum**

Accreditation is seen in many countries as an important element in ensuring the quality of teacher education. Accreditation is used as a means of enhancing the professional standing of teachers in the USA and elsewhere.

**It is also closely linked to issues of control and accountability**, being linked in many cases to access to public funding for both institutions and students.

**Accreditation mechanisms differ greatly** from country to country, depending on various factors including the stage of development of the teacher education system, how centralised the system is in each country, and existing quality assurance mechanisms. Likewise, there is variation in the extent to which self-evaluation or internal quality control mechanisms are taken into account for external accreditation purposes.

**Accreditation is to the forefront in those contexts where there is a wide diversity in standards and in provision.** It enables the qualifications of graduates to be recognised outside of their local context in those cases where national standards have been adopted. It is not as crucial in a relatively homogenous system like that of Ireland. It may however become important for Irish graduates who wish their qualifications to be recognised for teaching abroad. It also allows for **quality monitoring of alternate pathways into teaching.**

**Accreditation standards need to emerge from a consensus by the various stakeholders.** The proposed Australian system (see Appendix B.4) has taken more than ten years to evolve to its current stage. Accreditation is most successful when teachers, teacher educators and employers have an input into the criteria for professional recognition of teaching qualifications. **Any accreditation system for teachers in**

**Ireland needs to take this into account, and to involve all stakeholders,** as was done in the development of the Teaching Council's Codes of Professional Conduct.

**In countries where teacher education and the quality of teaching in general is acknowledged to be of a high quality, accreditation tends to be 'light touch'.** There is a high level of trust in teacher educators and in the internal and external quality control procedures of institutions once broad parameters have been complied with. **Ireland falls into this category;** in general teacher educators have considerable freedom to develop curriculum and pedagogy within the broad frameworks laid down for degree and diploma programmes in third-level contexts, and this should continue to be the case.

Ireland has a long-standing tradition of relying on academic accreditation as a means of ensuring teachers' initial readiness to practise as teachers. **The role of the Teaching Council will be to complement this through the professional accreditation process.**

There are well-established accreditation procedures involving teachers' councils in New Zealand and Scotland. Also of interest are NCATE in the USA, the current work on developing an accreditation system in Australia, and the work of HETAC as an accrediting body in Ireland. The Teaching Council could draw on all of these to inform its work in developing an accreditation system for teacher education.



## Chapter 4: Review and reform of teacher education in Ireland: Conclusions and Recommendations

### 4.0 Review and reform of teacher education

#### 4.0.1 Continuum of teacher education in a policy context

Teaching and teacher education in Ireland have a long and honourable history. Teaching is generally well respected and continues to attract high-attaining students. Furthermore, there is a long-standing recognition that teacher education is of good quality. Unlike some other countries, there have not been widespread calls for major reform of teacher education, although teacher education for primary (Kellaghan, 2002) and post-primary (Byrne, 2002) levels were the focus of two major reviews initiated in 1998 by then Minister for Education, Micheál Martin, TD. In addition, a report (Coolahan, 2003) was completed as part of the consultative process for the OECD's *Teachers Matter* (2005) study. These three documents provide a valuable source of policy directions and data on teacher education at both primary and post-primary levels. Each acknowledges the high status accorded to teachers in Ireland.

Significantly, all three reports identified the need for greater coherence and integration in relation to the continuum of teacher education as a key feature of developing higher quality primary and post-primary education in Ireland (Coolahan, 2007a). As all three reports<sup>14</sup> were undertaken prior to the establishment of the Teaching Council, there is now, a decade later, a need to develop comprehensive policies for the continuum<sup>15</sup> of teacher education in order to meet the challenges of globalisation, sustainable development and the knowledge society, and of the changing social and demographic context in which teachers work.

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<sup>14</sup> All three reports involved wide consultation with teacher education stakeholders. The reviews of primary and post-primary teacher education were announced on the same day in August 1998 by then Minister for Education, Micheál Martin, TD, in a speech at the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) conference in Limerick. The recommendations in both of these reviews are in Appendix A1. The third review was undertaken as part of a consultative process during 2002/03 in preparing a country background report for submission to the OECD *Teachers Matter* (2005) study.

<sup>15</sup> The continuum of teacher education is typically referred to as the 3 Is, that is, initial teacher education, induction and in-service education.

This chapter is organised into four sections:

- (i) the policy, societal and curricular contexts of teacher education,(4.0)
- (ii) research on the continuum undertaken in Ireland, (4.1)
- (iii) four principles to guide the integration of the continuum (4.2) and
- (iv) findings and recommendations (4.3).

We highlight a number of key points in relation to the formulation of policy on the continuum of teacher education:

- The consultative basis of the three reviews of teacher education provide valuable insights into current structures and possible future directions
- The importance of a broad, balanced, comprehensive understanding of the role(s) and work of teachers as a prerequisite in mapping a vision for the continuum
- The acceptance, in principle, since the early 1990s of the 3 Is (initial teacher education, induction and in-service or continuing professional development) as the basis for the teaching career in Ireland
- The need to understand teacher education policy and reform in the context of wider societal and curricular changes
- The potential of research on the continuum, undertaken in Ireland, to inform the work of the Teaching Council
- Four principles as the basis for integrating the continuum.

We have advocated a broad, balanced and comprehensive understanding of the role(s) of the teacher and view this as a prerequisite in mapping a vision for the continuum of teacher education (see Chapter 1). The continuum of teacher education framework we developed for this commissioned report focuses on teachers' roles, quality teaching, the professional life-cycle, teacher learning and relationships. The interrelated nature of these five dimensions of teaching and teacher education is evident in that re-conceptualising one has implications for each of the other dimensions. In this chapter, we use this framework to categorise existing research on teaching and teacher education across the continuum in Ireland (see Table 4.2).



In principle, the 3 Is view of the continuum has been accepted since the early 1990s. Coolahan (2007a), in the position paper developed on behalf of the Teaching Council, highlights that while the importance of bringing greater coherence to the teaching continuum has long been recognised in teacher education policy, this has not resulted in investment commensurate with the policy ambitions. The 3 Is conceptualisation of the teaching career is helpful in that it points to the need for linkage, progression and coherence between these three key phases across the professional life-cycle. We have argued however that this model needs to be re-visited for two reasons (see Table 4.1).

First, students entering teacher education courses have already spent many years in school settings, observing teachers at work. This ‘apprenticeship of observation’ (Lortie, 1975), with its powerful impact on teacher candidates’ beliefs and knowledge about teaching and learning, presents a unique challenge. In no other professional education programme do students bring so much observational experience to bear on their understanding of every aspect of their professional preparation. We would argue therefore that the 3 Is view of the continuum could be expanded to include this prior experience, as in Table 4.1 below. Consideration might also be given to regarding years two and three after graduation from ITE as a distinctive phase, that of early professional development, as is the case in Northern Ireland and Poland. Initial teacher education, induction and early professional development all take place in the context of teaching as a collegial profession, and of the school as a place of learning and development not just for the pupils but for the teaching staff. The partnership between schools and teacher education providers is also central to this concept of a learning community.

**Table 4.1 The continuum of teacher education**

<b>Apprenticeship of observation</b>	<b>Initial teacher education</b>	<b>Induction</b>	<b>Early professional development</b>	<b>Continuing professional development</b>
14 or more years	1 to 4 years	1 year	Years 2 and 3 of teaching	Rest of career
Observation and experiences in pre-school, primary and secondary school	University, college of education, plus school placement	School-based (in collaboration with teacher education provider)	School-based, (in collaboration with teacher education provider)	Includes scope for leadership and/or mentoring as well as individual professional development

Second, this longitudinal view of the continuum, while extremely useful in identifying the distinctive characteristics and needs of each phase, does not take into account the five dimensions (see Table 4.2 for studies in Ireland relevant to the framework) mentioned earlier that cut across all stages of a teaching career. These five dimensions (i.e. roles, relationships, learning, life-cycle and quality) provide a framework for considering the nature of supports needed for the phased development of teachers across the continuum, particularly with respect to critical areas of professional formation. For example, the slow development of supports for the induction phase (especially in comparison with other countries, as illustrated in Chapters 2 and 3) points to significant challenges in terms of investment and commitment at the system level.

**Table 4.2 Continuum of teacher education framework: roles, quality, learning, life-cycle and professional relationships**

<b>Dimensions of the Continuum</b>	<b>Sample Studies in Ireland</b>
<i>Teachers' roles</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teachers and discipline in schools (Martin, 2006)</li> <li>• Teachers' role in teaching RSE (Morgan, 2000); SPHE (Mac an Ghail, Hanafin &amp; Conway, 2004) and addressing diversity (Darmody, McGinnity, &amp; Smyth, 2009)</li> </ul>
<i>Quality teaching</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Effects of schooling at post-primary level (Smyth, 1998; Smyth, 2000; Smyth et al., 2007)</li> <li>• Final year B.Ed. students and NQTs at primary level (DES, 2006; DES, 2007)</li> <li>• Minister's Strategy Group (2008) re. ICTs in Irish schools</li> <li>• The role of assessment (NCCA, 2007; O'Leary, 2008)</li> </ul>
<i>Teacher learning</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• TL21 (Hogan et al., 2007)</li> <li>• Nature and quality of CPD (Sugrue et al., 2001; Sugrue, 2002; Granville, 2005; Rath, 2002b; Rath, 2009)</li> </ul>
<i>Professional life-cycle</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Characteristics of CPD at primary and post-primary levels and types and nature of the knowledge-practice relationship (Sugrue, 2002; Sugrue et al., 2001)</li> <li>• Background and beliefs of student teachers (Sugrue, 1997 &amp; 2004; Leavy et al., 2007)</li> <li>• Quality and appropriateness of CPD (Granville, 2005)</li> <li>• Characteristics, backgrounds and attitudes of student teachers (Drudy, 1993; Heinz, 2008; MacPhail et al., 2009)</li> </ul>
<i>Professional relationships</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Home-school liaison (Conaty, 2002)</li> <li>• Teachers' role in new reporting practices at primary level (NCCA, 2007; Hall, Conway, Rath, Murphy &amp; McKeon, 2008)</li> </ul>

The National Education Convention (Coolahan, 1994), all major government reports (Green and White Papers on Education, 1993, 1995) and both reviews of initial teacher education cited above have consistently pointed to the necessity for a comprehensive and coherent induction process for new teachers. Yet, a decade and a half later, induction is still in a pilot phase through the National Pilot Project for Teacher Induction (NPPTI). Coverage is geographically patchy and remains voluntary. It is crucial that induction is formally recognised as a key phase in learning to teach and that systematic support is put in place to meet the needs of beginning teachers.

#### **4.0.1.1 Two reviews of initial teacher education**

*The primary review body made 61 recommendations which included: the extension of the concurrent programmes for primary teachers from three years to four; the institutionalisation of the consecutive model for primary teaching as a permanent feature rather than to address shortfalls in supply; increasing the mathematics requirement at entry; the establishment of middle management structures in the primary colleges.*

**Drudy, 2006, p. 45**

*The post-primary review body made over 65 recommendations including: an emphasis on the value of enquiry-based models of teacher education; the establishment of partnership boards between universities and stakeholders; a minimum of two different school sites for teaching practice (not yet universal); retention of both the consecutive and concurrent models; flexible pathways of accreditation; diversity education on all courses; structured induction for all newly qualified teachers; increasing full-time staff levels in education departments.*

**Drudy, 2006, p. 45**

In the last two decades Irish education has been a major focus of government legislation, policy-making and curricular reform at all levels. This is especially noteworthy at primary and post-primary levels with ongoing rolling syllabus reviews, curriculum reform and new legislation that place statutory responsibilities on schools and educators. These major reform initiatives have placed the responsibility on teachers to help people to develop their capacity to be lifelong adaptive learners. Learning within a knowledge-based society means learning that is participative, learner-centred and lifelong. As stated throughout this report, this has major implications for teacher education. This point was emphasised in both reviews of teacher education which set a direction for teacher education in the 21st century (Kellaghan, 2002; Byrne, 2002).

Both of these reports were the subject of considerable discussion and debate at the time within the teaching profession, but they attracted little attention outside of that, few of their recommendations have been implemented and it seems that an opportunity for systematic reform of teacher education in Ireland has been missed (Coolahan, 2007a). While individual institutions continue to update and review the quality of their programmes, there has been no major reform of the teacher education framework since the early 1970s. Consequently, there is considerable scope for more extensive discussion of the development, reform, infrastructural support and resources needed within this sector to meet the new societal contexts of contemporary teaching and teacher education.

It is timely that there should now be a considered, focused and strategic development in teacher education (Coolahan, 2007a). This is especially important given the demographic changes over the last three decades (see Appendix C). In addition, the primary and post-primary school-going population is likely to increase in the next decade, even using conservative assumptions to estimate population growth (CSO, 2008a<sup>16</sup>). It is important that adequate high-quality teacher education provision (primary and post-primary) be made to meet the increasing numbers and more diverse student population in Irish schools<sup>17</sup> in the coming decade and beyond.

#### **4.0.2 The continuum of teacher education in a societal context: The ‘new’ Ireland**

The accelerating pace of social, cultural, economic and demographic change in Ireland and the impact of globalisation<sup>18</sup> and the knowledge society on peoples’ lives, necessitate a thorough and fresh look at teacher education. This is essential so that

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<sup>16</sup> ‘Taking the “primary” school population as being broadly represented by those aged 5-12 years, the numbers in this category are projected to increase progressively under all combinations of assumptions in the period 2006–21. The projected increases vary from 106,000...to 173,000...Even in the absence of migration...the “primary” school-going population is projected to increase by between 30,000 and 68,000 over the period 2006–2021, depending on the fertility assumption chosen’. (CSO, 2008, p. 28)

<sup>17</sup> See Smyth, E., Darmody, M., McGinnity, F., Byrne, D. (2009). *Adapting to Diversity: Irish Schools and Newcomer Students*, ESRI Research Series No. 8, for a detailed report on how Irish schools are adapting to the diversity resulting from newcomer students entering the education system at primary and post-primary levels.

<sup>18</sup> ‘Ireland is by far the world’s most globalised country, according to a study of 62 countries to be published in the US today. The Globalisation Index puts Ireland well ahead of countries seen as having open economies, such as Singapore, in third place, and New Zealand, in 19th. Ireland is also substantially more globalised than the world’s big economies’ (Brown, 2002). In recent years, Ireland has been consistently in the top half a dozen countries on the Globalisation Index.

tomorrow's teachers are well equipped to meet the challenges they face and are motivated to continue their professional education so that they can support the learning of their students over the course of a career that is likely to involve a much greater degree of interaction with students, colleagues, parents and other professionals. At a time when their role is becoming increasingly complex and demanding, teachers need the opportunity to become knowledgeable, inquiry-oriented professionals. They need to be attentive to problems of practice and resourceful in generating and sharing knowledge about teaching and learning within schools and with the education system more broadly (Hargreaves, 2003; Rust, 2009).

Education is a key social activity by which society reproduces and reshapes the norms, relationships and ways of life it considers desirable. Articulation of educational goals is fundamental to educational planning, especially in times of rapid social change and considering the legitimate but sometimes competing, and always contested, educational aspirations (e.g. social mobility, social efficiency and democratic equity). Issues such as aspirations for educational excellence, creativity and entrepreneurship, and the nature and extent of socio-economic inequities, as well as the best means of addressing these have implications for policy and practice in both schools and teacher education institutions. Other influencing factors include the changing dynamics of social mobility, the new cultural geography of educational opportunity, the extent of social inclusion/exclusion and the overall wellness of individuals and groups in Irish society

In the context of social change and educational reforms, it is essential that teachers' professional education is broadly based at all stages of the continuum so that they have a deep understanding of the inter-relationships across pedagogy, classrooms/schools, communities and society and the necessary capacity to educate the next generation for life in the 21st century. The Teaching Council, Department of Education and Science, parents, teacher educators, schools, colleges/universities, statutory bodies and other education agencies/support services all have roles in influencing and co-ordinating efforts to enact new pedagogical and leadership practices in teacher education across the continuum in the 'new' Ireland.

### **4.0.3 The continuum of teacher education in the context of curriculum reform**

As we noted in Chapter 1 and throughout this report, the continuum of teacher education over the professional life-cycle has become a key policy focus for national governments, trans-national agencies and inter-governmental bodies. Central to this is an emphasis on a ‘new teacher professionalism’ characterised by expectations that teachers will teach to ever-higher standards, for an increasingly diverse student population. This has led to an intensification of teachers’ work worldwide, and in many countries this has also been amplified by the use of high-stakes accountability mechanisms (Sahlberg, 2007; Gleeson & Ó Donnabháin, 2009). Fortunately, this is not the case in Ireland. In contexts characterised by standardisation and high-stakes consequences for teachers and schools, teacher morale has typically dropped and this has had a significant negative impact on teaching and learning across the continuum, making teacher recruitment and retention especially difficult. The key lesson then is that the specific dynamics of educational reform in national contexts influence teacher professionalism and teachers’ morale and identity in profound ways. Consequently, decisions about how best to institute educational reform, whether system-wide educational reform or within teacher education, will affect teaching and teacher education across the continuum.

The accelerated pace of societal change is reflected in new and/or amplified challenges for the primary and post-primary education system, each with significant implications for teacher education. Some of the current challenges that have been identified are:

- addressing achievement gaps, especially in relation to core areas such as reading, mathematical and scientific literacies (Eivers, Shiel & Cunningham, 2007; Shiel & Surgenor, 2008)
- addressing proven difficulties students have in using knowledge in problem-solving contexts (e.g. post-primary mathematics education, Conway & Sloane, 2006)
- promoting inclusion and active citizenship, in terms of inter-culturalism, disadvantage and special education needs (e.g. Smyth et al., 2009; Lynch, 2006; Devine & Kelly, 2006; Griffin & Shevlin, 2007; Kerr, McCarthy & Smith, 2002; Smith, 2003; Jeffers & O’Connor, 2009; Dahl et al., 2008; Nowlan, 2008; MacRuairc, 2009)

- extending lifelong learning opportunities (Coolahan, 2003; NCCA, 2005)
- promoting higher-order thinking (in subject areas), knowledge generation and creativity (e.g. review of senior cycle, NCCA, 2005)
- integrating new modes of teaching and assessment in light of rolling reviews of curricula/syllabi (e.g. assessment guidelines for primary schools, NCCA, 2007)
- addressing system shortcomings identified in various evaluations of syllabus/curriculum implementation (e.g. DES, 2005 and NCCA, 2005 evaluations of the implementation of the revised Primary School Curriculum, 1999)
- promoting the integration of new learning technologies in classroom teaching and learning (Minister's Strategy Group, 2008)
- working in the context of changing social relationships in families, schools communities and online settings
- the role of the school of tomorrow in a knowledge society (OECD, 2001).

Discussions about the nature, scope, governance and provision of schooling have direct implications for the manner in which teachers are educated for work in institutions in which every person in society spends a significant portion of their lives.

#### ***4.1 Highlighting, strengthening and researching the continuum: 1991–present***

In addition to the three reports mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, numerous other reports, research studies and policy papers have reiterated the centrality of the continuum in developing and retaining a high-quality teaching force. These include Green and White Papers in the mid-1990s. All these documents have highlighted the importance of:

- recognising teacher education as a continuum
- strengthening the connections between the different phases of the continuum
- recognising and supporting both the commonality and diversity of practices across the teacher education sector in existing, concurrent and consecutive ITE programmes (see Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 for an overview of current ITE provision<sup>19</sup>).

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<sup>19</sup> There are twenty-one providers of Initial Teacher Education in Ireland.

There have been numerous initiatives and innovations in teacher education across the continuum during the same period including:

- Initial Teacher Education
  - The use of peer-videoing in the classroom as a tool to promote reflective practice among student teachers (Harford & MacRuairc, 2008)
  - Developing a social justice and development education orientation (e.g. Clarke & Drudy, 2006)
  - Development of reflective practice portfolios as an assessment, inquiry and knowledge-integration tool (Rath, 2000; Rath, in press)
  - Various projects in ITE that have adopted a strong reflective practice stance (e.g. Ubuntu at UL, Centre for Educational Disadvantage at MIC)
  - Service learning in ITE at NUI, Galway (Murphy, 2007).
- Induction
  - NPPTI (2002–present, but still in pilot phase; Killeavy & Murphy, 2006; Killeavy & Murphy, 2008).
- Continuing Professional Development
  - Expansion of CPD at both primary and post-primary levels with diversity in the range of providers e.g. INTO, NCTE, SESS, PCSP (now PPDS), SLSS, RCSP, VECs
  - Research on challenges of changing classroom teaching and learning (Teaching and Learning 21 (i.e. TL21) at NUI, Maynooth, Hogan et al., 2007)
  - Employment Assistance Service (now disbanded)
  - Availability of online learning opportunities for teachers (e.g. INTO, ProfExcel).

All of these reflect the concern of teachers and teacher educators for ongoing development of their professional skills; they also reflect the somewhat fragmented approach that has been taken to this to date.



**Table 4.3 Providers of initial teacher education: Primary**

<b>CONCURRENT</b>	<b>CONSECUTIVE</b>
Mary Immaculate College, Limerick St Patrick's College, Dublin Coláiste Mhuire, Marino Institute of Education, Dublin	Coláiste Mhuire, Marino Institute of Education, Dublin Mary Immaculate College, Limerick St Patrick's College, Dublin The Church of Ireland College of Education, Dublin The Froebel College of Education, Dublin Hibernia College, Dublin

**Table 4.4 Providers of initial teacher education: Post-primary**

<b>CONCURRENT</b>	<b>CONSECUTIVE</b>
Dublin City University Mater Dei Institute, Dublin National College of Art and Design, Dublin St Angela's College, Sligo University of Limerick University College Cork Trinity College Dublin St Patrick's College, Thurles & Tipperary Institute Galway-Mayo Institute of Technology Letterfrack NUI Galway NUI Maynooth	NUI Galway NUI Maynooth Trinity College Dublin University College Cork University of Limerick Limerick Institute of Technology, School of Art and Design National College of Art and Design, Dublin University College Dublin Dublin City University Crawford College of Art and Design, Cork Galway-Mayo Institute of Technology Limerick Institute of Technology National College of Art and Design, Dublin

#### 4.1.1 Research on the continuum: ITE, induction and CPD

In this section, we note key research on various aspects of the continuum in Ireland. In brief, there has been considerable research on ITE and CPD, and to a lesser extent on induction. Learning outcomes and professional standards/competences have been the focus of a recent SCoTENS-funded conference and subsequent publication (Dolan & Gleeson, 2007), which provides a timely reflection on this critical area for teacher education at present. To our knowledge, there has not been any research examining the review and accreditation of teacher education in Ireland.

##### 4.1.1.1 Research on Initial Teacher Education

*There are no formal structures, arrangements or requirements in relation to teacher observation, coaching or mentoring...While there is no tradition of teacher observation, peer coaching or mentoring in Ireland, there have been a number of pilot projects involving groups of schools and Education Centres in which different approaches to mentoring have been monitored and researched*

**OECD/LDS, 2007, pp. 43–4**

There has been a considerable amount of research on the initial teacher education phase undertaken in Ireland over the last twenty years (e.g. Breathnach, 2006; Burke, 1989; Burke, 1992; Burke, 2000; Burke, 2003; Cannon, 2004; Coolahan, 2003; Cremin, 1998; Drudy & Oldham, 2000; Drudy, 2006a; Drudy, 2006b; Fitzgibbon, 1994; Gleeson, 2004; Harford & MacRuairc, 2008; Leavy, 2005; Leavy, McSorley & Boté, 2007; Leonard & Gleeson, 1999; Rath, 2002b; Conway, 2007; Heinz, 2008; O'Moore & Shevlin, 2000; Sugrue, 1998; Moody, 2009; McMahon & MacPhail, 2007; O'Sullivan, MacPhail & Tannehill, 2009; O'Sullivan, 2008; Deegan, 2008).

During the last five years the development of three projects<sup>20</sup> have provided a rich cross-institutional and cross-border context for discussions focused on the initial phase of teacher development, as well as other phases of the continuum. The first of these is the Standing Conference on Teacher Education, North and South (SCoTENS), which was set up primarily to support teacher educators on the island of Ireland through conferences, publications, resources and discussions. The second is the Colleges of

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<sup>20</sup> Web addresses for the three projects are as follows: SCOTENS, <http://scotens.org/>; CERC [www.cerc.ie](http://www.cerc.ie); Ubuntu [www.ubuntu.ie](http://www.ubuntu.ie)

Education Research Consortium (CERC<sup>21</sup>), established in 2003 as a locus of information, networking and collaboration for research and research-related activities in primary teacher education. CERC brings together beginning and experienced researchers from diverse research traditions and methodological approaches, thereby capitalising on the potentials and possibilities for interdisciplinary, theoretical, conceptual and applied research in areas of education such as curriculum, learning, evaluation, teaching and teacher education. Finally, the Ubuntu Network supports the integration of Development Education (DE) and Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) into post-primary Initial Teacher Education in Ireland (funded by Irish Aid, Department of Foreign Affairs). This network provides an important context for teacher educators to share practice innovations, goals, principles and to collaborate on innovative small-scale research projects on enacting development education principles of participative action research.

Large-scale programmatic research involving the study of an entire teacher education programme is the exception rather than the rule. The CERC project, for example, includes a programmatic longitudinal study of a cohort of teachers' lives (Morgan & O'Leary, 2004; Shine-Thompson, 2005; Morgan, Kitching & O'Leary, 2007; Deegan, 2008).

The cross-border dimension has added a valuable comparative perspective on the dynamics of ITE in Ireland. In this context, a recent North-South/SCoTENS study of teaching practice and university-school partnership arrangements is indicative of the current issues being addressed by teacher educators (McWilliams, Cannon, Farrar, Tubbert, Connolly & McSorley, 2006). McWilliams et al. examined teacher education in Northern Ireland and Ireland in the context of an exchange programme between student teachers from Northern Ireland and Ireland for a period of school-based work in each other's jurisdictions. Locating the study in recent curricular developments, partnership with schools, college requirements and cultural diversity in both jurisdictions, the study illustrated the effects of different system arrangements on student teacher preparation, classroom delivery and tutor involvement in the received

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<sup>21</sup> Church of Ireland College of Education, Dublin; Coláiste Mhuire, Marino, Dublin; Froebel College of Education, Dublin; Mary Immaculate College, Limerick and St Patrick's College, Dublin.

curriculum of initial teacher education. They noted, for example, the highly prescribed and assessed Northern Ireland primary curriculum compared to that of ‘the Republic of Ireland, which appears to offer more in terms of freedom, flexibility and independence in planning’ (p. 67). They also documented different supervisory practices and responsibilities for the assessment of student teachers’ practice in schools. For example, they documented how college of education tutors in Ireland typically

*...exercise more control over student teachers’ preparation and professional development for teaching, while in Northern Ireland the partnership arrangements have given more influence to schools. The paper illuminates the shift of locus of control and influence of Colleges of Education in Northern Ireland in the education of student teachers, while in Ireland [i.e. the South] Colleges of Education have retained their influence. (p. 67)*

The key lesson from this cross-border study is the undeniable importance of context and history in shaping current practices in initial teacher education.

Other studies have examined the nature of student teachers’ beliefs or lay theories about teaching and learning (Rath, 2000; Sugrue, 1997; Sugrue, 2004), student teachers’ engagement with reflective practice (Rath, 2009; Harford & MacRuairc, 2008; Leavy et al., 2007, Rath, in press), the characteristics of student teachers (Drudy, 2006; Heinz, 2008) and student teachers’ experiences and understanding of diversity (Clarke & Drudy, 2006; Leavy, 2005). All these studies point to the critical role that student teachers’ beliefs and backgrounds play in how they interpret their learning-to-teach experiences (both coursework and teaching practice).

A number of studies have documented student teachers’ experiences in schools on teaching practice (Breathnach, 2006; Conway, 2007). Consistent with the observations of the OECD/LDS (2007) study quoted above, Conway (2007) notes, in a study of post-primary students in the consecutive model, that the vast majority of student teachers typically have very limited, or no, opportunity for observation of other teachers during a seven-month teaching practice period. In a series of surveys of PDE (post-primary) students undertaken during three different academic years (2002, 2004, 2006; see Conway, 2007), between a third and a quarter (depending on the year) had a chance to observe a teacher teach a lesson during teaching practice. However, between two-thirds and three-quarters stated that they got some type of mentoring; they sought one out,

were assigned an individual mentor, or were part of group in a school that had assigned a teacher as co-ordinator for PDE students. This study suggests that teachers were willing to support student teachers professionally in terms of personal support, advice and providing access to resources, but less willing or comfortable to create opportunities for class/lesson observation, joint lesson planning and related discussion. In a wider sense, these findings identify cultural dynamics of teaching in Irish schools that will need to be addressed through dialogue within the profession, focusing on how best to support the next generation of teachers.

The growth of research on initial teacher education in Ireland over the last decade will provide a valuable database in the current policy formulation period (2008–2010) and beyond.

#### **4.1.1.2 Research on Induction**

There is a limited research base on induction in Ireland (e.g. Galvin, 2003; Killeavy, 2006; Killeavy & Murphy, 2006; Killeavy & Murphy, 2008; Leahy, 1997; Mellon and Galvin, 2003; Swan, 1997; O’Doherty & Deegan, 2009) but many insights can be gleaned from the recently completed evaluation of the NPPTI (2002–2004) (Killeavy & Murphy, 2008). Central to their findings is the complexity of providing a meaningful induction process for NQTs within the present teacher education framework, where the participation of NQTs and mentors in induction is viewed as a voluntary activity. Therefore, induction as a legitimate ‘learning to teach’ phase has not been fully acknowledged. The pilot status of the programme seriously undermines the development of a shared comprehensive and coherent conceptual approach to induction among all stakeholders – universities, schools, principals, mentors and teachers, unions, etc. – within a continuum of teacher education. The NPPTI has consistently attempted to match the focus of professional development days for both NQTs and mentors to their identified professional needs, and participation in NPPTI is evaluated favourably by both groups.

The evaluation highlights some of the difficulties experienced by NQTs and their legitimate needs for professional development. It also highlights the logistical and cultural difficulties in introducing into schools new professional practices, such as observation, reflection and collegial inquiry in school contexts that are extremely busy

and without protected time for engagement in such activities. Research attests to the need for such professional practices to be viewed as cornerstone activities of all professional development. Therefore, within a coherent system such practices would be viewed as organic components of the professional development of a school community as a learning organisation.

#### **4.1.1.3 Research on Continuing Professional Development (CPD)**

*Professional development for teachers has a poor track record because it lacks a theoretical base and coherent focus...*

**Fullan, 1991**

*The growth of service(s) had been organic but ad hoc... The plethora, and fragmented profile of such agencies and initiatives is itself a problem at the school level... The existing schedule of activities by various support services is found by schools to be cumulatively unsatisfactory and complex.*

**Granville, 2005, pp. 55–6**

There is a considerable body of research on CPD in Ireland (e.g. Hyland & Hanafin, 1997; Sugrue, 2002; McNiff & Leonard, 1998; Granville, 2005; Johnston, Murchan, Loxley, Fitzgerald & Quinn 2007; Leonard & McNiff, 1998). Reports from teachers on their CPD experiences are often very positive, but frequently question its impact on changing classroom practices (Sugrue, 2002). Nevertheless, key CPD and teacher in-service evaluation studies have also emphasised the fragmented nature of CPD provision and the lack of learner-centred structures (Sugrue et al.; 2001; Sugrue, 2002; Coolahan, 2003; Granville, 2005; Johnston et al., 2007). Some examples of developments in CPD are the Second Level Support Service (SLSS) and the Primary Professional Development Service (PPDS, formerly the Primary Curriculum Support Programme, PCSP). Evaluations of the impact of the SLSS by Granville (2005) and of the PCSP by Johnston et al. (2007) point to similar problems in the quality of professional development experiences. Granville notes that understanding and support for the SLSS varied with participation levels, noting that the strongest support and appreciation of the service came from teachers who had extensive and intensive engagement with curriculum and subject-specific support.

For other teachers, their experience of in-service training may not be intense enough to make a difference to their learning identity. When it occurs it is often dominated by an information transfer mode of CPD. This is reflected also in the evaluation by Johnston

et al. (2007) of the Regional Curriculum Support Service at primary level. Sugrue (2002) concurs on the general problems associated with CPD and identifies the need for ‘moving beyond current proliferation of courses and competition between an increasing number of providers, to a more coherent and co-ordinated approach’ (Sugrue, 2002, p. 335). The country background paper on leadership development in Irish education (primary and post-primary), prepared for the OECD’s School Leadership study acknowledged this fragmentation and lack of coordination, and pointed to the challenge as follows: ‘The work of the various support teams under the TES [i.e. Teacher Education Section in the DES]... has been acknowledged. The challenge now lies in the coherence of approach – the drawing together of the strands’ (OECD/LDS, 2007, p. 68).

**Table 4.5 Continuing professional development research in Ireland: Sample studies and trends**

STUDIES	TRENDS IN CPD
Sugrue, 2002 McNiff & Leonard, 1998 Leonard & Gleeson, 1999 Granville, 2005 Johnston, Murchan, Loxley, Fitzgerald & Quinn 2007 Leonard & McNiff, 1998	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fragmentation</li> <li>• Dominance of transmission rather than reflective mode</li> <li>• Lack of co-ordination structures</li> <li>• Limited opportunities for observation of teaching</li> <li>• Limited attention to the study and documentation of new teaching/learning practices</li> <li>• Emergence of action research</li> <li>• Importance of opportunities to consider the complexity of teaching</li> <li>• Dominance of one-shot knowledge transfer model of CPD provision with limited opportunity for reading and critical engagement with theory</li> <li>• Action research</li> </ul>

#### ***4.2 Principles for strengthening the continuum of teacher education***

A number of key themes have underpinned this report. We summarise and highlight these as key principles for teacher education review and reform under four headings:

- Greater system and programme coherence: Articulating vision and values
- Mentoring: Assisted practice as a core design feature of teacher education
- Vibrant university/college-school partnerships

- Promoting research and inquiry.

#### **4.2.1 Greater system and programme coherence: Articulating vision and values**

In common with many other fields of professional education<sup>22</sup>, there is a need to bring greater system and programme coherence to the professional preparation of teachers. In teacher education, the articulation of aims, goals and associated strategies is especially important in times of social change. Teacher education needs to take account of advances in research on learning and teaching, changing expectations for professional practice and changing involvement of partners in professional education (e.g. schools). A focus on knowledge integration across diverse course components (i.e. foundation courses, methods courses and teaching practice placements) is also crucial. A central feature in building programme and system coherence is coming to a deeper understanding of the overarching conceptual links and relationships between different programme and system components, either within a teacher education programme or within a national teacher education system. There is a need to conceptually frame and explicitly address the structural relationships between ITE, induction, rolling reform programmes and CPD generally (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Furthermore, efforts to work towards greater system and programme coherence highlight the challenges of scaling up any education reform across an entire system (Coburn, 2003)<sup>23</sup>.

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<sup>22</sup> For example, in medicine, the recognition of the fast-changing knowledge base and the increasing potential for research-informed professional practice, together with efforts to articulate essential professional knowledge, has led to the development of a new model of professional learning in initial medical education in Ireland. This involves a focus on more interactive teaching, knowledge integration-focused coursework and assignments, more small group work and accredited clinical placements (Minister's Working Group on Undergraduate Medical Education and Training, 2006, generally referred to as the 'Fottrell Report'). In an effort to strengthen links between coursework and placements, the *Report of the Working Group on Undergraduate Medical Education and Training* (2006), pointed to the necessity of accredited clinical placement experiences in hospitals and other settings.

<sup>23</sup> Coburn (2003), for example, provides a useful analysis of how scale has been conceptualised in the educational change literature. She notes that 'definitions of scale have traditionally restricted its scope, focusing on the expanding number of schools reached by a reform' (p. 3). Coburn argues for a multidimensional conception of scale that addresses its interrelated dimensions: depth, sustainability, spread and shift in ownership. All of these dimensions need to be addressed in developing the continuum of teacher education with all stakeholders.



### **4.2.2 Mentoring: Assisted practice as a core design feature of teacher education**

The idea of assisted practice (rather than solo practice) as the basis for learning to teach is at the core of contemporary policy on teacher education at ITE, induction and CPD stages (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Mewborn & Stinson, 2007). Internationally, this is evident in, for example, mentoring and coaching initiatives across the continuum (Staub & West, 2003). One of the distinctive features of learning to teach is the manner in which, especially in the Irish context, opportunities for structured observation and mentoring have been significantly under-developed to date (OECD/LDS, 2007, pp. 44, 47). However, informal mentoring, a vitally important system strength, is a feature of existing practice and needs to be more fully documented (Conway, 2007). The National Pilot Project on Teacher Induction provides some examples of mentoring but more comprehensive mentoring systems need to be developed, not only for ITE but also during the CPD phase (for example, see Kelly and Sloane, 2003 on lesson study as a model of teacher-to-teacher coaching; Staub and West, 2003, on the potential of coaching across the continuum).

### **4.2.3 Vibrant university-school partnerships**

Research on the effective professional development of teachers points to the importance of acknowledging and utilising the funds of knowledge that different stakeholders bring to teacher education (Huberman, 1995a; Huberman, 1995b; Maandag et al., 2007). A community-of-learners approach recognises that learning is situated, distributed and appropriated through the active participation of learners in opportunities for shared discourse and practice (Bruner, 1996; Brown, 1997; Conway, 2002). New learning identities are shaped by the participation structures afforded to learners (Wenger, McDermott & Snyder, 2002; Hall, Murphy & Soler, 2008). The strategic building of learning partnerships between universities and schools is essential for generating a framework for new modes of professional engagement, participation, lifelong learning and creating the kind of structures that synergistically prepare teachers for active engagement in shaping the 21st century professional (Scottish Executive, 2004; Wilson et al., 2006).

#### **4.2.4 Promoting research and inquiry**

The promotion of an inquiry stance in the initial phase of teacher education was highlighted in number of ways in this report. In Chapter 1, we described Cochran-Smith and Lytle's (1999) three conceptions of the knowledge-practice relationship: knowledge for practice, knowledge in practice and knowledge of practice. The third conception fits most strongly with the promotion of an inquiry stance, in that it seeks to recognise and value the knowledge *of* teaching generated, both by those working in schools, and those whose work involves them in research in schools. This provides new recognition for teacher-generated knowledge as useful and valid in the local classroom/school context, but also as a means of influencing policy (Rust, 2009).

Reflective practice has become one of the key orientations of teacher education espoused by policy makers, programme designers, researchers and practitioners (Conway, 2001; O'Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008; Zeichner, 2008; Rath, in press). Research on learning to teach attests to how beliefs and assumptions about knowledge, teaching and learning are critical determinants of the practices that are enacted and valued in classrooms (Lortie, 1975; Morine-Dersheimer & Corrigan, 1997; Sugrue, 1997, 2004; Schwille & Dembélé, 2007). Teachers, across all phases of the continuum, need opportunities to theorise their practice and to critically examine how their beliefs and assumptions about knowledge, teaching and learning impact on their practice in classrooms and schools (Korthagen, 2001; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999). They need to be able to articulate their teaching and learning goals in light of subject-matter knowledge but also to recognise how the prevailing culture in schools influences their teaching and learning (Rath, 2002; Staub & West, 2003; Rust, 2009). Professional development across the continuum needs to help teachers to critically reflect on and engage with these issues.

### **4.3 Findings**

The following sections summarise findings and include 37 recommendations spanning: (i) Initial Teacher Education; (ii) Induction; (iii) Professional Standards/Learning Outcomes; (iv) Accreditation and (v) Integrating the Continuum of Teacher Education. In each case, the findings are based on the review of research literature as well as insights emerging from the cross-national component of this study.

### 4.3.1 Initial Teacher Education: Findings

1. *Policy interest in initial teacher education and its links to the continuum:* There is now a significant interest among policy-makers in considering the links between ITE and the rest of the continuum of teacher education. This is evident in a focus on enhancing methodologies in ITE that will prepare teachers well for the early years in teaching, rather than in arguments for extending ITE itself. Consequently, efforts to strengthen professional preparation of student teachers are being framed in terms of the links (e.g. an inquiry stance commencing in ITE) across phases of the continuum (3.1; 3.2).
2. *Ideological orientations in teacher education:* Across different countries, assumptions and decisions about the most appropriate and/or relative emphasis on different ideological orientations to teaching and teacher education (e.g. social efficiency, deregulation and social justice), have significant impact on the status, design, implementation and evaluation of teacher education programmes and by implication on the teaching profession. While there are observable ideological tendencies within national contexts, there are also different ideological orientations within countries in different teacher education programmes. In the USA, for example, there are very strong social efficiency and deregulation assumptions and related practices operating concurrent with notable emphases on social justice in renowned teacher education programmes: Alverno College, Mills College, UCLA's Centre X, Bank Street and Boston College. In the Irish context such ideological analysis and critical debate about teacher education is less evident than in some other jurisdictions (3.1.1).
3. *The emergence of new pathways due to deregulation:* Efforts to deregulate teaching in the USA have led to short-term emergency certification. In England a different version of deregulation has led to employment-based teacher education in which higher education institutes (HEIs) play no role. One argument made by those in favour of more pathways into teaching is that they will create a more diverse teaching corps. The challenge of widening participation in teaching for minorities is a significant policy concern in a number of the countries in our study. In Ireland, there has not been a drive

toward deregulation due to the strong demand historically for places in teacher education (3.1.1).

4. *A range of pathways into teaching:* The conventional pathway into teaching involves completing an award-bearing higher education course. As such, teaching is a graduate profession internationally (this has been the case in Ireland since the 1970s). Countries have evolved a variety of pathways into teaching. These partly reflect considered policy to ensure a diverse teaching force (a more recent concern), but have evolved typically through historical arrangements and compromises in policy and provision. In Ireland, consistent with international practice, concurrent and consecutive models are available at both primary and post-primary levels. A lack of student teachers from minority groups and low SES groups in Irish society has been identified as an issue worthy of attention, as has the under-representation of males in teaching. In Ireland, addressing these issues has implications for flexible pathways into teaching, and for other factors such as recruitment criteria and screening. The development of flexible pathways into teaching is part of an effort to ensure that the teaching force reflects the diversity of a population (2.0.1; Table 2.1).
5. *The length/duration of initial teacher education:* In terms of the duration of ITE, a similar pattern occurs across countries with three- and/or four-year undergraduate concurrent programmes and one- to two-year postgraduate or consecutive programmes. Finland is the one exception, where prospective teachers must undertake a five-year programme culminating in a master's degree involving a significant inquiry component (2.0.1; Table 2.1).
6. *Promoting reflective practice and inquiry to enhance knowledge integration:* Internationally, the promotion of reflective practice has become the dominant espoused model of teacher education. In efforts to promote greater coherence and knowledge integration in ITE, the long-espoused reflective practice model (evident since the mid-1980s) is increasingly being complemented by an emphasis on promoting an inquiry stance in student teachers, e.g. use of portfolios (in the USA in particular) and completion of a substantial research

thesis as part of a master's degree for initial teacher certification. (In Finland ITE involves completion of a master's degree).

7. *Partnerships between universities and schools*: Internationally, it is common for formal partnership arrangements to be developed between higher education institutions and schools to provide structured support and a gradual increase in classroom responsibility for student teachers. However, these partnerships vary along a continuum from the school playing a host role (work placement model), to shared responsibility between school and higher education (collaborative model), to the school providing the entire training (training school model). In Ireland, school/higher education partnerships in ITE are typically at the work placement end of the continuum.
8. *ITE not enough – induction essential*: There is an increasing recognition that learning to teach cannot happen in ITE alone. As the demands and complexity of the teacher's role increases, induction becomes a vital component in the professional trajectory (2.0.2).
9. *Principles underpinning quality teacher education*: (3.1.6) There has been considerable attention paid to the characteristics of high-quality teacher education programmes. It is evident, from a variety of different research studies that the quality of knowledge integration, opportunities for observation, thoughtful feedback from mentors (as well as peers) and critical reflection on classroom/school situations and professional values and identity are central to quality teacher education. Crucially, all of these need to take place over an extended period. In essence, learning to teach is best done when undertaken as a social, interactive and assisted accomplishment rather than as a solo 'sink or swim' endeavour. The following principles underpin quality programmes:
  - **Vision**: A common, clear vision of good teaching practice integrated across course modules and teaching practice in schools.
  - **Focus on Excellence in Professional Practice**: Clearly defined and agreed criteria for 'good teaching' linked to wider professional expectations and codes of conduct.

- **Knowledge of Learners Linked to Curriculum:** Teaching of curriculum permeated by an understanding of the contingent nature of learning and the impact of both the immediate and wider social context on learning and teaching.
- **Integration of Foundations, Methods and Teaching Practice:** Strategic initiatives to integrate foundations, curriculum/methods and teaching practice as the three core components of ITE.
- **Addressing the Apprenticeship of Observation:** Given the long-term influence of the 15,000 hours student teachers have already spent in classrooms prior to entering ITE, there must be significant opportunity to make explicit the impact of these experiences on learning, teaching and curriculum (1.4.1; 1.6.1).
- **Strategies to Examine Culture and Schooling:** Strategies to highlight the impact of culture (cultural homogeneity, diversity and change) in teacher education coursework and teaching practice (3.1.3).
- **Strong Relationships, Common Knowledge and Shared Beliefs:** Well-structured alliance between universities and schools built around strong relationships, common knowledge and shared beliefs to support ITE. (This also applies to induction and CPD.)
- **Integration-Focused Projects:** Use of case studies, portfolios and other projects focused on supporting the integration of different knowledge sources on teaching, learning and curriculum emerging from schools and universities (3.1.3).

### 4.3.2 Induction: Findings

10. *Induction and educational reform:* The extent to which countries in our survey oriented their induction programmes towards accountability or professional learning varies considerably. The UK, and England in particular, emphasises the accountability and measurement dimension while New Zealand appears to view learning to teach as more dynamic, negotiated and complex (2.0.2; 2.1.2; 2.1.6 and Appendix A).

11. *Induction in Ireland*: In Ireland, the transition from student teaching to full teacher status is now viewed in all major policy documents and in the national pilot project on teacher induction as a critical stage in becoming an effective teacher (4.0.1; Appendix A.1).
12. *Induction occurs with or without a formal programme*: In the absence of a formal programme of induction into the profession, beginning teachers are inducted informally into the prevailing dominant culture of teaching and learning practices. This prevailing culture runs counter to what is needed for the new professional in meeting current expectations in a knowledge based society. Exemplar programmes, strategically and deliberately, provide professional learning structures to induct beginners into new norms of professional engagement.
13. *Professional development of mentors*: Internationally, exemplary induction programmes involve significant professional development of mentors which focuses on reflective practice, subject matter teaching, and building the capacity of mentors to become instructional leaders in evaluating, designing and enacting new shared practices in line with national frameworks. The best programmes focus on developing purposeful professional relationships that incrementally build a shared understanding of teaching/learning goals. (3.2.6).
14. *Designing induction*: Features of induction programme design across our nine survey countries include the following, with varying levels of emphasis: mentoring; training; participation; licensure; and teaching assignments. ‘Best practice’ principles include NQTs: being viewed as professionals on a continuum; being assisted to take increasing amounts of responsibility over the induction period; and being supported and not left to ‘sink or swim’. In addition, induction is viewed as a vital and valued educational process for all concerned and as the responsibility of the whole school, not just one staff member. Assessment systems have considerable formative and developmental potential (2.0.2).

15. *Induction as a supportive setting*: Exemplar programmes recognise that the induction of beginning teachers needs to be structured for deliberate and intentional learning of new norms of collegial, instructional and professional engagement. Thus, programmes are cognisant of the legitimate learning and support needs of beginning teachers. Teaching itself is viewed as a complex collective and supported accomplishment rather than a solo activity. (Table 1.3; 3.2.3).
16. *Duration of induction and links to early professional development*: In most countries induction is undertaken during the first and second years of teaching. In numerous countries, induction is now seen as fitting into early professional development (e.g. Northern Ireland and Poland). Increasingly, induction spans more than the first year of teaching. (In Connecticut USA, Scotland, New Zealand and others) (2.1.3; 2.1.6).
17. *Professional dividend*: Internationally, exemplar induction programmes have been intentionally structured to interface with wider curricular and school reform efforts (e.g. this is particularly evident in the Connecticut's BEST programme). As such, a professional dividend accrues to the larger educational project of improving learning outcomes (3.2.6; 3.2.7).
18. *Resource implications*: Evidence shows that induction programmes based on 'best practice' have considerable resource implications. Quality induction does not come cheap. Consequently, induction requires planning and careful budgeting for it to be a meaningful and worthwhile experience that genuinely builds on the learning and experiences of the first 'I' – initial teacher education (3.2.8).
19. *Partnerships, parity of esteem, negotiating of relationships*: Exemplary induction programmes recognise the strengths and potentials of the different contexts of learning to teach. Providing the financial resources for real learning partnerships to develop between teacher educators in university settings, school settings and other stakeholders is crucial for the success of induction programmes and capacity building within the system. As such, induction is



viewed as an ongoing partnership arrangement that attends to the different knowledge bases, meanings and contexts of teaching (3.2.8).

20. *Quality induction programmes focus on classroom practice:* The best induction programmes explicitly focus induction practices on supporting and expecting beginning teachers to examine and evaluate teaching and learning practices. The close observation of teaching and learning provides a key context for generative conversations about teaching and learning between expert and novice. These conversations focus on helping beginning teachers to learn to evaluate their practices in light of reform frameworks and subject-specific expectations for student learning, to identify and question assumptions underlying practice decisions, and to be able to question prevailing practices that run counter to best practice. Beginning teachers are also assisted in developing and experimenting with specific and relevant teaching designs focused in improving student learning.

#### **4.3.3 Professional standards/learning outcomes: Findings**

21. *Focus on identifying professional standards in ITE and induction:* All nine countries in our survey attend to what student teachers and teachers need to develop and achieve in order to be deemed competent professionals. Not all countries, however, specify in precise detail, and in terms of competences and standards or outcomes, what teachers need to know and be able to do. Finland and Poland, for instance, appear to adopt a ‘light touch’ to the specification of competences and interestingly these are countries that appear to be the least market-driven. They seem to place considerable emphasis on pedagogic studies and a strong emphasis on the collegiate and social context of professional action. England and New Zealand seem much more prescriptive, with some 33 and 29 statements respectively associated with the list of key standards. These countries’ standards are linked to salary scales and along with Singapore appear to be strongly market-oriented and managerial in orientation (1.1; Table 1.1; Table 2.3).

22. *Variation in competency content and function*: Our survey evidence and analysis shows that standards across different countries vary in how they describe teachers' work, with different emphases on various aspects. Some countries adopt extensive lists of competences while others opt for more generic statements. Moreover, the uses to which standards are put vary across countries with a different balance between developmental and accountability functions. Accountability is more pronounced in countries where concerns have emerged about the quality of student teacher intakes, retention within the profession, and where there is an emphasis generally on the close monitoring of nationally-set targets right across the social sector (3.3, 3.3.7).
23. *Defining standards, defining competences*: Standards refer to what teachers are expected to know and be able to do. Generic standards are broad descriptors of teacher competences while specified standards state more precisely what would constitute evidence of meeting the standard. Specified standards define a performance element that would enable an assessor to make judgements about teacher performance. Generic standards can be defined loosely in a way that would invite local interpretation by teachers, principals, inspectors, teacher educators and so on, or they might be rigidly and tightly defined. The more specified and tightly defined the standards, the more technical and costly they would likely be to produce, the more bureaucratic they would likely be to apply, and the greater the likelihood that their application would eat into available teaching time (3.3.2).
24. *Origins of competences and the drive toward standardisation*: The notion of specifying standards has its origin in manufacturing and business and the desire to standardise, control and hold to account. Defenders of professional standards say that having agreed standards establishes internal control by the profession over training, entry to the practice and the practice itself. It would seem too that because there is some consensus regarding the (generic) knowledge and skills that teachers need, professional standards can be formulated (3.3.4).
25. *Competences – use is controversial*: The use of competences and performance standards in education is highly controversial, with considerable criticism about

mechanistic and reductive sets of competences which offer simplistic representations of teaching and which are used solely for narrow accountability purposes of monitoring, measuring and comparing. Among the problems are the following: a denial of the complexity and coherence of the teaching role; an undermining of local context and the consequent privileging of the standard setter's stance resulting in conformity and compliance over quality, diversity and creativity; a focus on narrow, measurable outcomes at the expense of more nuanced qualities and situational issues; a possible erosion of professional autonomy, collegiality and agency; and a possible over-emphasis on the individual at the expense of the institutional culture and the wider cultural and historical system (3.3.6; 3.3.8).

26. *The opportunity cost of focusing on competences:* The thrust of analysis in our review is away from detailed, specified standards linked to individual accountability in a narrow sense on the grounds that the likely increase in teacher workloads would not be in proportion to enhanced learning and teaching opportunities. Acknowledging that individual teacher performance is situated, dynamic and unpredictable challenges the imposition of prescriptive competences frameworks at the individual level and would likely reduce responsiveness to individual pupil needs (1.2; 3.3.7; 3.3.8).

#### **4.3.4 Accreditation: Findings**

27. Accreditation is seen in many countries as an important element in ensuring the quality of teaching and teacher education. Accreditation is used as a means of enhancing the professional standing of teachers in the USA and elsewhere. It is also closely linked to issues of control and accountability, and in many cases to access to public funding for both institutions and students (3.4.2).

28. Accreditation mechanisms differ greatly from country to country, depending on various factors, including the stage of development of the teacher education system, the centralised or otherwise nature of the system in each country, and existing quality assurance mechanisms. It may take input factors (resources, staff qualifications, hours spent on academic and professional education and on

teaching practice) and/or output factors (learning outcomes/standards) into account. Likewise, there is variation in the extent to which self-evaluation or internal quality control mechanisms are taken into account for external accreditation purposes (2.0.4; 3.4.1).

29. Accreditation is to the forefront in those contexts where there is a wide diversity in standards and/or a variety of routes into teaching. It enables the qualifications of graduates to be recognised outside their local context in those cases where national standards have been adopted. It is not as crucial in a relatively homogenous system like that of Ireland, but may be important for Irish graduates who wish their qualifications to be recognised for teaching abroad. In Ireland a range of professional bodies accredit the programmes of initial education in their respective professions (e.g. social work, psychology, engineering) (3.4.1; 3.4.2).

30. Accreditation is most successful when teachers, teacher educators, employers and other stakeholders have an input into the criteria for professional recognition of teaching qualifications, e.g. New Zealand and Australia have developed accreditation processes after an extended consultation and development period over a number of years (3.4.1).

31. In countries where teacher education and the quality of teaching in general are acknowledged to be of a high quality, accreditation tends to be ‘light touch’. There is a high level of trust in teacher educators and in the internal and external quality control procedures of institutions once broad parameters have been complied with (2.0.4; 3.4.1).

#### **4.3.5 Integrating the continuum: Findings**

32. *Continuing professional development and the dominance of the one-shot workshop model:* Internationally, the provision of continual professional development is often short-term, once-off, providing few opportunities for interaction and not as clearly linked to teachers’ professional practice as it might

be. Even when taking into account the advances in CPD provision over the last decade, evidence from Ireland suggests that similar challenges face CPD here (4.0.2).

33. *CPD for mentors as a bridge between ITE and induction*: The need for coherence in CPD provision is especially important in efforts to bridge the interfaces between ITE and induction, as it points to the need for significant investment in and design of quality professional development opportunities for experienced teachers involved in mentoring (4.2).

34. *Re-culturing and restructuring for teacher education reform*: Literature on sustainable educational change highlight the importance of, and need for, both restructuring and re-culturing in any effort at meaningful system-wide change. Significantly, international evidence strongly suggests that teacher education renewal is especially challenging given the necessary collaboration over time by various stakeholders. Furthermore, promoting teacher education reform is even more challenging when it is focused on reform-oriented teaching and learning in increasingly diverse classrooms (as is the case in Ireland) (4.2).

## **4.4 Recommendations**

The following sections summarise findings and include 37 recommendations spanning: (i) Initial Teacher Education; (ii) Induction; (iii) Professional Standards/Learning Outcomes; (iv) Accreditation and (v) Integrating the Continuum of Teacher Education. In each case, the findings are based on the review of research literature as well as insights emerging from the cross-national component of this study.

### **4.4.1 Initial Teacher Education: Recommendations**

1. *We recommend that, in the context of the continuum of teacher education, an appropriately broad and balanced framework be developed, encompassing teachers' roles, teaching quality, teacher learning, the professional life-cycle and teachers' professional relationships in schools. A framework on the continuum of teacher education would need to draw upon the Teaching Council's Codes of Professional Conduct for Teachers.*

2. *Learning to teach involves not only preparation for life in the classroom but for active engagement in teaching as a professional learning community. Adopting this dual focus on professional preparation has implications for the aims, design and assessment of all ITE components.*
3. *Learning to teach occurs best when undertaken as a form of assisted practice (rather than solo practice). In adopting this stance on ITE, there are significant implications for school-university partnerships in terms of how teaching practice and school experiences are structured. They must provide opportunities for observation of, and conversation with, experienced teachers in light of the reform-oriented teaching being advocated at a national level (e.g. Revised Primary School Curriculum; developments at Junior and Senior Cycle).*
4. *We recommend that the principles of quality teacher education, drawing on relevant research and professional practice, form the basis for a fresh look at the key components (coursework and teaching practice) of teacher education.*
5. *We recommend that ITE programmes proactively address the apprenticeship of observation in designing learning experiences given that it profoundly shapes teacher stance.*
6. *We recommend that teacher education institutions examine their assessment systems in order to promote professional development of teacher candidates, although their use for individual accountability is important and inevitable (e.g. in relation to appeals; in promoting transparency about ITE programme goals and communicating these as learning goals to student teachers). In designing assessment systems to support professional development, attention must be paid to ensuring there is a realistic relationship between the learning opportunities and assessment criteria student teachers are expected to meet (including opportunities for observing and talking with a range of experienced educators, especially classroom teachers about classroom practice, reflection on instructional decisions, student teachers' apprenticeship of observation, formative feedback, integration-focused assignments linked to teaching practice experiences).*
7. *We recommend that initial teacher education programmes reconfigure the links between key existing components of ITE – that is, foundation studies, teaching methods and teaching practice – in line with the principles of quality teacher education. Specifically, that re-designed integrative modules would explicitly focus on connections between methods courses and the social context of practice in classrooms and schools. In light of the now extensive research informing curricular and cross-curricular teaching and learning, redesigned methods modules would integrate substantive opportunities to consider the principles of learning and dynamics of social context interwoven with life in classrooms and schools.*
8. *We recommend that formal partnership arrangements be established which specify the roles and responsibilities of schools and higher education institutions in providing structured support and a gradual increase in classroom responsibility for student teachers. Structured support would include providing opportunities for observing teachers, planning and discussing lessons and undertaking assignments with the appropriate and necessary ethical considerations addressed.*

9. *We recommend that promotion of inquiry be adopted as a core component within ITE programmes (with implications for all coursework and teaching practice) both as an end in itself in ITE, but also as a basis for developing student teachers' initial capacity to use various reflective and inquiry tools from the outset of the continuum of teacher education.*
10. *Screening of applicants for entry into initial teacher education merits discussion among stakeholders. Topics meriting discussion would include the role of academic attainment, interviews and reference checks in ensuring a high quality and diverse teaching corps. We recommend that following such discussion resources be allocated to ensure proposed changes to screening procedures are sustainable.*
11. *We recommend that ITE, induction and CPD providers collaborate with the new Higher Education Authority-funded National Digital Learning Repository (NDLR) to design, produce and share high-quality digital learning resources for use across the continuum of teacher education, e.g. case studies.*
12. *In light of the increasingly complex and demanding nature of contemporary teaching, the current duration of the Post-graduate Diploma in Education (post-primary) merits discussion. We recommend that, following a review, consideration be given to extending the length of the post-primary programme in line with the 18-month Graduate Diploma in Education (primary). Extending the duration of the programme alone is insufficient to ensure enhanced ITE without reconfiguring the components of the programme (e.g. providing more than one teaching practice placement).*

#### **4.4.2 Induction: Recommendations**

13. *The main thrust of our review of relevant literature on induction points to the necessity to recognise the legitimate learning needs of newly qualified teachers (NQTs) in the early years of their professional development. This is a crucial stage of learning to be a teacher and a comprehensive induction programme is needed in order to shape NQTs' professional engagement in lifelong learning and to help them become competent, effective professionals in a knowledge-based society. Thus, we recommend that induction is viewed as a necessary and distinctive learning-to-teach stage within a continuum of professional development. The current National Pilot Project on Teacher Induction needs to be reconceptualised within the emerging framework of a continuum of teacher education made available to all NQTs.*
14. *While induction in Ireland is now viewed in the policy literature as a critical stage in becoming an effective teacher, the extent to which provision in practice reflects this needs attention. In particular, it is recommended that the features of best practice be incorporated into induction for NQTs. Among the key features to consider are: release time and load reduction; the matching of mentors and mentees in terms of subject or grade level; the length of the induction period and its link to teacher registration; and the appropriate differentiation and relationship between assistance and assessment.*

15. *The relationship between probation (which is primarily evaluative) and induction (which is primarily formative) needs to be demarcated in terms of roles and relationships.*
16. *Research evidence points to the need for a coherent, comprehensive and shared vision about the primary goals, purposes and learning experiences of induction programmes and this vision should draw upon the current knowledge base on the features of quality teacher education. In particular, critical reflective dialogue and observation should become cornerstone activities of all induction programmes so that NQTs build upon the skills, knowledge and dispositions associated with reflective dialogue within a community of practice.*
17. *Induction programmes should provide ongoing interactive professional development for mentor teachers in becoming effective teacher educators. Attention must be paid to how mentor teachers are selected: for their expertise, skill and commitment rather than seniority or other criteria. This mentor professional education also needs to be situated within current models of best practice in teaching and learning. Mentor teachers need to feel confident in providing structured opportunities for NQTs to talk through problems of practice as part of a formative feedback process.*
18. *Successful induction programmes involve all relevant levels of the education system in clearly co-ordinated, articulated roles and responsibilities for all stakeholders at national and local level. At a national level policy-making bodies must clearly delineate roles and responsibilities for all partners in the induction process within a consultation process. The induction process has implications for the dominant learning practices in schools. In particular, the principal has a role to play in creating a mentoring culture for all teachers but particularly for beginner teachers. In the same way we recommend that mentoring beginning teachers and/or building a mentoring culture in schools should be integral to all curricular reform initiatives and CPD generally.*
19. *We recommend that NQTs be given provisional registration pending successful completion of probation. In this context there should be a debate about the relationships between induction, probation and registration.*
20. *Induction and continuing professional development should be based on the inquiry-oriented stance initiated in ITE and these structural links and interfaces should be explicitly addressed in any national induction programme.*

#### **4.4.3 Professional standards/learning outcomes: Recommendations**

21. *The main recommendation emerging from our analysis is that there is a need to consider the question of the specification of standards (however defined) in relation to the broader imperatives and the purposes of education. More specifically, there is a need to consider whether this issue is really the most urgent contemporary problem for the profession. The problems and purposes that a statement of professional standards would address would need greater attention and discussion in the Irish context. Clarity about purpose and problems would be an essential*



*prerequisite to any decision leading to the formulation of professional teaching standards.*

22. *Since it is already prescribed in the Teaching Council Act that the Teaching Council must establish standards of teaching, knowledge, skill and competence, our recommendation is that the complexity of professional practice across the continuum would need to be captured in any framework of standards. It is important to resist the idea that teaching can be reduced to a number of discrete competences or standards. A broad professional framework that would act primarily as a springboard for enhancing teacher professional development, teacher education and school self-evaluation would be preferable to a strait-jacket designed primarily to facilitate individual accountability. Such frames of reference, or loosely-defined standards, could offer professional statements concerning purposes, values, expertise and knowledge and could highlight the importance of assisted performance, evolving competence and adaptive expertise.*
23. *In relation to the uses of standards, determining the appropriate balance in practice between individual professional development and individual accountability would require discussion and planning. A 'high-stakes' approach to accountability of teacher performance in the Irish context would be wholly inappropriate and counter-productive.*
24. *While recognising the potential to learn by comparing, caution would need to be exercised in relation to borrowing international policy and it would be important to recognise the distinctiveness of the local/national context.*
25. *The Teaching Council has an important role to play in promoting and facilitating collaboration and sharing of ideas and approaches to teacher assessment through stabilising opportunities for teacher education providers to share perspectives on good practice.*

#### **4.4.4 Accreditation: Recommendations**

26. *Professional accreditation by the Teaching Council (as a regulatory body for the teaching profession) would complement (rather than replace) existing academic accreditation by recognising the readiness to teach of initial teacher education programme graduates. In order to fulfil its statutory obligation, the Teaching Council will accredit Initial Teacher Education programmes.*
27. *The colleges should continue to implement their own quality assurance procedures. Accreditation is related to accountability. In the Irish context, a 'light-touch' approach seems most appropriate. Ireland has a long-standing tradition of relying on academic accreditation as a means of ensuring teachers' initial readiness to practise as a teacher.*
28. *It should continue to be the case that teacher educators in Ireland have considerable freedom to develop curricula and pedagogy within the broad frameworks laid down for degree and diploma programmes in third-level contexts.*

29. *Accreditation standards need to emerge from a consensus by the various stakeholders if they are to be generally accepted as valid and developmental/formative in nature. Any accreditation system for teachers in Ireland needs to take into account distinctive local and national features of teacher education in Ireland and to involve all the stakeholders, as was done in the development of the Teaching Council's Codes of Professional Conduct for Teachers.*
30. *Professional accreditation allows for quality monitoring of alternate pathways into teaching. This may become more crucial in the future if more pathways into teaching are introduced and the Teaching Council will need to consider how it will approach the accreditation of alternate routes.*
31. *Accreditation of alternate pathways should take into account what is known about quality initial teacher education (3.4.3).*
32. *The Teaching Council could draw on well-established accreditation procedures involving teachers' councils in New Zealand and Scotland to inform its work in developing an accreditation system for teacher education. Also of interest are NCATE in the USA, the current work on developing an accreditation system in Australia, and the work of HETAC as an accrediting body in Ireland.*
33. *In collaboration with other stakeholders, the Teaching Council should develop and accredit a Chartered Teacher status (Teacher Leadership), i.e. an advanced teacher certification scheme. In developing such a scheme a number of issues need to be addressed including appropriate remuneration and the best means of developing the scheme to enhance ITE and induction. As such, Chartered Teachers, acting as teacher leaders, would have expertise and responsibility for promoting a mentoring culture in relation to ITE and induction in their own and/or other schools.*

#### **4.4.5 Integrating the continuum of teacher education: Recommendations**

34. *We recommend the provision of integrated mentoring structures to support student teachers and NQTs. Integrated mentoring structures would focus on schools' capacity as well as the capacity of individuals and teams of teachers in creating mentoring cultures in schools.*
35. *CPD programmes must build upon ITE and induction programmes and carefully consider the structures they provide for teachers to actively participate in inquiry, research and reflective engagement in learning – components we have identified as crucial for professional learning in ITE and induction. In particular, CPD initiatives should provide opportunities for teachers to interactively examine practice in new ways and to share practice expertise and dilemmas with peers in a community of learners.*
36. *The considerable expertise of teachers and teacher educators should be acknowledged and actively built upon and co-ordinated across various ITE and induction-related CPD initiatives across the continuum.*

37. *We recommend that the Teaching Council, in collaboration with the DES and statutory bodies, promote funded programmatic research on the continuum of teacher education at institutional and cross-institutional levels with a view to publishing the reports of such research.*

## 4.5 Conclusion

*...it can be noted that while teaching has deep, traditional roots and high regard in Irish society, it faces many new challenges in a fast-changing society when educational policy is being re-shaped to cope with the knowledge society in a lifelong learning framework. In general, Ireland can be seen to have a highly educated, well-trained, committed and caring teaching force....Many improvements have been brought about for the teaching profession. However, there would seem to be a need for wider debate and a deeper public understanding of the changing role of the teacher and a more comprehensive and better articulated policy on the teaching profession to ensure that it can fulfil its crucial role in the era ahead.*

**Coolahan, 2003, p. 10**

*Each idea is an argument, or more accurately, a collection of arguments in favor of different ways of seeing the world....there are multiple understandings of what appears to be a single concept, how these understandings are created, and how they are manipulated as part of political strategy.*

**Stone, *The Policy Paradox*, 1997, p. 11**

Every year approximately 3,000 new teachers graduate from teacher education programmes in Ireland. The challenges facing today's teachers during their first year of teaching have changed dramatically from those encountered by graduates in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Similarly, the challenges facing today's teacher educators, as they welcome student teachers and newly qualified teachers into schools and higher education each school year, have changed over time. Each generation has an opportunity to provide the vision and resources for renewing teacher education in light of ambitious social, economic and educational aspirations to meet perceived societal and education challenges (as occurred in the late 1960s and early 1970s, Coolahan, 2007a). Despite the publication of two key reviews of initial teacher education a number of years ago, there is considerable scope for further reform of teacher education. However, significant changes have occurred to teacher education course provision and content over recent decades. In this report, we have stressed the need for, and investment in, greater programme coherence, assisted practice, knowledge integration, critical reflective practice, inquiry and the development of vibrant partnerships between higher education institutions and schools as the basis for teacher education reform across the continuum.



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## **Appendix A: Country Profiles**

## ***Appendix A 1: Ireland – Country Profile***

### **A.1.1 Socio-political and cultural context**

In an international context, the school system in Ireland is small with just over 4,000 schools (3,300 primary schools and 770 post-primary) serving a population of 4.24 million in 2006. The Minister for Education and Science has responsibility for ensuring government education policies are implemented. The Department of Education and Science (DES) is responsible for education policy at primary and post-primary levels as well as in the tertiary sector. The Irish education system combines a high level of standardisation of curriculum and assessment at national level with a high incidence of local ownership and management of schools. Irish schools at the primary and post-primary levels are, by and large, privately owned and managed but State funded. Teachers' salaries and almost all capital as well as operational costs are met by the State. A noteworthy feature in the primary sector is that over half of the schools have four or fewer teachers.

In relation to curriculum and assessment issues, the Minister is advised by the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA: [www.ncca.ie](http://www.ncca.ie)) – prescribed as a statutory body in the 1998 Education Act. The role of the NCCA is to lead developments in curriculum and assessment and to support the implementation of changes resulting from this work. The NCCA works in partnership with stakeholders in education including teacher unions, school managerial bodies, business and industry sectors, parent representative organisations, representatives from the DES, and other bodies such as the State Examinations Commission.

Ireland has undergone major changes both in its education system and in society in general since the 1990s. Teachers have found themselves facing new challenges in the classroom, including the integration of children with special educational needs into mainstream schools and the unprecedented (in an Irish context) influx of children from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds resulting from an inflow of migrants into the country in recent years. A series of Green and White papers on various aspects of education, coupled with the influence of the European Union (especially the Bologna Accord) and of the various OECD reports, have set the context for change and reform

at all levels. Of these developments, the enactment of a range of legislation was most significant and included the landmark Education Act (1998), the Education (Welfare) Act (2000), the Equal Status Act (2000), the National Qualifications Authority Act (2001), the Teaching Council Act (2001) and the Education for Persons with Special Education Needs Act (2005). There have been major changes in the curriculum at both primary and post-primary level. Issues such as social inclusion, the vital need to ensure at least a basic level of literacy and numeracy for all children, the early identification of children with learning difficulties, multiculturalism, partnership with parents, and an awareness of the importance of early childhood education and of the distinctive skills needed for working with very young children have all come to the forefront in recent years, as has the role of information and communications technology (ICT). A noteworthy development is the *Framework for Early Learning* which was published by the NCCA in late 2008. This will bridge the gap between the early years sector and the infant classes of primary school, since it is a broad curricular framework for all children from birth to six years of age. It will also link with *Stolta, the National Quality Framework for Quality for Early Childhood Education*, developed by the CECDE, which also relates to infant classes in primary school.

### **A.1.2 Key features**

In summary, the key aspects of the education system are:

1. **CURRICULUM:** The revised Primary School Curriculum was introduced in 1999. It built upon the progressive 1971 child-centred curriculum for primary schools. The curriculum sets what is to be taught and how, and also how learning in the particular subject area is to be assessed. The curriculum is laid out over seven areas, but there is an emphasis on cross-curricular integration of learning. At post-primary level, ongoing reviews are taking place at junior and senior level. At junior level, subject syllabi are being reviewed and rebalanced in order to reduce overload within and overlap between subjects. Several subjects have already been revised and work is ongoing on others. At senior level, work is being done on developing short courses and transition units as well as reviewing traditional subjects, with the aim of achieving a more rewarding learning environment for all students.

2. **PEDAGOGY:** While Ireland has a centrally-devised curriculum, there is a strong emphasis on school and classroom planning, which allows teachers and schools an input into shaping the curriculum in the classroom. Adaptation of the curriculum to suit the individual school is achieved through the preparation and continuous updating of a school plan. The selection of textbooks and classroom resources to support the implementation of the curriculum is made by schools, rather than by the DES or the NCCA. At primary level, the curriculum emphasises that children learn best when they are actively involved in learning, that certain key skills and concepts should be developed, and that teachers should adopt a variety of approaches and methodologies to suit children's varying learning styles. It also suggests different forms of classroom organisation, for example learning in pairs or in small groups, as well as whole-class teaching (DES, 1999). At post-primary level the ongoing reviews of the junior and senior cycle now aim to achieve a better balance between knowledge and skills, and to place more emphasis on developing key skills across the curriculum. The five key skills that have been identified at senior level are: (i) Information processing; (ii) Critical and creative thinking; (iii) Communicating; (iv) Working with others; and (v) Being personally effective (NCCA, 2008).
3. **ASSESSMENT:** Assessment in primary schools is the responsibility of the class teacher and, unlike some other countries in this study, there is no formal assessment at the end of primary school. Primary schools are required to carry out standardised tests in English reading and mathematics at least twice in a child's school career and to report these results to parents (DES, 2006). The NCCA has recently produced a set of guidelines on assessment for primary schools, which place an emphasis on assessment *for* learning as well as assessment *of* learning (NCCA, 2007). Similar initiatives are underway at post-primary level. In post-primary schools, formative, diagnostic and summative assessments are undertaken on a regular basis at school level, with particular emphasis placed on more formal school-based examinations before the Christmas, Easter and summer breaks. On the basis of these assessments, teachers and principals report to parents on student progress and give advice on subject options and on the level at which subjects are taken. The State Examinations Commission (a non-departmental public body under the aegis of

the Department of Education and Science) is responsible for the development, assessment, accreditation and certification of the second-level examinations in Ireland: the Junior Certificate and the Leaving Certificate. The Junior Certificate is a national examination taken by almost every student at the end of the three-year junior post-primary cycle. This is followed by the (optional) transition year, during which assessment is school-based and is primarily used to provide students with feedback on their learning and progress and to report to parents. The two-year senior cycle leads to the Leaving Certificate examination, and student achievement in this examination is directly linked to processes of selection for courses of study in further and higher education. A smaller number of students take alternative courses leading to the Leaving Certificate Vocational and Leaving Certificate Applied, which incorporate portfolios and continuous assessment into the final mark.

4. **MONITORING:** The inspectorate of the DES is charged under the Education Act (1998) with evaluating the organisation and operation of schools. The inspectorate supports and advises recognised schools, teachers and boards of management on matters relating to the provision of education, evaluates the quality and effectiveness of the provision of education, conducts research into education and to support policy formulation, and advises on education-related matters, including curriculum, assessment and teaching methods (DES, 2008). Inspectors advise and monitor newly qualified teachers during their probationary period. In post-primary schools, specialist inspectors undertake subject inspections. Inspectors may also visit schools in a number of other contexts, for example, to monitor special programmes that might be in place in that particular school. Since the 2003–2004 school year, Whole School Evaluation has been introduced to schools to complement other types of inspection. Reports on schools are publicly available.

### **A.1.3 Initial teacher education: Key aspects**

The 2003 background report (Coolahan, 2003) on teaching in Ireland for the OECD came after a decade or more of major reviews of education in Ireland. It followed soon after the report of the Working Group on Primary Preservice Teacher Education (2002) (also known as the Kellaghan report) and the report of the Advisory Group on Post-Primary Teacher Education (April, 2002; also known as the Byrne report). Since then,

several other reports have appeared, most notably the reports of the inspectorate on trainee and beginning teachers in primary schools (DES Inspectorate, 2006, 2007) and the reports on the national pilot induction scheme for NQTs (Killeavy & Murphy, 2006; Killeavy & Murphy, 2008). Another notable landmark was the establishment of the Teaching Council on a statutory basis in 2006. While the background report for the OECD report commented favourably on many aspects of teacher education in Ireland, it identified a number of areas that needed strengthening. Among these, according to Coolahan (2003), are: the need to regard the 3 Is of ITE, induction and in-service education as interconnected; the need for a restructuring of ITE courses to give a greater sense of cross-curricular integration; the need to foster a reflective practitioner approach; and the requirement to provide closer links with school personnel on teaching practice.

#### **A.1.3.1 Structure of initial teacher education**

Both consecutive and concurrent models of ITE are available in Ireland. ITE for primary teachers mainly takes place in the Colleges of Education (all of which are affiliated to a university) either as a three-year *ab initio* Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) or an 18-month postgraduate diploma in primary teaching. The Kellaghan report recommended that these should be extended to four years and two years respectively. To date, however, this has not happened. In recent years the Higher Diploma in Arts in Primary Education, an on-line course for postgraduate students provided by Hibernia College, was recognised by the DES as a qualification for primary teaching.

The vast majority of post-primary teachers have a postgraduate diploma in education, except for teachers of specialised subjects with a strong practical component where concurrent courses are the norm, such as ITE for teachers of art, physical education, music, home economics, technology, etc. (e.g. four-year Bachelor of Education in Sport Studies and Physical Education; Bachelor of Science in Physical Education; Bachelor of Science (Ed.) in Materials and Construction Technology).

#### **A.1.3.2 Recruitment**

In Ireland, teaching as a profession has traditionally enjoyed a relatively high status, and has been a popular choice with high-performing school-leavers. The number of places on offer each year is set by the DES. Entry into teacher education courses is

consequently highly competitive. Entry into the Colleges of Education (primary teaching) is based on students' performance in the Leaving Certificate examination. English, Irish and mathematics are compulsory for entry. The Colleges of Education also offer a Graduate Diploma in Primary Teaching, entry to which is based on candidate's academic achievement, performance at interview and proficiency in oral Irish, with credit also given for any substantial teaching experience they have already. Entry into courses for post-primary teaching is also competitive, based mainly on candidates' academic achievement, with the Postgraduate Applications Centre (PAC) handling applications for PDE courses in the four constituent universities of the National University of Ireland, while TCD operates its own system, which includes an interview. Entry to concurrent courses for post-primary teachers (e.g. art, music, sports studies, etc.) may involve the submission of a portfolio or other selection tests. As in other countries, there is a concern over the increasing feminisation of the teaching workforce, particularly at primary level, and a report by the Primary Education Committee (2005) recommends a number of steps that might be taken to redress this gender imbalance.

#### **A.1.3.3 Curriculum for teacher education**

Syllabi and curricula for teacher education are determined by individual ITE institutions. Concurrent degrees generally combine the study of an academic subject or subjects with modules on education/pedagogy, along with a list of optional specialisations. Post-primary teachers must have a basic degree in their teaching subject(s), and the postgraduate diploma concentrates on topics relating to education and subject-specific pedagogy.

#### **A.1.3.4 Practicum**

All ITE courses incorporate teaching practice, which must be successfully completed in order to graduate. There are no formal contracts between schools and providers of teacher education, but most institutions have built up a relationship with a network of schools which regularly take students on placement.

In general, Bachelor of Education students (primary) spend about a fifth of their time in college on teaching practice. This means that they spend between 18 and 22 weeks on school experience over the three-year programme. A sample are visited and

assessed by the DES inspectorate during their final year. Postgraduates spend approximately 10 to 15 weeks in schools over their 18-month diploma in primary teaching (DES, 2006). At post-primary level, students must spend a minimum of 100 hours in schools on teaching practice. This is supervised by staff members from the ITE institution, who also assess and grade the students' performance.

#### **A.1.3.5 Mentoring/Induction**

#### **A.1.4 Continuing professional development**

Supervisors from the ITE institutions visit trainee teachers while they are on placement in schools. There is no structured or paid mentoring scheme in operation at this level, though many schools provide assistance to student teachers on a voluntary basis. In the case of graduates of ITE from programmes in Ireland beginning teachers are eligible for conditional registration with the Teaching Council subject to Garda Vetting and a process of probation (primary teachers) or satisfactory post-qualification experience teaching an approved curricular subject (post-primary teachers). In the case of primary teachers, probation is certified by DES inspectors, who act in both an advisory and evaluative capacity. At post-primary level, the responsibility for certifying that the NQT has satisfactorily completed a period of post-qualification experience lies with the school principal. Following a process of assessment of teaching qualifications to identify shortfalls, if any, the above conditions of registration also apply to graduates of ITE programmes from other jurisdictions. The *Beginning to Teach* report (DES inspectorate, 2005) pinpointed some of the difficulties faced in the classroom by NQTs, and recommended a nationwide programme of induction for NQTs. A Pilot Project on Teacher Induction offering training and support for teacher mentors which began in 2002 has not yet been put into operation nationwide (Killeavy, 2006).

Since 2004, the Teacher Education Section (TES) of the DES has taken over the work of the former In-Career Development Unit (ICDU). The TES also includes a remit for initial teacher education. The TES is the main body responsible for co-ordinating, initiating and managing an ongoing programme of in-service professional development for teachers. Provision for the CPD of school leaders and teachers includes support for

- School development planning
- School leadership and management



- National programmes such as the Junior Certificate School Programme (JCSP), Transition Year (TY), the Leaving Certificate Applied (LCA) and the Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme (LCVP)
- The introduction of new and revised curricula
- Particular projects and initiatives including those related to priority areas of education provision such as disadvantage and inclusion, education for students with special educational needs, positive behaviour management and language support for newcomer students. (TES, 2007).

The Second Level Support Service (SLSS) and the Primary Professional Development Service (PPDS) (which subsumes and develops the work of the former PCSP and SDPS) operate under the TES, and the TES liaises with the NCCA in respect of teacher development needs, especially with regard to curriculum changes. The delivery of most state-supported, in-service training is organised by the regional Education Centres, (originally Teachers' Centres) on behalf of the DES. Centres also organise a varied local programme of activities for teachers, school management and parents in response to demand. Education Centres are statutory bodies and are managed by voluntary Management Committees elected annually. Other providers include teacher unions, subject associations, management groups and vocational education committees. The universities and colleges of education provide a variety of CPD courses, mainly part-time and fee-paying. However, teachers may have fees refunded for approved courses. Teachers who hold a master's degree are entitled to a financial allowance throughout their careers.

Topics that have been addressed in CPD in recent years include: the implementation of the revised Primary Curriculum (1999); the revised subject curricula at post-primary level; assessment; the use of ICT in schools; school leadership in the context of the School Development Planning Initiative; the integration of children with disabilities; educational disadvantage; and work with parents, etc. Specific courses are held for Home School Community Liaison teachers and for teachers of the Early Start pre-schools classes, for Learning Support teachers and others who take on specialist roles within the schools. Participation in CPD in general is voluntary; there is no requirement that teachers engage in CPD in order to continue to be registered as a teacher (Coolahan, 2003).

### **A.1.5 Early years/pre-school qualifications**

Primary school attendance in Ireland is practically universal. Attendance at full-time education is compulsory for all children between six and 16 years of age. In practice, almost all five-year-olds and 56% of four-year-olds attend primary schools. Thus what is considered pre-school education in other countries is provided (free) in the infant classes of primary schools. The Department of Education and Science also provides a number of targeted programmes for children under six years, including programmes for children with special needs, children of Travellers and children experiencing social and economic disadvantage. The Early Start programme provides a year of pre-school education for three-year-olds in a number of schools in disadvantaged areas. However this initiative, which began as a pilot project in 1995, has not been extended into mainstream schooling. Children under six in infant classes in primary schools are taught by qualified primary teachers. In Early Start classes, the teacher is assisted by a qualified childcare worker. There is no requirement, however, that teachers of infants should have taken a specialised course in early years education, although this is an option in teacher education colleges, and most ITE courses include an introduction to early childhood education. In-service courses on this topic are also held.

In recent years, there has been a major increase in the availability of degree courses in early childhood studies in universities and institutes of technology. However graduates from these courses are not in general eligible to teach in primary schools unless they also complete the 18-month Graduate Diploma in Teaching (Primary). Graduates with certain Montessori qualifications are recognised as eligible to teach in certain restricted settings, e.g. some special classes in mainstream primary schools as well as in special schools. The *Model Framework for Education, Training and Professional Development for the Early Childhood Care and Education sector in Ireland* (DJELR, 2002) sets out the occupational profiles and core skills of those working in the early years sector at all levels, and offers an interesting developmental model for the skills and competences required for career progression.

### **A.1.6 Kellaghan Report<sup>24</sup>: Report of the Working Group on Primary Preservice Teacher Education: Recommendations**

1. Each college should within a year propose a restructuring of its present programmes, taking cognizance of the framework and recommendations presented in this report, and prepare a report

- (a) identifying the subject areas that will be included, giving due consideration to the requirements of the revised primary-school curriculum and the need to include the areas in an initial pre-service programme;
- (b) specifying the content, structure, and modes of delivery of courses;
- (c) specifying how time will be allocated in terms of lectures, seminars, tutorials, independent student study, and other activities to each area of the programme;
- (d) outlining proposals for teaching practice;
- (e) specifying structures that will be established to relate coursework to the practice of teaching and to assist students in integrating and applying knowledge and skills acquired in coursework to their practice;
- (f) outlining standards of practice and performance (with special reference to criteria for performance on teaching practice) and how it is proposed to assess students to ensure that they have met the standards;
- (g) outlining college policy regarding the use and promotion of Irish in the life of the college;
- (h) proposing structures for a more formal involvement of schools and teachers in teacher preparation;
- (i) identifying the resources (space, personnel, equipment) that will be required, particularly for new subject areas, and their estimated costs;
- (j) addressing any other issues considered relevant.

The Department of Education and Science should provide financial and other support to the colleges to support the process of change that is recommended. Plans for restructuring should be submitted to the Minister who would respond to them within a period of six months.

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<sup>24</sup> Kellaghan, T. (2002). *Preparing Teachers for the 21st Century: Report of the Working Group on Primary Preservice Teacher Education*. Dublin: Department of Education and Science.

## **Length of programme**

2. The college proposals should be made within the context of
  - (a) a B.Ed. programme extended to four years and a postgraduate diploma programme extended to two years;
  - (b) the fourth year being delivered entirely by the colleges in the case of the small colleges;
  - (c) no additional time being available for academic subjects in concurrent courses in the larger colleges as a result of the extension of the programme.

## **Content and structure of programmes**

3. Concurrent and consecutive models of teacher preparation should be retained. The consecutive model should be institutionalized as a permanent feature of the system.
4. A number of academic subjects should be added to B.Ed. programmes. It would not be necessary to offer the additional subjects in all colleges.
5. Academic subjects in the B.Ed. programme should be divided into two groups. The first (Group A) would comprise academic subjects being offered at present and other similar subjects that may be added (e.g., science). The second (Group B) would comprise subjects more directly related to education which it is proposed should be added as academic subjects (e.g., Education, Psychology, Sociology, Early Childhood Education).
6. In the concurrent model in the larger colleges, students should take two academic subjects in the first year of the B.Ed. programme, one of which should be chosen from the group of traditional academic subjects (i.e., those at present on offer and any that may be added) (Group A) and one from the group of new academic subjects more closely related to education which it is proposed should be established in the colleges (Group B). At the end of their first year, students would choose to continue with one of the subjects they had studied in first year.
7. Pedagogical options should be added to the programmes in the smaller colleges to be available for study to degree level or as electives.

- 8.** Courses in Professional Irish and Professional English should be examined to determine their value, and decisions made in accordance with the results of the examination to focus content on the communicative competence of students in the context of enhancing their ability to teach the languages. A course in Professional mathematics should be provided in all colleges. All students should attend courses in the three professional areas unless there is clear evidence that a student has the required level of competence.
- 9.** Responsibility for professional courses in Irish, English, and mathematics should rest in the Education Department of each college.
- 10.** Courses should be introduced in areas of the revised primary-school curriculum for which present provision is inadequate (e.g., SESE, SPHE, Early Childhood Education, Information and Communication Technologies).
- 11.** The total number of formal contact hours per week in lectures, seminars, and workshops for students should be reduced. The large number of formal contact hours gives the wrong message on learning, and leaves insufficient time for reading, independent work, and reflection.
- 12.** Courses should provide a greater mix of whole-class teaching, seminars, tutorials, and practical work (including essay writing). The need for small-group work in some courses should be recognised.
- 13.** Academic courses should incorporate material relevant to the primary-school curriculum, having due regard to the integrity of the subjects. While such courses may be designed primarily to further students' personal development, it is not unreasonable to expect that they should also be related to their future work as teachers.
- 14.** Foundation courses (in Psychology, Sociology, History, Philosophy) should be designed to ensure that their content is relevant to primary-school teaching.

**15.** Courses should be examined for overlap, which where it occurs should be eliminated.

**16.** Where appropriate, course delivery should incorporate efforts to integrate material from a variety of curriculum areas (e.g., Arts Education, SESE, SPHE, Physical Education).

**17.** Syllabi, with recommended reading, should be provided for all courses.

**18.** A system of field experience should be developed in which students' conceptions of teaching are explored, and in which students are supported in integrating material from lectures/seminars in foundation subjects, academic subjects, methods courses, and their experiences in schools. This will involve considerable individual and small-group work with students.

**19.** The range of elective specialisms on offer should be extended (e.g., to include Teaching in *Gaelscoileanna* and *Gaeltacht* schools; Information and Communication Technologies; Disadvantage).

**20.** *Gaeltacht* courses should be redesigned with the needs of preservice teacher education in mind. The revised courses should be submitted to the colleges of education and the Department of Education and Science.

**21.** Existing provision for teaching of English should be reviewed to ensure that all relevant areas are adequately covered and that course delivery is rationalized and coordinated.

**22.** The large colleges should agree a nomenclature of awards for Religious Education.

**23.** The small colleges should consider granting a certificate/diploma to indicate successful completion of a Religious Education course.

**24.** Student involvement in Arts Education and Physical Education should extend over a number of years.

**25.** In some subject areas (Arts, Physical Education), there may be a need to increase the non-practical element.

**26.** Consideration needs to be given to the location of courses in B.Ed. programmes and, in particular, whether it is appropriate that students complete their work in pedagogical courses before their final year.

**27.** All students should take a course in Information and Communication Technologies in their first year, unless there is evidence that they have the required level of competence. The need for more advanced treatment of ICT is also indicated.

**28.** Information and Communication Technologies should be integrated into curriculum methods courses.

**29.** All programmes should have a compulsory module on Irish-medium education.

**30.** The issue of English as a second language needs to be addressed.

**31.** Colleges should provide dedicated spaces with appropriate materials for Arts Education, language, and mathematics.

**32.** Programme design should proceed on the basis that increased attention will be required to the teaching of literacy and numeracy.

**33.** A course on the education of children with special needs in the context of individual differences between children should be a compulsory element of initial teacher preparation programmes.

**34.** Coursework should take cognizance of the central role of parents in children's education.

**35.** If continental languages are mainstreamed in primary schools following the evaluation of the pilot project, an elective module in language teaching should be provided.

36. Students should be provided with an overview of the main elements of school management.

### **Student selection**

37. Consideration should be given to the reintroduction of interviews in the selection of students for B.Ed. programmes to increase the probability that selected candidates have the required competence to embark on a programme that includes the practice of teaching. Clear criteria for selection would need to be established.

38. The minimum standard in mathematics required for entry to B.Ed. and postgraduate programmes should be a D3 grade on a Higher level Leaving Certificate Examination or a C3 grade on an Ordinary level examination.

39. Some preselection prior to interview seems appropriate in the allocation of places on the postgraduate diploma programme.

(a) Students with knowledge/skills that are needed in primary schools and are not adequately catered for in concurrent programmes (e.g., science) should be accorded preference in selection for the postgraduate diploma programme.

(b) Factors, such as the level of degree awarded to a student and work experience, should be taken into account in the selection of students for the postgraduate programme.

### **Institutional arrangements**

40. Steps should be taken to ensure that the teacher education function is given a more effective role in the decision-making structures of the colleges.

41. Consideration should be given to the establishment of middle-management structures in colleges to improve efficiency.

42. Teaching practice will require structures and staff to assist students in the integration, interpretation, and application of the various elements of their preparation.



43. Students' experience in teaching practice should be broadened to involve some interaction with other professionals and with parents.

44. Schools and teachers should have a greater and more formal involvement in teaching practice.

45. Colleges should explore opportunities for co-operation in the delivery of programmes and sharing of resources. Support mechanisms should be made available where necessary by the Department of Education and Science to encourage and support colleges to work in closer co-operation.

46. The small colleges should examine their arrangements for course accreditation.

47. The financial arrangements between the small colleges and Trinity College should be reassessed.

48. Consideration should be given to the location of a facility in a Gaeltacht area in which some students would study for a period.

49. Teachers should be recruited on secondment for short periods (2 to 3 years) as a regular feature of staffing in colleges of education. They should not, however, normally be used to fill in for permanent staff.

50. Colleges should develop the capacity to carry out research relevant to their core operations (e.g., relating to student selection, students' performance in college, and tracer studies of graduates) and to offer postgraduate studies.

### **Student assessment**

51. In light of the large number of honours degrees that are awarded and the small number of failures, criteria for the award of degrees should be reviewed.

52. General guidelines need to be developed regarding the treatment of unsatisfactory progress.

53. Students who are unlikely to meet programme requirements in teaching practice should be identified at as early a stage as possible and counselled to leave, or facilitated to move to other areas of study.

54. Compensation between subject areas should not be allowed when competence in an area is regarded as essential for future teachers.

55. The final degree award should not be based solely on student performance in the final year of study.

56. An honours degree should not be awarded to a student who does not reach an honours standard in Education.

57. The time in which students are permitted to repeat teaching practice should be limited to two years.

58. Supervisors of teaching practice may need to take courses to ensure that their assessments are comparable, and that they are competent to assess student performance in such areas as Arts Education and Physical Education.

59. External examiners should each year assess the quality of programmes offered in the colleges, and their reports should be published.

60. All students should receive a detailed transcript of their studies and performance while in college.

### **In-career development**

61. The Department of Education and Science should examine the feasibility of providing more effective incentives to teachers to pursue post-graduate studies.

## **A. 1.7 Byrne Report<sup>25</sup>: Advisory Group on Post-Primary Teacher Education: Recommendations**

### **Remodelling of initial teacher education programmes**

- Teacher education should be seen as part of an interlinked framework encompassing initial induction to continuous professional development. It is recommended that the teacher education programmes maintain their current durations. In place of the investment that might be made by extending the duration of programmes, it is recommended that this resource be concentrated on induction and beginning years in a formal and costed way
- The Enquiry Orientated model is best suited to teacher education programmes given the needs of student teachers and given the needs subsequently of the teaching profession
- The curriculum of teacher education programmes should be tightly integrated
- The teacher education process should be collaboratively designed and organised with inputs from the education partners
- Each teacher education department should establish a partnership board comprising the representatives of placement sites and the teacher education professionals, to be given executive responsibilities for the organisation and management of school based studies components
- Partnership boards should, as part of their executive functions, be required to negotiate the placement of student teachers with the school in which their school-based study is to take place
- Two different school sites should be provided for school-based studies and each of these periods should be preceded by an orientation studies component
- Teacher educators should emphasise the importance of reflective practice, particularly since this underpins the concept of lifelong learning
- Teacher education departments should develop and share inter-institutional databases of case studies

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<sup>25</sup> Byrne, K. (2002). *Advisory Group on Post-Primary Teacher Education*. Dublin: Department of Education and Science.

- New posts should be created to allow for the recruitment of teacher education professionals with specialisms in curricular areas who could be appointed as Course Leaders in the area of teaching methodology
- Assessment models commensurate with the learning culture of the programme environment should be devised with an emphasis on continuous assessment and a concentration on the portfolio studies as the principal content to be assessed
- Both the consecutive and concurrent models of teacher education have numerous merits and benefits and there is a place for both of them in the Irish education system. Therefore, the Group does not recommend that one model be chosen over the other flexible pathways of accreditation, which encourage the accreditation of prior learning and which are underwritten by cross-institutional co-operation, will be of substantial importance in the development of continuous professional development model
- Teacher education programmes should have a strong orientation phase to allow students a period of observation in the schools where they are placed for the school based component of the programme
- Teacher education must inculcate an understanding of how inclusivity for all learners is a central tenet of schooling and teacher commitment in the educational system and must provide for professional proficiency across the diverse spectrum of learning
- A compulsory module catering for diverse educational needs should be included in all teacher education programmes
- Student teachers must be made fully aware of the legislative requirements and statutory responsibilities which govern their profession
- There should be further support for teachers who are developing their career to include teaching in programmes other than mainstream programmes. This support should be provided at the level of continuous professional development by way of appropriately constructed models
- All teacher education departments involving the curricular area of Irish should make fulltime permanent appointments in that area and in Irish teaching methodology

- Custom designed courses should be provided for teachers with a degree in Irish or with a proven ability in the language, to enable them to move to Gaeltacht schools or to Irish medium schools.
- In order to create a culture of awareness of Irish policies and to generate a positive attitude towards Irish, teacher education programmes should be linked with the Oifigeach na Gaeilge position (where this exists) within institutions
- The provision of teacher educators in the specialist subject curricular areas and the teaching methodologies should be more completely supported
- Personal development should permeate all aspects of teacher education programmes and compliment a compulsory personal development module
- Research should be carried out on beginning teachers to determine the efficacy of initial teacher education programmes and to assist in the design of induction and continuous professional development programmes.

### **Induction**

- Induction programmes should be provided for all beginning teachers
- Induction year should be seen as part of a continuum of the first five years of the development of the beginning teacher
- A designed process of partnership between school mentors, teacher education departments and the Teaching Council should be put in place to organise, manage, mentor and monitor the inductee teacher
- Agreement needs to be reached between education partnerships, the Teaching Council and the teaching profession concerning the maximum number of hours per week that the inductee may teach
- Portfolio exercises should be used in the induction programme as a means of extending the reflective practice model
- Teacher education departments should engage in research projects with inductee teachers to more accurately assess their needs
- Specific continuous professional development programmes should be introduced leading to a masters degree for the beginning teacher
- Induction programmes need to be suitably flexible to allow for a concentration on the individual school where the inductee is in post

- Induction programmes should seek to develop critical levels of personal awareness among beginning teachers
- Assessment should be supported as a key competence over the period of the initial programme.

### **Continuous professional development**

- Provision should be made for the professional development of teachers to meet various needs at various stages of their careers
- Flexible modes of accreditation and administration of continuous professional development need to be introduced
- Professional development initiatives should be founded on higher award accreditation opportunities, where participation in all forms of professional development will be recognised, assessed and awarded through modular building blocks to the ultimate level of formal post-graduate awards
- School based collaborative research carried out by teachers in teams or groups and supported by teacher education departments is best suited as a model for continuous professional development
- The model of the reflective practitioner should be further developed at the level of continuous professional development
- Teachers should play an active role in their own continuous professional development
- Schools should take a more proactive role in deciding the research topics most pressing and suited to their needs
- Schools should be provided with a continuous professional development budget which can be used to acquire the support and expertise of the teacher education departments
- Teacher educators should themselves be resourced and supported in their continuous professional development
- Subject associations should be supported in their role in professional development of teachers.

## **Information and communication technologies**

- (ICT) in the Learning Environment
- ICT should be used to extend the learning environment of teacher education at all stages
- Student teachers should be educated on the comprehensive integration of ICT into the teaching of all subjects
- Student teachers should be exposed to the positive formative force of ICT in their own learning
- Student teachers should be facilitated so that all teaching notes, schemes of work, etc. can be created electronically
- Databases of the narrative of teacher experience should be created
- The role of the NCTE needs to be extended to ensure multi-annual funding for schools and teacher education departments to further develop ICT in education
- Teacher education departments need to become major players in the provision of professional development at a distance using the new technologies
- The provision of broadband facilities to schools needs to be supported by collaborative efforts involving public and private partners
- The feasibility of extending the HEANET to all primary and post-primary schools should be examined
- Funding should be provided on a competitive basis to higher education institutions, in partnership with second level schools, in the development of high quality educational software for Irish schools
- Teacher education partnerships should strive to upskill teacher educators with ICT literacies.

## **Access, system design, selection and recruitment**

- There should be ongoing and periodic reviews of quotas in line with the Points Commission recommendation
- Further work needs to be undertaken to ensure that data on which estimates may be based is up-to-date and reliable. Initially this may concern periodic surveys and subsequently the development of a teacher database
- Education departments should consider the provision of diverse routes of access to teacher education programmes

- The selection criteria for the NUI Higher Diploma in Education programmes should be extended to accommodate a greater diversity of entrants
- Account should be taken of a wider range of subjects in the primary degree of entrants in order to take account of ongoing curricular changes
- Places on teacher education programmes should take account of the subject needs in the system
- Special orientation programmes should be provided for returnees to teaching
- Career pathways should be established and special orientation programmes provided for mature students looking for a career change who wish to enrol in teacher education programmes
- Teacher education departments should give consideration to establishing programmes that would result in teachers qualified to teach at both primary and post-primary level. This should be considered for both beginning teachers and for experienced teachers involved in continuous professional development
- Consideration should be given to making a module on teaching and learning available at undergraduate level.



## **Appendix A 2: England – Country Profile**

### **A. 2.1 Socio-political and cultural context**

The legislative and cultural context of teachers' work in England exerts enormous influence on teacher education. Acknowledging it is a prerequisite to understanding the structures, cultures and approaches to teacher education and development.

### **A.2.2 Key features**

In summary the key aspects of the system are:

1. CURRICULUM: A National Curriculum that defines the curricular content to be covered in the compulsory phases of education, ages five to 16 – the *what* of teaching.
2. PEDAGOGY: National strategies which specify the curricular content in great detail, recommend teaching approaches, specify lesson structures and time allocations as well as class organisation – both the *what* and *how* of teaching.
3. ASSESSMENT: National assessment of pupils at ages 7, 11, 14 and 16, the prime purpose of which is to hold the system to account and the results of which are published in the form of league tables of schools. English, mathematics and science are the focus of this system of close and frequent monitoring of pupil attainment against national standards in the primary school. This has led inadvertently to a hierarchy of subjects at primary level.
4. MONITORING: Close and frequent scrutiny and monitoring of teachers' work occurs through inspections of classroom and school practice (OfSTED). This system of regular school inspection has been in place since the early 1990s. It evaluates schools and has the power to judge schools as ineffective or failing. All such information is in the public domain.

In initial teacher education there is a requirement that students, known as trainee teachers, develop and demonstrate competence in using the approaches and strategies that constitute the nationally prescribed or recommended procedures in all the above.

### A.2.3 Structures and governance

England's national context is one of homogeneity and central control. There is a nationally-mandated, centrally-controlled framework of initial teacher training. Colleges and Departments of Education cannot autonomously define for themselves the content and structure of their teacher education programmes. Central Government exercises control over teacher education via a quango which is directly accountable to it – the Teacher Development Agency (TDA), previously known as the Teacher Training Agency (TTA). The TDA exercises control over all aspects of pre-service teacher training, specifies standards against which teachers are judged throughout their teaching career, and exercises control over the professional development of teachers following their initial training. In addition, OfSTED, through its inspections of teacher education providers, monitors compliance with the TDA's requirements and recommendations.

Key official sources are *Professional Standards for Teachers* (TDA, 2007) and *Further Guidance on the Standards and the ITT<sup>26</sup> requirements* (TDA, 2008). The framework for professional standards for teachers defines the characteristics of teachers at each career stage. It specifies professional standards for all of the following awards/positions:

- Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (Q)
- Teachers on the main scale (Core) (C)
- Teachers on the upper pay scale (Post Threshold Teachers) (P)
- Excellent Teachers (E)
- Advanced Skills Teachers (ASTs) (A).

The TDA documentation states that professional standards provide clarity of the expectations for each career stage and denote what progression looks like. In order to access each career stage a teacher needs to demonstrate that he/she has met relevant standards which show clearly what is expected at each career stage. Each set of standards builds on the previous set, so a teacher being considered for the threshold

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<sup>26</sup> In England, the term *Initial Teacher Training* (ITT) is used in official documents, rather than *Initial Teacher Education* (ITE) which is used in Scotland, Ireland, New Zealand and elsewhere.

would need to satisfy the threshold standards (P) and meet the core standards (C); a teacher aspiring to become an excellent teacher would need to satisfy the standards specific to that status (E) and meet the preceding standards (C and P); and a teacher aspiring to become an AST would need to satisfy the standards specific to that status (A) as well as the preceding standards (C, P and E) – although they can apply for an AST post before going through the threshold.

The standards themselves are explicit statements of a teacher's professional attributes, knowledge and understanding, and professional skills. There are some 33 standards that have to be met by those being recommended for the award of QTS, regardless of the route they take to QTS. The TDA claims that this arrangement allows teacher training providers autonomy in determining how they will structure their training and respond to the training needs of individual trainee teachers. The TDA does not set a curriculum nor specify how training should be designed or managed.

The standards for QTS are structured in three interrelated sections which describe the criteria for the award. The standards for the first section, professional attributes, pertain to the attitudes and commitment to be expected and these expectations relate to the teacher's ability to develop professional relationships, communicate with others, understand relevant legal frameworks, and engage with professional development. The standards for the second section, professional knowledge and understanding, pertain to confidence in the subjects to be taught and to a clear understanding of how all children and young people make progress. They also cover understanding of how teachers contribute to the well-being of children and young people and the variety of influences affecting child development. The standards for the third section, professional skills, pertain to the skills of teaching, including planning, assessing, monitoring, giving feedback, team working and collaboration. They establish clear expectations about promoting positive attitudes to learning, discipline and safe learning environments. The recommendation for the award of QTS and registration with the General Teaching Council for England (GTCE) is made by an accredited ITT provider following an assessment which shows that all the standards have been met. The newly qualified teacher (NQT) may then begin the induction period.

The TDA specifies the requirements for ITT under the following 'requirements':

- R1 : Trainee entry requirements
- R2: Training requirements
- R3: Management and quality assurance.

There is diversity in the nature of provision at ITT level. While the Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts (Education) degree and the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) are the typical routes, these qualifications vary in their nature: the B.Ed. degree ranges from two to four years while the PGCE may be one or two years and may be full-time or part-time. Newer routes include the following: the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP), which is an employment-based route intended for older people and ‘Teach First’, another employment-based route aimed at younger and talented graduates. Participants on both these routes obtain QTS after one year. In addition, a school-centred route (SCITT) has no higher education involvement.

On the ‘traditional’ and more common routes, schools are funded to support teacher training and a significant amount of training time is spent in school. The TDA specifies, in its ITT requirements, how much time trainees should spend ‘in schools or other settings’ to enable them to demonstrate they have met the QTS standards. It is expected that they would normally spend the following amounts of time in schools or ‘other settings’: 32 weeks for all four-year degree programmes; 24 weeks for two- and three-year degree programmes; 24 weeks for all secondary PGCE routes; 18 weeks for all primary PGCE routes. For ‘employment-based schemes’ the time is determined by the training programme. Trainee teachers must have taught in two schools in their training period.

During their induction period, newly qualified teachers (NQTs) teach for no more than 90% of a full-time teaching load. They have a designated mentor, they are observed teaching and they have opportunities to observe more established teachers teach. They undergo a professional review of progress about six times in their induction year. These reviews are intended to provide opportunities for feedback on progress, to help the beginner teacher identify their achievements and to focus on his/her development needs. The head teacher, in collaboration with the local education authority (LEA), is responsible for assessing the satisfactory completion of the beginner teacher’s

induction period. Those failing to reach the standards cannot be employed as a qualified teacher in a state school and they cease to be registered with the General Teaching Council (GTC). A package of materials known as the Career Entry and Development Profile is available to support the beginner teacher to reflect and plan as they embark on their induction period. This is essentially a professional portfolio which teachers are encouraged to maintain through their career. It is an online resource and is structured around three transition points. Transition point one is towards the end of initial teacher training (ITT), point two is at the beginning of the induction and point three is towards the end of induction.

Continuing professional development beyond the initial and induction periods of teacher education consists increasingly of short-term practical courses designed to achieve nationally set targets. Schools themselves are increasingly a key site for the professional shaping of teachers with all the following embedded features of professional practice in schools: classroom observation of practice; teacher training and classroom assistant training; assessment and monitoring; coaching; and mentoring.

Standards for 'post-threshold' teachers, e.g. Advanced Skills Teachers, are linked to relevant pay scales and are based on 'performance management' in the standards framework. Performance management assesses the overall competence of a teacher or head teacher in the contexts of the individual's job description and of the provisions of the School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document (STPCD), and it helps plan for the individual's future development in the context of the school's own improvement plan. Professional standards provide the backdrop to discussions about competence and future development.

## **Appendix A 3: Scotland – Country Profile**

### **A.3.1 Socio-political and cultural context**

Within the context of the United Kingdom, the distinctive legislative, governance and cultural context of teachers' work in Scotland exerts significant influence on teacher education, and stands in contrast in many respects to developments in England and to a lesser extent Wales. Acknowledging this quite different teaching and teacher education storyline is fundamental to understanding the structures, cultures and approaches to teacher education and development. For example, Scotland has had a Teaching Council since the mid-1960s and, as such, the historical developments of governance structures vis-à-vis teacher education in Scotland are somewhat different from those of its neighbouring jurisdictions. However, despite this there are strong similarities in some dimensions of teacher education, such as ITE course content across Wales, England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and the Republic of Ireland (Filmer-Sankey, et al., 2006).

### **A.3.2 Key features**

In summary the key aspects of the education system are:

1. **CURRICULUM:** In Scotland, the curriculum at primary and post-primary is non-statutory and so is not dictated by the Government. As such, responsibility for what is taught rests with local authorities and schools, taking into account national guidelines and advice. In November 2003, a major review of the curriculum – *Curriculum for Excellence* – was initiated by Learning and Teaching Scotland (LTS) and completed in November 2004. It created for the first time a curriculum for students aged from three to 18 around four key cross-curricular learning outcomes: successful learners, confident individuals, effective contributors to society and responsible citizens.
2. **PEDAGOGY:** One of the key rationales underpinning *Curriculum for Excellence*, following a national debate on education in 2002 and subsequent review in 2003, was the creation of a context which allocated

greater professional discretion to teachers in relation to pedagogy and assessment.

3. **ASSESSMENT:** In Scotland, teachers choose in-class standardised assessments from a bank of available tests and administer these when they judge that children are ready. In addition to their own assessments teachers use the results from the standardised tests to appraise student profiles of achievement and learning. In keeping with the less onerous assessment culture in Scotland compared to England, schools in some local education authority areas are not required to use the standard national tests if they can show that they have an appropriate assessment system at school level.
4. **MONITORING:** National assessment of pupils is undertaken through the Scottish Survey of Achievement (SSA), which is an annual national survey of pupil attainment between the ages of five and 14. Attainment in four areas – English language, mathematics, social subjects, science and core skills – is measured in the third, fifth and seventh (final) years of primary (P3, P5 and P7) and the second year of secondary (S2). The survey takes place close to the end of the academic year in April/May so pupils complete relevant programmes of work. The SSA is a survey involving a representative sample of schools.

### **A.3.3 Structures and governance**

Scotland's national context is characterised by moderate levels of control, strong emphasis on partnership among teacher education stakeholders, and progression and integration across the continuum of teacher education. Since the devolution of powers in the UK in the late 1990s with the resulting re-establishment of the Scottish Parliament, Scotland (like Wales through the Welsh Assembly) has been able to identify its own national education priorities.

In Initial Teacher Education the institutional stakeholders are the Scottish Executive and its Education Department (SEED), Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education (HMIE), the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS), the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA), Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and seven ITE providers. SEED sets the requirements for length of courses, placement

requirements and broad curriculum parameters in its *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland* (SEED, 2006), and includes the requirement that ITE courses are accredited by the GTCS. SEED is also influential in significant ways such as stipulating the ITE annual recruitment numbers and calls for ‘aspect reviews’ of ITE strands (e.g. Literacy across the Curriculum; Student Placements, etc. – see Brisard, Menter & Smith, 2006) exercised through the inspectorate.

Key official sources are *Benchmark Information for Courses of Initial Teacher Education* (QAAHE, 2000), *Review of Initial Teacher Education Stage: 2 Report of the Review Group* (Scottish Executive 2005), *Student Teacher Placements within Initial Teacher Education* (HMIE, 2005), *Reflecting on the Teacher Induction Scheme* (GTCS, 2005), *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland* (SEED, 2006), *Standard for Initial Teacher Education* (GTCS, 2006), *Standard for Full Registration* (GTCS, 2006) and *Standard for Chartered Teacher* (SEED, 2002).

As one of the first jurisdictions in the world to establish a teaching council, the GTCS undertakes the statutory function in relation to accreditation of Initial Teacher Education. The *Standard for Initial Teacher Education* (2006) was produced following collaboration between various ITE stakeholders (GTCS, HEIs, Standing Committee on Quality Assurance in Teacher Education in Scotland, LEAs, schools and the inspectorate). It sets out what is expected of a student teacher at the end of ITE and what is expected of ITE providers in terms of learning, teaching and assessment. In initial teacher education there is a requirement that students develop and demonstrate competence along three professional development domains: (i) knowledge and understanding; (ii) skills and abilities; (iii) values and personal commitment. Expectations for ITE are expressed in terms of benchmark statements for each of these three headings with sub-categories under each (see Appendix B 2 for more details of these).

The GTCS accredits programmes rather than institutions of ITE. In 2003, the GTCS Standards Policy Statement on Accreditation of ITE specified evaluation criteria to be used as well as necessary internal self-evaluation/review and external accreditation processes. Accreditation must be renewed every six years. Based on this accreditation, the GTCS advises the Scottish Executive which then approves each ITE



programme/course. Scottish Office concerns about ceding control of ITE to universities in the early part of the 20th century led to the maintenance of independent colleges of initial teacher education. However, this situation has changed significantly since the 1990s and six of the seven ITE providers have merged with universities (Brisard et al., 2006).

The *Standard for Initial Teacher Education* (2006) is a key document, which outlines a range of issues central to ITE including core professional interests for the teachers, key educational principles, curriculum and assessment and professional development foci (knowledge, skills and commitments). Successful completion of a course in ITE leads to a Teaching Qualification (TQ).

A professional development framework of standards across the continuum of teacher education has been developed since the early 1990s and was further advanced through *A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century*, that is, the McCrone Agreement (SEED, 2001). Building on the ITE benchmarks and competences standards leading to TQ, the Professional Development Framework of Standards for Teachers defines the characteristics of teachers at two career stages: the induction standards (i.e. standard for full registration) and the expert teacher standard (i.e. chartered teacher). In summary, it specifies:

- The Standard for Full Registration (SfR)
- The Standard for Chartered Teacher (CT).

The framework of professional standards provides clarity of expectations around three focal benchmark statements with subordinate competences building upon Standard for Initial Teacher Education (SITE) benchmarks for each subsequent career stage. It outlines what progression looks like. Scotland has a two-step teacher registration (licensing) model, whereby new teachers during their induction period are ‘provisionally’ registered with the GTCS. The term ‘registered teacher’ is used in the standard to apply to a teacher who has successfully completed an induction period and is therefore ‘fully’ registered.

Scotland’s Teacher Induction Scheme offers eligible probationers who opt to take part

in it (i) a guaranteed one-year training post, (ii) a maximum class commitment of 0.7 full-time equivalent, (iii) dedicated time set aside for professional development, (iv) access to an experienced teacher as a nominated probationer supporter, (v) a consistently high-quality probation experience and (vi) a salary which compares well with that available to other professions. The scheme has attracted considerable interest internationally. For example, *Top of the Class: Report of the Inquiry into Teacher Education*, a recent review of initial teacher education in Australia (Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia, 2007), recommends adoption of an induction model based on Scotland's.

The chartered teacher programme is designed to maximise skills and expertise within the profession, rewarding experienced teachers who want challenging careers so they can remain as teachers in the classroom rather than move to promotion posts. There are a number of different routes to attain Chartered Teacher Status following completion of mandatory module (Module 1: Professional Development: Review, Reflection and Planning):

- *Route 1. The Programme Route:* By completing a programme of formal modules from one or more of the nationally approved Chartered Teacher programmes.
- *Route 2. The GTCS Accreditation Route:* By submitting, directly to the GTCS, a claim for the accreditation of prior learning (APL) demonstrating their competence to meet the full requirements of the Standard Route (available only for five years following the introduction of the programme in 2003).
- *Route 3. The Programme and APL Route:* By completing a programme of formal or project based modules from one or more of the nationally approved Chartered Teacher programmes – including a claim, to the awarding body, for APL in respect of part of the requirement for Chartered Teacher Standard – up to a maximum of half of the credit value of the award.

## **Appendix A 4: Northern Ireland – Country Profile**

### **A.4.1 Socio-political and cultural context**

Teacher education in Northern Ireland (NI), like that in all countries and other parts of the UK, has to be understood with reference to the demands on schools and the general cultural context of teaching, schooling and society. As part of the UK's political economy and societal context, NI has much in common with England and Scotland (and Wales). For example it shares all of the following:

### **A.4.2 Key features**

1. CURRICULUM: A National Curriculum that defines the curricular content to be covered in the compulsory phases of education, ages five to 16 – the *what* of teaching.
2. PEDAGOGY: National strategies which specify the curricular content and recommend teaching approaches – both the *what* and *how* of teaching.
3. ASSESSMENT: National assessment of pupils at ages 8, 11, 14 and 16, the purpose of which is to hold the system to account. As elsewhere in the UK, more recent reviews of curriculum and assessment policy have placed more emphasis on assessment for, rather than of, learning. There is close and frequent monitoring of pupil attainment against national standards in the primary school in English and mathematics which has led inadvertently to a hierarchy of subjects at this level of the system.
4. MONITORING: Close and frequent scrutiny and monitoring of teachers' work occurs through inspections of classroom and school practice carried out by the Department of Education's Education and Training Inspectorate. This system of regular school inspection has been in place since the 1990s.

Political devolution, following the establishment of separate assemblies for NI (and Wales, and a separate parliament for Scotland) has offered NI a major degree of control over its policy formulation although NI has had a long tradition of flexibility and enjoyed a certain degree of autonomy (from England) in determining educational policy. However, in all four parts of the UK, policy documents use similar rhetoric, claim similar goals and employ similar policy procedures to achieve goals (Raffe &

Byrne, 2005). NI would appear to have more common elements than differences with other parts of the UK in relation to educational policies. Yet NI's social context is unique (at least in the UK) in its distinctive levels of religious and academic segregation, single-sex schooling, and its legacy of conflict. The Belfast Agreement (NIO, 1998) offers a political way forward for the promotion of a pluralist democracy in NI based on social justice and inclusion and this development suggests a new epoch for all education policy formulation. The preparation of teachers in NI to support the development of a peaceful and pluralist society is conceptualised by policy-makers as the responsibility of all sectors of the education system (OFMDFM, 2005) and especially the universities and teacher education institutions. The Belfast Agreement's advocacy of north-south collaboration further extended the significance of teacher education in the fostering of social inclusion. The establishment of the Department of Education in Northern Ireland (DENI) and DES-funded Standing Conference on Teacher Education North and South (SCoTENS) is a result of such advocacy and is a measure of how teacher educators took the lead in north-south co-operation in NI (Coolahan, 2008).

#### **A.4.3 Structures and governance**

There are two routes which lead to 'eligibility to teach' in NI. One is a concurrent model of three or four years of full-time study leading to a Bachelor of Education degree. Concurrent courses leading to this degree must include at least 32 weeks of practical teaching experience in the classroom. The other is a consecutive model, more associated with, but not exclusive to, secondary teaching, and leads to a PGCE following one year of full time study. The PGCE can also be taken on a part time basis. The PGCE must include at least 18 weeks of practical experience in the classroom. Unlike the case of England, schools have no contractual involvement in teacher education; there is no transfer of funds from HEIs to schools in NI, which means that partnerships of HEIs and schools are voluntary.

**Table A.1: Northern Ireland Professional Competence Statement Example with Phase Exemplars**

<b>Professional Knowledge and Understanding</b>					
<b>Professional Competence 6</b>		<b>Phase Exemplars</b>			
Competence Statement	Aspect of Competence	Initial Teacher Education	Induction	Early Professional Development	Continuing Professional Development, Collaborative Practice and School Improvement
Teachers will have developed a knowledge and understanding of the factors that promote and hinder effective learning, and be aware of the need to provide for the holistic development of the child.	Understand what is known about the factors that aid learning.	Examine theories of learning and child development, including the physiology of learning.	Planning and interactions with pupils show an understanding of theories of child development and the physiology of learning.	Planning and interactions with pupils show an understanding of theories of child development and the physiology of learning, and has a growing impact on pupils' learning.	Assist other staff and parents to understand the factors that aid learning so that there is a school-wide impact on pupils' learning.
	Understand what is known about the factors that hinder learning.	Consider the key aspects of emotional and behavioural difficulties; trauma, child abuse, bullying, discrimination, stereotyping, and pupil mobility or absence from school.	Planning and interactions with pupils show an understanding of the key aspects of the emotional and behavioural difficulties that some pupils may experience.	Planning and interactions with pupils show a deeper understanding of key aspects of the emotional and behavioural difficulties that some pupils may experience.	Assist other staff and parents to understand the factors that hinder learning so that there is a school-wide impact on pupils' learning.

SOURCE: General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland (2006): *Teaching: the Reflective Profession, Incorporating the Northern Ireland Teacher Competences*, p. 22.

Students are supervised and assessed by tutors from their higher education institution and by those in teacher-tutor roles in the schools where they undertake their practice. HEI staff assess student teachers' competence to teach their specialist subject, to assess children's learning and to manage classes. Model profiles for both formative and summative assessment of competences have been made available to HEIs to assist

them in carrying out their evaluations of students. The summative profile is known as the 'Career Entry Profile' and is provided for each newly qualified teacher (NQT) by the ITE institution. This profile of strengths and development needs sets targets and goals and is designed to record progress on the one hand and to encourage the development of a reflective attitude and self-improvement on the other (see Table A.1).

'Beginning teachers' undertake a one-year induction period and the GTCNI posit that induction and early professional development are essential phases of the integrated, competence-based approach of initial and early teacher education. Action plans are agreed during the induction year drawing on school-based support, including lesson observations and constructive feedback from experienced teachers, as well as available courses. Teachers are encouraged to assemble a portfolio of evidence of professional development. At the end of the induction period a summative report shows the teacher's professional development and suggests ways forward for future development.

## **Appendix A 5: Finland – Country Profile**

### **A.5.1 Socio-political and cultural context**

Finland's education system has attracted enormous attention since it rose to prominence when ranked first in PISA 2000 (Sahlberg, 2007). Finnish educators have written extensively about developments in the country's education system as a way of explaining to the recent influx of 'educational pilgrims', and to a keenly interested wider audience, how Finland has developed such high educational standards in reading, scientific and mathematical literacies. Most analyses point to the significant strategic investment in Finland's teaching force and teaching education system from the 1970s as Finland changed from an agrarian economy to an economically competitive Scandinavian welfare state. The social democratic stance underpinning the development of Finland's education system is characterised by strong active trust in the professional judgements of schools and teachers, significant investment in teacher networks and teacher education and low emphasis on high stakes testing/examinations until the very end of post-primary education. All of these provide a counter-narrative to the neo-liberal inspired approaches to schooling, teaching and teacher education which have come to dominate most western countries over the last two decades. Neo-liberal approaches to education (as in other sectors of the economy) centre on a belief in the power of the marketplace to enable greater consumer choice and higher quality of service through competition between service providers. As such, the dominant social democratic political context in Finland has provided a quite different setting for the development of teaching and teacher education from that in many countries. In sum, the wider socio-political context is central in any effort to understand and appraise the striking developments in Finland's education system over the last three decades.

### **A.5.2 Key features**

The key aspects of the education system at primary and post-primary are:

1. CURRICULUM: A National Board of Education (NBE) approves the national curriculum framework with local municipalities and schools required to prepare a school curriculum (i.e. choose textbooks and preferred teaching methods). Since 1985, at upper secondary level, there has been a

reform directed at creating fundamental structural and pedagogical changes characterised by learning and teaching based on modules (38 teaching lessons in length).

2. PEDAGOGY: Schools choose preferred teaching methods. Learning-oriented feedback forms a central part of teachers' methodological repertoire.
3. ASSESSMENT: The evaluation of student learning outcomes has been seen as the job of the school and teacher. As such, other than the National Matriculation Examination (held in Autumn and Spring and taken by half the cohort each year) administered in upper secondary education, there are no entrance, exit, graduation or other externally mandated high-stakes standardised tests/examinations. Teachers are expected to, and do, generate their own methods for appraising student progress with a strong emphasis on learning-oriented assessment.
4. MONITORING: As school and teacher autonomy and judgement are viewed as central to the enhancement of educational quality and ultimately standards of performance, there is a flexible accountability system in order to foster local and alternative strategies for improving students' learning and achievement.

### **A.5.3 Structures and governance**

Teaching enjoys a high status in Finland, as it has in the past. For example, only 10% of the 5,000 applicants are accepted into teacher education in the country's university Faculties of Education. In teacher education there is a requirement that teachers must have a Master of Science degree (proposed in 1974–5 and implemented since 1979) to qualify for a permanent teaching post in a school. The reforms of teacher education stipulating the need for master's degree level teacher education grew out of the 1970s three-pronged comprehensive systemic educational reform initiative directed at: (i) improving basic primary education; (ii) enhancing the lower grades of secondary grammar school; and (iii) significant reform of teacher education.



## **Appendix A 6: New Zealand – Country Profile**

### **A.6.1 Socio-political and cultural context**

New Zealand is a small Pacific OECD country with an overall population of just over four million and a high youth population. This includes a rapidly changing demographic profile with projections of Māori and Pasifika learners constituting 45% of school population by 2021. The OECD's *Programme for International Student Assessment* (PISA) reveals the third highest mean achievement in reading literacy for 15-year-old students in New Zealand. However, Maori and Pasifika learners dramatically underperformed in contrast to their white middle-class counterparts, prompting much debate. A revised curriculum in 2007 pushed for higher standards and more equitable educational outcomes for all students.

A series of high-level reports and reviews of education at all levels (and the Education Act of 1990) has dramatically changed the face and structure of education content, delivery and assessment. The reform effort has been a centrally driven one and greatly influenced by a market driven ideology that has focused on efficiency, competition and cost-effectiveness (McKeon & McPherson, 2004). Reform has been centered on managing teacher supply on the one hand, and the establishment of transparent standards for teacher education, two goals which Openshaw and Ball (2008) maintain have often been in opposition. Out of these reform efforts and reports a number of key centralised structures have been developed that specify the direction, policy, implementation and evaluation of new curriculum and qualification frameworks. These new structures include a Ministry of Education (MOE) responsible for policy direction, and crown agencies for qualifications – the New Zealand Qualification Authority (NZQA), and review – the Education Review Office (ERO). The key responsibility of the ERO is to audit and review performance at all levels. In 2002, a Teachers Council was established (NZTC).

### **A.6.2 Key features**

The key aspects of the system are:

1. CURRICULUM: The New Zealand Curriculum Framework (NZCF) was published in 1993. A revised curriculum was published in November 2007, designed to provide a curriculum framework for Years 1-13 of the compulsory school system. This builds on *Te Whariki*, the NZ early childhood curriculum, and aligns with the competences identified as crucial for tertiary education. The New Zealand Curriculum defines the curricular content for compulsory education (6–16<sup>27</sup> years). Its overarching vision is of ‘young people who will be confident, connected, actively involved, lifelong learners’ (<http://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/The-New-Zealand-Curriculum>). It is framed by eight broad curriculum principles, eight values, five key competences, and eight learning areas. The key competences are: (i) thinking, (ii) using language, symbols, and texts, (iii) managing self, (iv) relating to others, and (v) participating and contributing. The curriculum is a broad framework which allows schools considerable flexibility in implementing and designing a school curriculum. However, they must encourage and model the values of the NZ curriculum and develop the key competences at all year levels. In Years 1-10, schools are required to provide teaching and learning in English, the arts, health and physical education, mathematics and statistics, science, the social sciences and technology. More specialisation is provided in years 11-13.
2. PEDAGOGY: Topics and assessment are presented as suggestions rather than prescriptions with flexibility allowed for contextual interpretation. The principles set out are that students learn best when teachers:
  - create a supportive learning environment
  - encourage reflective thought and action
  - enhance the relevance of new learning
  - facilitate shared learning
  - make connections to prior learning and experience
  - provide sufficient opportunities to learn
  - inquire into the teaching-learning relationship.([www:http://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/The-New-Zealand-Curriculum](http://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/The-New-Zealand-Curriculum))
3. ASSESSMENT: In responding to the new curriculum, schools have much more flexibility than previously and are encouraged to design school-based curricula

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<sup>27</sup> 6 is the legal age at which students are required to attend, but virtually all students begin at 5.

by selecting assessment objectives (AOs) that respond to the interests and needs of their students. As such, school-based curriculum also involves schools developing their own AOs that are coherent with the principles/values of the NZC, but these may be different to the NZC AOs themselves. Since 2002, the National Certificate of Educational Achievement has gradually replaced earlier examinations (School Certificate) for students at upper secondary level. Students from age 15–16 can build up credits towards the award of an NCEA. In each school curriculum subject there is both external assessment and (externally moderated) internal assessment, using achievement standards. The National Qualifications Framework has introduced unit standards as a mode of assessment into the school curriculum in the compulsory Year 11 and the post-compulsory Years 12 and 13 and has adopted a standards-based assessment for the whole gamut of academic school subject and envisages a ‘seamless education system’ in which barriers no longer exist between schools and post-school education and training. A recent initiative ‘Schools Plus’ aims to keep young people in education or training until 18.

4. MONITORING: The NZTC and ERO are responsible for the monitoring and auditing of teachers’ performance. The National Education Monitoring Project (NEMP) is an annual assessment of a 3% sample of students in Year 4 (aged 8–9) and Year 8 (age 12–13), aimed at building up a picture over time of achievement in schools, in order to inform planning and policy.

### **A.6.3 Structures and governance**

Teacher education provision has greatly diversified and changed since the 1990’s. Before the reforms teacher education was largely conducted in a small number of specialised Colleges of Education. There are now 31 different providers and 156 different programmes of teacher education (Cameron & Baker, 2004). Teacher education qualifications fall into four broad categories:

- Three-year Diplomas of Teaching (early childhood only)
- Three-year Bachelor of Education (primary and ECE)
- Four-year conjoint degrees
- One-year Graduate Diplomas of Teaching (primary, secondary and early childhood).

Primary teacher education is predominantly a three-year undergraduate degree and the secondary teacher education usually takes the form of a one-year postgraduate diploma. However, the diversity of providers remains an issue given that they include nine private training establishments, seven polytechnics, six universities, three *wānanga* and one college of education. New Zealand also provides a variety of sites and modes of study, including multi-site delivery through main and satellite campuses; face-to-face, distance-based and web-based learning; flexible, part-time courses; and early childhood education also offers centre-based programmes. The distance, web-based and flexible delivery models make the qualifications available to rural communities and students who are unable to attend a course at a main centre. Web-based courses are increasingly used to supplement campus-based courses. The changed funding structures have led to much competition for students, variety in provision and competition for school placements, leading to much critique, tensions and pressure on schools as placement sites.

The NZTC has specified seven Graduating Teacher Standards (GTS) around: (i) Professional Knowledge, (ii) Professional Practice, (iii) Professional Relationships and (iv) Professional Leadership. These graduating standards report what a graduating teacher will know, understand, be able to do and the dispositions developed for full professional leadership and engagement. They apply to all graduates whether they will be teaching in a school or early childhood centre, including all Maori medium settings (<http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/education/gts/index.stm>).

Each graduating institution must ensure that a graduating teacher meets these GTS requirements by providing a profile of each graduate. Initial teacher education programmes are accredited at least every five years by a combination of structures including the NZTC, the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA), the Colleges of Education Accrediting Committee (CEAC), the Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics Quality (ITPQ) and the Committee on University Academic Programmes (CUAP). Institutions must provide adequate documentation of external moderation and alignment of programme goals, pedagogy and assessment with NZTC GTS. After graduation teachers are afforded provisional teacher registration.

Provisionally registered teachers must undergo a two-year induction period and they can apply for full teacher registration upon satisfactory completion. They must be employed in an approved site and the school site must provide documentation of a structured mentoring and induction process including observation and developmental feedback. The school is given a grant and the mentor teacher is allowed time-tabled periods for mentoring work as well as receiving an honorarium of NZ\$2000. In addition, the beginning teacher has a reduced workload and cannot work for more than 15 hours per week and five hours of non-contact time (reduction is 0.2 in year one and 0.1 in year two). In 2005, a Special Class Teacher (SCT) pilot project was set up to support beginning teachers week. The school is now responsible for the documentation and assessment of the teacher to achieve full professional registration. They must demonstrate that the teacher meets the NZTC Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions. These Dimensions are loosely based on the Graduating Teacher Standards above. Beginning teachers are expected to meet these standards in the context of a systematic induction programme (Cameron & Baker, 2004).

#### **A.6.3.1 Early years/pre-school qualifications**

One of the objectives of the NZ government's Strategic Plan for Early Childhood Education (ECE) 2002–12 is to increase the numbers of qualified and registered ECE teachers. The target date for teacher-led early childhood education and care centres and kindergartens to employ only qualified, registered teachers, or to have staff studying towards a recognised qualification, is 2012. The minimum qualification will be a Diploma of Teaching (ECE) or an equivalent Level 7 qualification which is accredited and recognised by the NZTC for registration (TeachNz, 2008). Early years qualifications are offered by various universities, colleges of education and polytechnics, and include three-year diploma and bachelor degrees and one-year graduate diplomas of teaching. Some courses are also available through distance learning, and there is a procedure for recognition of prior learning (RPL) for people already working in the area. The government has made a range of grants and scholarships available to encourage people to achieve recognised qualifications in ECE.

## **Appendix A 7: Singapore – Country Profile**

### **A.7.1 Socio-political and cultural context**

Singapore has a population of just over four million, including three major ethnic groups: Chinese (77%), Malay (14%) and Indian (8%), living in a total land area of just 680 square kilometres. For historical reasons, although Malay is the official language, English is the language of administration and commerce, and is the common language among all the different ethnic groups. English is taught alongside the other mother tongues (Malay, Chinese, Tamil) in primary school, and is the language of instruction for most subjects. Singapore has a highly-developed economy, and investment in education is seen as a priority by both government and people. Since Singapore gained its independence from Britain in 1959, the government has been concerned to create a unified system of education with shared national values and a shared national identity across all the different ethnic groups. By the late 1980s, a unified school system and a unified teaching force had been created. There are now about 28,000 teachers in Singapore, and Singaporean students have scored highly in international comparisons (e.g. IEA studies TIMSS, TIMSS-R and the OECD PISA studies).

Education policy in Singapore is directed by the Ministry of Education (MOE), which has outlined the mission of the education service as moulding the future of the nation ‘by moulding the people who will determine the future of the nation’. Education in Singapore in the past has been criticised for being too rigid, too specialised and too dependent on rote learning, but recent reforms have set out to address this. Singapore’s current prosperity depends to a large extent on its highly-skilled workforce. The Ministry of Education’s 1997 ‘Thinking Schools Learning Nation’ (TSLN) framework stressed four major areas:

- Critical and creative thinking
- Use of information technology
- Citizenship education
- Interdisciplinary project work.

The TSLN initiative embodies the vision of school as a place where the talents and abilities of future ‘knowledge workers’ can be developed. At the same time, there is a desire to create a cohesive and harmonious society. To express these objectives, the MOE has developed a set of *Desired Outcomes* for each level of education. These reflect a mixture of Confucian and modern values, but with a strong emphasis on moral education. Education must help children realise their potential as individuals and also inculcate a sense of responsibility towards others, to society, and to their country:

*Education does two things: it develops the individual and educates the citizen. An educated person is one responsible to himself, his family, and his friends. An educated person is also someone who is responsible to his community and country*

**MOE, 2007**

### **A.7.2 Key features**

Key features of the Singapore education system are:

1. **CURRICULUM:** A national curriculum sets down the subjects to be taken at primary level, though there is some flexibility at certain levels. Primary schooling is divided into Foundation stage (Primary 1 to 4) and Orientation stage (Primary 5 and 6). Subjects are divided into Life Skills and Knowledge Skills. Following the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), pupils take between six and ten O-level courses, with English, Mother Tongue Language (MTL), mathematics, a science subject and a humanities subject being compulsory. ‘Co-curricular’ activities are also compulsory, at least one chosen from sport and games, uniformed groups, performing arts groups, clubs and societies, or a community-based activity.
2. **PEDAGOGY:** Education in Singapore has the dual objective of forming the individual and advancing the nation. There is a concern with developing students as active learners, with problem solving, critical thinking skills, and collaboration and communication skills. At the same time, pupils are encouraged to develop a sense of civic responsibility, and to learn through involvement in group and community-based projects. Several initiatives have encouraged teachers to re-examine their practice and to use innovative

pedagogical strategies to model a spirit of innovation and enterprise in schools. Learner-centred pedagogies are actively promoted to teachers.

3. **ASSESSMENT:** There are national assessments for students at key intervals. There is a highly structured streaming system, beginning as early as age nine, which is intended to ensure that individual abilities are catered for. Students are streamed after primary foundation stage (age nine or ten), although from 2008 streaming will be replaced by subject-based banding and there is now more flexibility for movement across streams. Top-scoring students are offered places on the Gifted Education Programme (GEP). The national Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) is held at the end of Primary 6 (age 12). Results determine the placement of pupils in different secondary education courses. Special and Express courses lead to the GCE O-level after four years, Normal (Academic) or Normal (Technical) lead to the GCE N-level, with an option for those who do well to proceed to GCE O-level after a fifth year. Following this, a two-year (in Junior College) or three-year (in a centralised institute) course leads to the GCE A-level examination and a School Graduation Certificate or a vocational qualification. From 2006, the MOE is taking greater responsibility for developing examination syllabi, formats, standards and grades. Previously, these were set by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate. Students' success in examinations is seen as a measure of a school's success.
4. **MONITORING:** Schools conduct self-appraisal annually and are subject to external validation every few years. In 2005, a competency-based performance management system for teachers was introduced by the MOE, the Enhanced Performance Management System (EPMS). The EPMS spells out the knowledge, skills and professional characteristics required for each of three categories: Teachers, Leaders (heads of departments, schools, etc.) and Senior Specialists (in areas such as pastoral care, educational psychology, curriculum development, etc.). An annual appraisal of performance and potential is carried out by a supervisor (e.g. a vice-principal or subject head) but the system also encourages regular contact between teachers and their supervisors to review work and receive feedback. Supervisors are expected to provide coaching, encouragement



and support for their teachers, as well as appraising their performance. There are pay bonuses for good work.

### **A.7.3 Structures and governance**

Teacher education in Singapore is centralised. All teacher education for primary and post-primary schools takes place at the National Institute of Education (NIE), which is part of Nanyang Technological University. The NIE also offers higher degrees in education at master's and Ph.D. level, as well as providing professional development for existing teachers. It is also a centre for research in education, hosting the Centre for Research in Pedagogy and Practice, and the Learning Sciences Laboratory.

#### **A.7.3.1 Recruitment**

Entry onto teacher education programmes is highly competitive, with entrants to the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) being selected from the top third of graduates and those entering the *ab-initio* degree selected from high-performing A-Level students. Recruitment is now a year-round process, and selected applicants may be placed in schools while waiting to start their course of study. Candidates for both the PGDE and the bachelor's degree in education must sit a pre-selection test unless they meet certain exemption criteria, and then succeed in an interview. Successful candidates are employed by the Ministry of Education, which pays them a salary while they train. They must enter into a bond to teach for a certain number of years (four years for Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Science, three years for PGDE) after completing training or they may be required to repay pro-rata the amount spent by the government on their salary and tuition fees. On graduation, they are allocated to a school according to the need of the school for someone with their particular qualification.

#### **A.7.3.2 Teacher education**

In tandem with the reforms at primary level in Singapore in recent years, there have been major reforms in teacher education. The new learning demands posed by globalisation and technological advances require a move away from the traditional model of teacher 'training' to one of teacher 'education' and of teacher learning (Deng & Gopinathan, 2008).

The NIE was upgraded to university status in 1991 and was for the first time able to offer a concurrent initial teacher education programme at degree level. For some years students on this course were prepared for teaching at both primary and secondary level, but this led to an overloaded curriculum both at theoretical and practical level. Separate primary and secondary programmes were introduced in 1998. Following a further wave of education reforms, new degree programmes – the Bachelor of Arts (Education) and Bachelor of Science (Education) – were introduced in July 2001. Students now took one academic subject to degree level, plus four curriculum studies and four curriculum content subjects (mathematics, English, science, social science). The scheduling of the practicum was also changed, with the methods and practicum courses now being spread throughout the four years. The aim of the reformed Bachelor of Education (Ed.) and the Bachelor of Science (Ed.) Primary is to produce a professionally prepared teacher for the primary school, whereas formerly programmes were content-driven (Goh Kim Chuan & S. Gopinathan, 2001).

There are also two versions of the Diploma in Education programme available at NIE: the General and the Specialisation tracks. The General track prepares student teachers to become generalist primary school teachers while the Specialisation track provides for specialisation in the teaching of the mother tongue languages and physical education at the primary or secondary school level, and art, music or home economics at the secondary level. Candidates who are interested in special needs education can take a Diploma in Special Education. NIE diplomas allow holders to begin teaching and to pursue further academic and professional growth later in their teaching career.

Finally, NIE offers a postgraduate teacher preparation programme leading to the award of the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE). This programme aims to prepare university graduates to become primary or secondary school teachers. It is a one-year programme except for those specialising in the two-year PGDE in physical education.

### **A.7.3.3 Curriculum for teacher education**

The Foundation Programmes Office (FPO) of the NIE has as its mission statement: *Developing Education Professionals: Leaders in the Service of Learners*. To ensure that its programmes meet the needs and demands of schools, the FPO conducts regular reviews of its programmes with key stakeholders. These include the Ministry of

Education (MOE), Singapore schools, Academic Groups of NIE and teachers, including student teachers (NIE, 2007). There is also recognition of the expert knowledge possessed by qualified and experienced teachers and principals, and some of these have been recruited to co-teach on ITE courses and to assist with tutorials and supervision.

According to the *Desired Outcomes of Initial Teacher Training* (Deng & Gopinathan, 2001), pre-service teachers are expected to:

- Have skills for managing pupil welfare
- Be able to encourage their pupils to do their best
- Have sound pedagogical skills
- Be able to use of various forms of assessments
- Be able to confidently apply classroom management strategies
- Be able to use information technology effectively
- Be able to apply research findings in teaching and learning
- Have good communication skills
- Be able to manage time and stress.

A framework of Values, Skills and Knowledge has been developed to underpin curriculum development in teacher education.

Graduates take a one-year Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) for either primary or secondary schools. The course includes:

1. Education Studies (concepts and principles of education)
2. Curriculum Studies (methods and techniques of teaching of assigned subjects)
3. Subject Knowledge (subject content for Primary School teaching)
4. Practicum
5. Language enrichment and Academic Discourse Skills.

The two-year Diploma in Education for students with a qualification from a polytechnic or who have the required A-levels has similar contents, and prepares them for primary teaching only.

The four-year B.A. (Ed.) or B.Sc. (Ed.) has seven areas of study:

1. Academic Subjects (30/36 Academic Units = AUs)
2. Educational Studies (15 AUs)
3. Curriculum Studies (36 AUs)
4. Curriculum Content (14 AUs)
5. Essential Modules (12 AUs)
6. Practicum (16 AUs)
7. General Electives (6 AUs).

Students take one academic subject to degree level. They can teach in either primary or secondary schools, depending on the modules they study. There are also specialised courses for teachers of art and music, physical education, and mother-tongue language.

In recent years, particular attention has been paid to ensuring that beginning teachers have the necessary IT skills and the pedagogical techniques to use them in the classroom. In addition, all ITE courses also include participation in a community outreach programme, the Group Endeavours in Service Learning (GESL) project. According to the NIE (<http://www.nie.edu.sg/gesl/introd.htm>):

*GESL is an experiential learning experience for trainees to acquire and develop skills in project management, self- and team-development, and community service. This will provide them with the background and experience for trainees to eventually take on leadership roles in their school's community involvement and service-learning projects (CIP) and academic work (NIE, 2007)*

#### **A.7.3.4 Practicum**

Students must pass the practicum in order to receive teacher certification at the end of the programme. In the revised degree programme for primary teaching, students spend 16 weeks in total on placement in schools, eight weeks in the third year and eight weeks in the final year. The practicum is assessed during the final year. In 1999 a 'school-partnership' model of teaching supervision was introduced, and teachers and principals are also involved in the assessment of a student's practical skills. The MOE website states that:

*During Practicum, student teachers are guided and assisted by their co-operating teachers and NIE supervisors through systematic observations, assistance and advice. They will have opportunities to become involved with and actively participate in all aspects of the school's activities. Through these*

*experiences, they will learn to link theory and practice, and to acquire the understanding and skills necessary for teaching effectively in a range of classroom situations.*

**MOE, 2008**

### **A.7.3.5 Mentoring**

A structured mentoring programme for beginning teachers was introduced in 2006. Beginning teachers have a reduced teaching load of 80% in their first year, and the mentor also has a reduced teaching load.

Teaching in Singapore is seen above all as a collaborative profession.

*[Teachers] learn from others in the profession- through observation, mutual feedback and sharing of lesson plans and teaching techniques. And through collaboration, teachers push the envelope, create new learning curves for each other and raise their expertise as a group.* (Speech by the Minister for Education, Mr. Tharman Shanmugaratnam, at NIE teachers' investiture ceremony, January 2006)

### **A.7.3.6 Early years/pre-school qualifications**

Another recent development is the accreditation of courses for pre-school or early years professionals. In Singapore, pre-schools are run mainly either as private businesses, by NGOs, or by the People's Action Party Community Foundation, which charges low fees and caters for the general population. An attempt to incorporate one year of pre-school into the school system was abandoned because of the cost of extending it to all children (UNESCO, 2004). The MOE oversees pre-schools, while childcare centres come under the auspices of the Ministry of Community Development and Sports (MCDS). In 2001, the two ministries set up a joint Pre-school Qualification Accreditation Committee (PQAC) to oversee the standards and quality of pre-school teacher training for both kindergarten and childcare sectors in Singapore. By January 2008, all pre-school teachers were trained to at least the Certificate in Pre-school Teaching (CPT) level and one in four teachers to the Diploma in Pre-school Education – Teaching (DPE-T) level. This applies even if they already have a teaching qualification from the NIE. Pre-school principals are required to have a DPE-T and a Diploma in Pre-school Education – Leadership (DPE-L) along with at least two years of relevant experience in the pre-school sector. These courses are provided by a number of colleges and institutes, which must apply for accreditation of their course to the PQAC.

The NIE also plans to introduce a Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Science in Early Childhood Education in the near future.

#### **A.7.3.7 Future developments**

Changes in the teaching environment, including school-based curriculum and pedagogic development, more ICT in schools, and an increasingly diverse mix of cultures and nationalities in the schools make new demands on teachers' skills and knowledge. From 2008, there will be a pathway available to teachers with a diploma qualification to upgrade through a Bachelor of Education programme.

## **Appendix A 8: USA – Country Profile**

### **A.8.1 Socio-cultural and cultural context**

Teacher education in the US has been characterised by the term ‘national non-system’ (Angus, 2001, quoted in Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005, p. 597) and can be described as a highly complex system that is varied, decentralised and under local control. Although federal policy makers have focused on teacher education as a way of improving educational student outcomes, each of the 50 states has legal control over its own education system for all aspects of K-12<sup>28</sup> education. In addition states ultimately control teacher certification, licensing and teacher accreditation. State constitutions require state legislators to uphold a school system that provides free, locally-run education for all. Each state has a Standards Education Board or Commission made up of a wide representative group of partners who determine the standards for professional practice in the state. Furthermore, education provision for K-12 education is devolved to local education districts who oversee the provision and financing of education. This local decentralised tradition and history has strongly resisted efforts to create a national system.

A number of highly influential reports in the mid 1980s proved to be the catalyst for a public debate on educational standards and a wave of standards-based reform efforts. These reports pushed towards greater collaboration between states to create standards for schools, teachers and teacher education (e.g. *A Nation at Risk*, 1983, Carnegie’s *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*, 1986, and the Holmes Group Report *Tomorrow’s Teachers*, 1987). All reports argued that America’s success in the market was being substantially eroded and called for sweeping changes in American educational policy. Essentially, these reports argued for an increased focus on academic rigour and content for all educational levels but particularly for a more demanding teacher education, demands that still have currency twenty years later. In response to these reports, a *National Board of Professional Teaching Standards* (NBPTS) was set up in 1987, whose mission was to set out the professional standards accomplished teachers should meet. In the same year a similar body Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), led by Linda Darling-

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<sup>28</sup> K-12 = Kindergarten to 12<sup>th</sup> Grade

Hammond was set up to define what knowledge, skills and dispositions beginning teachers should have. INTASC standards are now used by over 30 states as a basis for their state standards requirements for beginning teachers (Boatright, 2002). In addition, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) set out to develop a new accreditation framework for teacher education programmes, pressing for more standardisation, higher standards, accountability and transparency.

Thus, in the space of a few years these three national bodies, NCATE, NBPTS and INTASC, became major players in shaping the debate, direction and content of teacher education. They became key influences in shaping state boards of education and ultimately school district policies. Professional standards boards represent a broad range of interested parties including teacher education institutions, research foundations that support teacher standards such as the Carnegie Foundation, State Boards of Education, local districts and federal agencies.

Two federal bills, Title 11 of the Higher Education Act 1998 (Public Law 105–244) and the contentious No Child Left Behind, 2002 (NCLB) have pushed standards for accountability further. Title 11 has ‘federalised’ teacher testing since it requires all states to test and publish the results of the percentage of teacher candidates that pass pushing for accountability in teacher education (Wilson et al. 2001). Most states now have a basic skills test for teachers to ensure that teachers have at least a specified minimum competency in key areas. The NCLB goes further in also requiring states to adopt standards that address the achievement of all children under the dictum ‘all children can learn’. In mandating annual testing in core subject areas and linking federal funding directly to student outcomes, it has challenged states to focus on testing student outcomes and on accountability for the education of all children. In addition, NCLB requires all teachers to be ‘highly qualified’, which is defined as having a bachelor’s degree, full state certification or licensure and to demonstrate competency in the subject matter they teach (Walsh, US Department of Education, 2004).

### **A.8.2 Key features**

Key features of the US education system are:



1. **CURRICULUM:** There is no national curriculum mandated in the US. Each State department is responsible for the formulation of curricula, textbooks, etc. Most states have common guidelines for a core curriculum which generally includes the language arts (English/literacy), mathematics, social studies (which can include history, geography, literature, multiculturalism, ethics and values), science, health, music, art and physical education.
2. **STRUCTURE:** Compulsory education occurs from age five to 16 years in the majority of states. In nine states the minimum leaving age is 17, and 18 in 11 states. Most states offer some publicly funded pre-compulsory kindergarten for five- to six-year-olds or pre-kindergarten for four- or five-year-olds. Forty states provide some form of funded kindergarten for at least some of their three-year-olds. Education is broken down into K-12 education (pre-kindergarten: age 3-6; elementary education Grades 1-8: age 6-14 years; and high school Grades 9-12). A High School diploma is usually awarded if students complete high school, which is up to Grade 12.
3. **ASSESSMENT:** Many states operate state assessment programmes or participate in large-scale national assessments, such as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in reading, writing, science and maths. Since the start of 2002-2003 schools have been expected to administer tests in reading and mathematics in three grade spans – Grades 3-5, Grades 6-9, and Grades 10-12. In addition, NCLB is introducing statutory annual student testing of students in Grades 3–8 in reading, language arts and mathematics. Assessment during senior High School education include SATs, American College Testing (ACT) and Advanced Placement (AP). All assess suitability for admission to university/college.

### **A.8.3 Structures and governance**

A solid tradition and history of local control has given local school districts power over the funding, hiring, promotion and tenure policies of teachers. Only recently has local legislation yielded to the influence of state regulation and national professional standards reform efforts (Boatright, 2002). However, each state has retained legal control over teacher licensure and at this stage most State Boards of Education

incorporate professional standards by either INTASC or NBPTS in determining state requirements for licensure. Both of these boards have promoted performance-based assessment methods (e.g. portfolios) that assess what teachers know and are able to do rather than delineating courses that teachers should take.

The NBPTS mission today is to develop rigorous standards for what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do, to develop and operate a national voluntary system to assess and certify teachers who meet these standards, and to advance related education reforms for the purpose of improving student learning in American schools. NBPTS standards frame an image of a professional teacher as a knowledgeable, reflective practitioner and lifelong learner. The standards are organised around the following five principles:

1. Teachers are committed to students and their learning.
2. Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students.
3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning.
4. Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.
5. Teachers are members of learning communities. ([www.nbpts.org](http://www.nbpts.org))

INTASC has articulated ten standards that encompass the core knowledge of teaching and learning and identified the key knowledge, dispositions and performances for beginning teachers. These are broadly based on the NBPTS five principles. They are as follows:

1. The teacher understands the central concepts, tools of inquiry, and structures of the discipline(s) he or she teaches and can create learning experiences that make these aspects of subject matter meaningful for students.
2. The teacher understands how children and youth learn and develop, and can provide learning opportunities that support their intellectual, social and personal development

3. The teacher understands how students differ in their approaches to learning and creates instructional opportunities that are adapted to learners from diverse cultural backgrounds and with exceptionalities
4. The teacher understands and uses a variety of instructional strategies to encourage students' development of critical thinking, problem solving, and performance skills.
5. The teacher uses an understanding of individual and group motivation and behaviour to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation.
6. The teacher uses knowledge of effective verbal, nonverbal, and media communication techniques to foster active inquiry, collaboration, and supportive interaction in the classroom.
7. The teacher plans and manages instruction based upon knowledge of subject matter, students, the community, and curriculum goals.
8. The teacher understands and uses formal and informal assessment strategies to evaluate and ensure the continuous intellectual, social and physical development of the learner.
9. The teacher is a reflective practitioner who continually evaluates the effects of her/his choices and actions on others (students, parents, and other professionals in the learning community) and who actively seeks out opportunities to grow professionally.
10. The teacher communicates and interacts with parents/guardians, families, school colleagues, and the community to support students' learning and well-being.

Over thirty states have adopted INTASC standards into their teacher licensure reform efforts (Boatright, 2002). Two-thirds of teaching graduates are currently from NCATE accredited institutions and the remainder come from institutions that are state-accredited using broadly similar standards (NCATE, 2008).

#### **A.8.3.1 Requirements: Testing, assessment and licensing**

Teacher education is provided by a mixture of private institutions (60%), public institutions which receive public finance (37%) and for profit institutions (3%) (Walsh, US Department of Education, 2004). Public institutions produce almost 75% of all

teacher graduates (Darling-Hammond & Cobb, 1995). Most states require successful completion of an approved programme, either a Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Education which is usually a four-year programme. Supervised practice usually varies from 9–18 weeks. For the initial teaching certificate in secondary schools, the 2000 NASDTEC (National Association of State Directors of Teachers Education and Certification) *Manual on Preparation and Certification of Educational Personnel* reveals that three-quarters of states require course work in educating young people with learning disabilities, and two-thirds of states require coursework in computer education (Boatright, 2002). Fourteen states have professional boards that establish state licensing requirements. Forty-two states require some form of teacher test in general knowledge, reading and arithmetic. These tests are administered primarily by the Education Testing Services (ETS) who administer an off-the-shelf test (e.g. Praxis I and II) or the National Education System (NES) who will design a specific test to align with state standards. Because of different lists used within and across more than 25 credentialed areas there are more than 600 tests in use (Wilson & Youngs, 2005). State Boards of Education typically differ in their requirements for teaching licences.

Most states have a staged licensure process with 31 states requiring an initial licence for two to five years with a permanent license to follow when additional requirements are met (e.g. an advanced degree, or some states require assessments of practice/performance through portfolios or Praxis III examinations of the ETS). Although each state has its own requirements for teacher licensure, most state boards of education expect local districts to establish their own system that is compatible with the broader state standards. For example, an urban district that serves a large percentage of LEP (limited English proficiency) students may need to create policies that accommodate these students and simultaneously respond to the state standards of education. In this way, states protect the local control of districts and allow them to decide what is best for their teachers and students. Generally speaking, there are five ways to obtain a teaching licence (Boatright, 2002):

1. Traditional teacher preparation programme
2. Direct application to the state (for out-of-state applicants or ones with special endorsements)

3. Emergency licence (when there is a shortage of teachers, usually in urban and bilingual schools)
4. Alternative teacher certification programmes (these include short-term, highly intense teacher immersion experiences for people who typically have degrees outside of education and professional experience outside of teaching)
5. Granting of licence for individuals of high distinction or reputation.

In 2000, 45 states offered alternative certificate programmes such as Teach for America<sup>29</sup>. These are state-certified programmes that allow prospective teachers to teach earlier and make teaching more attractive to non-traditional candidates.

### **A.8.3.2 Accreditation of programmes**

All states require accreditation of programmes to meet state standards. Standards are unique to each state. NCATE currently accredits 632 colleges of education with nearly 100 more seeking NCATE accreditation (NCATE, 2008). In addition, the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), set up in 1997, is an accrediting body. Accreditation processes vary by context and usually include some or all of the following: paper reviews of curriculum, on-site reviews by teams of trained professionals, some performance – or competency – based processes, examination of programme outcomes, graduation, job placement and retention rates.

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<sup>29</sup> *Teach for America* is a programme which recruits recent college graduates of all majors and career interests to commit to teaching for 2 years in urban and rural public schools in high-poverty areas, and provides them with training and professional development.

## ***Appendix A 9: Poland – Country Profile***

### **A.9.1 Socio-political and cultural context**

As in many of the other countries in this report, education in Poland has undergone major changes in the past 20 years. Poland, however, has seen greater changes than most others. Prior to 1989, under the Communist regime, education was strictly controlled by the state. It was designed to inculcate a Communist ideology and was largely vocational in nature, designed to prepare workers for the large state-owned industries. State control was reflected in the centralised design of the curriculum and the production of textbooks, and head teachers and others in authority were appointed on the basis of political criteria. After the fall of the Communist regime, the country faced major challenges in the move to a democratic society. There has been an ongoing debate since then between a ‘neo-liberal’ approach, based on closer ideological and economic integration with Western Europe, and a ‘neo-conservative’ view based on nationalism and traditional religious values. This has been reflected in regular changes in political leadership (Lowe, 1997). Overall, however, education reform was a priority in the move towards a free-market economy. The priorities initially were to abolish the state monopoly on education, to reduce the number of people leaving school with only a basic vocational training, to reform curricula and textbooks and to modernise the system of initial teacher education.

The move to a market economy, foreign investment and the preparation for entry into the European Union (which took place in 2004) were major influences on change in the educational system. The narrow vocational education that prepared workers for jobs in huge state-owned industrial plants was no longer viable. National educational policy documents reflect these concerns. They express the need to educate citizens for lifelong learning, to develop greater flexibility and autonomy in learning and to ensure that areas such as ICT and foreign languages were included in the curriculum. Poland’s poor performance in the PISA evaluations also gave cause for concern. In 2000, Polish students scored well below average in reading, mathematics and science. However, this has improved considerably since the education reforms and Polish students are now close to the OECD average in mathematics and science and well above it in reading (OECD, 2006).

Until 1999, the education system comprised eight years of compulsory primary/lower secondary school followed by a three-year vocational school or a four-year secondary school. The 1999 Education Reform Act introduced a new structure, shortening the primary phase and introducing a new intermediate/lower secondary stage. Schooling is compulsory from age six to 18; the first year is a pre-school year, which has only recently been made compulsory. This is followed by six years of primary school, then three years of lower secondary school (gymnasium), before pupils move into either vocational or secondary post-gymnasium schools. Both academic and technical upper secondary schools offer a route into higher education (BUIWM: Jung-Miklaszewska, 2003). The reforms in education were implemented over a seven-year period from 1999, and brought with them a need for reform of teacher education in order to cope with the changing roles and expectations of teachers. At this time also, funding for schools was devolved from central government to local government.

### **A.9.2 Key features**

Key features of the Polish education system are:

1. **CURRICULUM:** Curriculum reform is ongoing. A core curriculum is set at national level, though there is some flexibility for teachers to follow one of a number of approved models or to develop an individual model subject to approval by the Minister of Education. Textbooks must also be approved. For the first three years of primary school, pupils aged seven to ten years are taught by a class teacher; thereafter teachers are subject specialists. Pupils at primary school take a range of subjects, including Polish language and literature, civics, history, geography, mathematics, modern languages, a range of science subjects, music, art, environmental studies, physical education and ICT. Foreign languages are also taught in primary school. English is now the dominant foreign language taught, replacing Russian. French and German are also popular. Pupils in the gymnasium (middle school) take a similarly broad range of subjects, including two foreign languages. Upper secondary and vocational education is more specialised.
2. **PEDAGOGY:** Teachers have a certain amount of autonomy in choosing how to implement the curriculum. They may use those methods ‘recognised in the contemporary pedagogy which he/she considers most appropriate’ (Eurybase Poland, 2006/2007). The National In-Service Teacher Training

Centre and the Regional Centres of Teaching Methodology organise in-service training courses appropriate to national and local needs. Since the reforms, there has been a move away from a didactic delivery of a fact-laden curriculum to one with more emphasis on helping pupils to become active learners, to work co-operatively in groups, to relate learning in school to real-life situations, to think creatively and to become self-motivated and self-directed lifelong learners.

3. **ASSESSMENT:** Assessment in the early years of primary school is school-based and conducted by the teacher. From 2002, an obligatory national assessment is taken by students in the sixth grade of primary school. This assesses skills defined in the core national standards: reading, writing, reasoning, use of information and practical application of knowledge. A second compulsory national assessment takes place at the end of the three-year gymnasium programme, and this determines pupils' admission to upper secondary schools. The third national assessment takes place at the end of second-level education. Students in the vocational schools sit a vocational examination at the end of their programme of study, related to the particular occupation for which they are being trained. The Maturity exam is taken at the end of academic secondary school and is needed for entry to higher education, including teacher education (Jung-Miklaszewska, 2003).
4. **MONITORING:** The inspection of teaching standards in schools comes directly under the national Ministry of National Education and Sport. The State Accreditation Commission was established in 2001, and is responsible for the improvement of teaching quality. The Ministry of Education sets out a legal framework for the quality and standards of educational establishments. Supervision and monitoring of standards in schools is carried out by the 16 regional educational authorities (*kuratoria*) who employ school inspectors. The results of national examinations are another aspect of monitoring; they are used not only to assess individual pupils' achievements but to measure the level and quality of education in schools.



### **A.9.3 Structures and governance**

#### **A.9.3.1 Recruitment**

In the past teaching in Poland was relatively low-status and poorly paid. The education reforms, the move to a graduate profession and the changes to the Teachers' Charter have all contributed to raising the status of teachers. Entry into teacher education colleges (and to other third-level institutes) requires the Maturity certificate from an upper secondary school. Applicants may also have to sit a competitive entrance examination.

#### **A.9.3.2 Structure of initial teacher education**

The concurrent model of teacher education prevails in Poland, although the consecutive model is available for all three levels of education: primary, lower and upper secondary. Until the 1970s, initial teacher education was low-level and of short duration, with primary and lower secondary teachers being trained in upper secondary schools or high schools. In 1990, three-year teacher education was introduced, replacing the older two-year post-secondary or six-year post-primary courses. Teacher colleges operating under local educational authorities award a Diploma of Completion of studies, while teacher training colleges operating within the academic structure or associated with a university award a Licentiate (*Licencjat*), equivalent to a bachelor's degree. From 1990 also, specialised colleges for the training of teachers of foreign languages and some other subjects including mathematics, history, physics and ICT were set up; their graduates receive a Diploma of Completion of their studies and a *Licencjat*. Teacher education also takes place in university settings. The five-year (Magister) university qualification for upper secondary teachers was in the past largely focused on subject matter rather than pedagogy. It is now required to have a significant pedagogical component as well as subject knowledge.

A 2004 Act restructured higher education in Poland in line with the Bologna process: a three-stage degree model of bachelor's, master's and doctorate. Since 2006, higher education has been supervised by a separate ministry, the Ministry of Science and Higher Education.

### **A.9.3.3 Curriculum for teacher education**

Syllabi and curricula for teacher education are determined by individual ITE institutions. However, the General Council for Higher Education sets down minimum curriculum requirements and number of contact hours, both for theory and for practical experience in schools for ITE courses in universities. These vary depending on whether it is a three- or a five-year course (European Agency, 2008). Teacher education colleges must follow framework syllabi issued by the Ministry of National Education and Sport which specify duration, compulsory subjects and length of practical training (180 hours).

In 2004, the Minister of National Education and Sport issued a decree on the competences and qualifications profile of teachers, and the regulation of postgraduate studies. Teachers in pre-primary, primary and lower secondary schools must have a bachelor's degree, specialising in two subjects. Teachers in upper secondary schools must have a master's degree, and have undertaken pedagogical studies. Information technology is now a compulsory subject for all student teachers, as is knowledge of at least one foreign language.

The key competences are broad in nature, and fall into three categories:

- Working with human beings – learners, colleagues and other partners in education
- Working with and in society
- Habit of lifelong learning for professional and personal development.

**Gorzalak, 2004**

This is in line with the change in school curriculum objectives, which have moved towards enabling learners to acquire competences such as searching, processing and using information, planning their own learning, problem solving, effective communication and co-operation with others (Lowe, 1997). There has been a move in the reformed curriculum from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred pedagogy, and this is reflected in teacher education. Increasingly, concepts such as fostering creativity and critical thinking have come to the forefront in educational discourse in Poland (Kijowska, 2003).

#### **A.9.3.4 Practicum**

Student teachers are by law not allowed to teach in their first and second year. Experience of actually teaching in a classroom is therefore limited to the third year. In the first and second years student teachers observe in schools, while in their third year they engage in teaching practice. Since 2004, students have had to have 180 hours of practical experience during their course. This includes observation and teaching practice.

#### **A.9.3.5 Teacher employment**

Teacher employment is governed by the Teachers' Charter, which was modified in 2000. This sets out the qualifications needed for teaching, the employment conditions of teachers and the paths to professional progression. The amendments made in 2000 improved the career structure for teachers, setting out four stages of progression:

- Student teacher: the first nine months of teaching, under the supervision of an experienced teacher
- Contract teacher: the next two years and nine months, again under the supervision of an experienced teacher
- Appointed teacher
- Chartered teacher.

Advancement is dependent on satisfactorily completing a programme of professional development and is linked to salary increases at each stage. A Chartered teacher with an outstanding record may be awarded the title of Honorary School Education Professor.

#### **A.9.3.6 Mentoring**

Trainee and Contract teachers are entitled to support by a *staz tutor*, an experienced teacher employed in the school at Appointed or Chartered teacher level. Teachers can also receive support in implementing an education and care programme from school-based teacher-specialists in education and teacher-psychologists (who are trained in the field of psychology and are not obliged to teach). Teacher-methodological advisers, either based in the school or in regional or local in-service centres, give support in implementing the curriculum.

### **A.9.3.7 Continuing professional development**

Reforms of ITE in the 1970s and 1980s which upgraded the qualifications of new teachers meant that an extensive programme of in-service training for existing teachers had to be put in place. The reforms in recent years have also led to a demand for the up-skilling of existing teachers. An extensive programme of in-service training for teachers continues to address these and other issues.

The CODN, the National In-Service Teacher Training Centre, an agency of the Ministry of National Education and Sport, is charged with supporting the development of teacher education in line with national educational policies and objectives. The CODN carries on a wide range of activities in the areas of pedagogical knowledge. It has departments devoted to foreign languages, civic and European education and Polish education in the former Soviet Union. CODN also supports and runs courses for Teacher Training Centre personnel, and for those involved in educational management and in giving in-service courses to teachers, as well as courses aimed directly at teachers. CODN's principal statutory objectives include:

- co-ordination of training schemes for specialists involved in the teacher training system and for other people responsible for the system's functioning
- identifying personnel needs and forecasts of the personnel situation in the educational system
- co-ordination of the national system of teacher education-related information;
- assessment of key national teacher education schemes
- development and promotion of teacher education standards
- support for and promotion of novel pedagogical methods
- organisation of co-operation and network structures in teacher education
- co-operation with other national agencies of the Ministry of National Education in educational personnel training
- planning of actions aimed at professional development and advancement of teachers
- education of teachers for work in Polish émigré communities

- co-operation with Polish and foreign institutions and organisations dealing with pre-service and in-service education of teachers

**CODN, 2008**

### **A.9.4 Early years/pre-school qualifications**

Poland has one of the lowest participation rates in Europe for attendance at pre-school, with less than 40% of children aged three to five attending pre-school, and these mainly in large urban areas. The OECD has identified this as an area of concern. The local authorities currently have responsibility for pre-school education for children aged three to five; there is, however, a very low level of provision in the less affluent provinces and in rural areas. Privately-run kindergartens also exist. All children have the right to a year of pre-school education in the year they turn six, and there is an almost universal take-up of this. This so-called Year 0 in primary schools is designed to help children with the transition to school. The government is considering extending pre-school education to children aged five. If this is school-based it will have implications for teacher education.

### **A.9.5 Future developments**

As in the other countries in this study, changes in the teaching environment continue to make new demands on teachers' skills and knowledge. Reforms in education are ongoing, with the aim of producing better educated people who can participate in a knowledge-based society. To achieve this, more qualified teachers are needed, and there is also a need to ensure more equally qualified teachers in the different regions, and between urban and rural areas (Gorzela, 2003).

Other reforms proposed by the Polish government include introducing a foreign language from the beginning of primary school, promoting pre-primary education, and incorporating new subjects to achieve a greater balance between the humanities and the sciences. Reforms in the primary curriculum are also planned, as are regulations to govern standards in teacher education.

## **Appendix B: Sample competences and professional standards**

## **Appendix B 1**

### **Northern Ireland Competences**

The Professional Competences<sup>30</sup>

#### 1. Professional Values and Practice

Teachers should demonstrate that they:

1. understand and uphold the core values and commitments enshrined in the Council's Code of Values and Professional Practice.

#### 2. Professional Knowledge and Understanding

Teachers will have developed:

2. a knowledge and understanding of contemporary debates about the nature and purposes of education and the social and policy contexts in which the aims of education are defined and implemented.
3. (i) a knowledge and understanding of the learning area/subject(s) they teach, including the centrality of strategies and initiatives to improve literacy, numeracy and thinking skills, keeping curricular, subject and pedagogical knowledge up-to-date through reflection, self-study and collaboration with colleagues; and  
(ii) in Irish medium and other bilingual contexts, sufficient linguistic and pedagogical knowledge to teach the curriculum.
4. a knowledge and understanding of how the learning area/subject(s) they teach contribute to the Northern Ireland Curriculum<sup>31</sup> and be aware of curriculum requirements in preceding and subsequent key stages.

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<sup>30</sup> SOURCE: *General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland (2006): Teaching: the Reflective Profession. Incorporating the Northern Ireland Teacher Competences.* Belfast: GTCNI. <http://www.gtcni.org.uk/>. NB: The document notes (p.13) that '... the Council, in its deliberations on the competences, has rejected any attempt to adopt a reductionist approach to teacher education. It is imperative that this publication be read in its entirety and that it is used within the context of the Council's core philosophy which seeks to celebrate the complexity of teaching and, as importantly, the reality that it is concerned with values and professional identity as much as knowledge and competences.' The Competences should thus be read in conjunction with the document as a whole.

<sup>31</sup> Including the Northern Ireland pre-school curricular guidance that applies in the nursery sector.

5. a knowledge and understanding of curriculum development processes, including planning, implementation and evaluation.
6. a knowledge and understanding of the factors that promote and hinder effective learning, and be aware of the need to provide for the holistic development of the child.
7. a knowledge and understanding of a range of strategies to promote and maintain positive behaviour, including an acknowledgement of pupil voice, to establish an effective learning environment.
8. a knowledge and understanding of the need to take account of the significant features of pupils' cultures, languages and faiths and to address the implications for learning arising from these.
9. a knowledge and understanding of their responsibilities under the Special Educational Needs Code of Practice and know the features of the most common special needs and appropriate strategies to address these.
10. a knowledge and understanding of strategies for communicating effectively with pupils, parents, colleagues and personnel from relevant child and school support agencies.
11. a knowledge and understanding of how to use technology effectively, both to aid pupil learning and to support their professional role, and how this competence embeds across all of the competences.
12. a knowledge and understanding of the interrelationship between schools and the communities they serve, and the potential for mutual development and well-being.
13. a knowledge and understanding of the statutory framework pertaining to education and schooling and their specific responsibilities emanating from it.

### 3. Professional Skills and Application

#### Planning and Leading

Teachers will:



14. set appropriate learning objectives/outcomes/intentions, taking account of what pupils know, understand and can do, and the demands of the Northern Ireland Curriculum<sup>32</sup> in terms of knowledge, skills acquisition and progression.
15. plan and evaluate lessons that enable all pupils, including those with special educational needs, to meet learning objectives/outcomes/intentions, showing high expectations and an awareness of potential areas of difficulty.
16. deploy, organise and guide the work of other adults to support pupils' learning, when appropriate.
17. plan for out-of-school learning, including school visits and field work, where appropriate.
18. manage their time and workload effectively and efficiently and maintain a work/life balance.

### Teaching and Learning

Teachers will:

19. create and maintain a safe, interactive and challenging learning environment, with appropriate clarity of purpose for activities.
20. use a range of teaching strategies and resources, including eLearning where appropriate, that enable learning to take place and which maintain pace within lessons and over time.
21. employ strategies that motivate and meet the needs of all pupils, including those with special and additional educational needs and for those not learning in their first language.
22. secure and promote a standard of behaviour that enables all pupils to learn, pre-empting and dealing with inappropriate behaviour in the context of school policies and what is known about best practice.
23. contribute to the life and development of the school, collaborating with teaching and support staff, parents and external agencies.

### Assessment

Teachers will:

24. focus on assessment for learning by monitoring pupils' progress, giving constructive feedback to help pupils reflect on and improve their learning.

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<sup>32</sup> Including the Northern Ireland pre-school curricular guidance that applies in the nursery sector.

25. select from a range of assessment strategies to evaluate pupils' learning, and use this information in their planning to help make their teaching more effective.

26. assess the levels of pupils' attainment against relevant benchmarking data and understand the relationship between pupil assessment and target setting.

27. liaise orally and in written reports in an effective manner with parents or carers on their child's progress and achievements.

## **Appendix B 2**

### **General Teaching Council Scotland: The Standard for Initial Teacher Education (GTC Scotland, December 2006)<sup>33</sup>**

According to the Standard for ITE, programmes of Initial Teacher Education need to promote three main aspects of professional development:

- Professional knowledge and understanding
- Professional skills and abilities
- Professional values and personal commitment.

The *Elements* of the Standard which specify what is expected of a student teacher at the end of Initial Teacher Education and also specify the design requirements for programmes of Initial Teacher Education. The documents also outline *Expected Features* (not included here) which are intended to clarify and illustrate aspects of student teacher performance which the programme is designed to achieve. These features will be used by universities in designing assessment strategies to ensure that the requirements for student teacher performance in Initial Teacher Education are met. GTCS also produces a set of *Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland*, which outline what is expected of an ITE programme before it can be accredited.

The professional **Standard for Full Registration** was developed from the Standard for ITE and is organised under the same three aspects of professional development. It describes the requirements which teachers must meet to gain full registration, having completed their ITE course and a period of induction.

### **The Standard for Initial Teacher Education (Dec. 2006): Elements of the Standard**

#### **1 Professional Knowledge and Understanding**

##### **1.1 Curriculum**

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<sup>33</sup> Source: General teaching Council Scotland:  
[http://www.gtcs.org.uk/About\\_GTCS/StandardsandRegula/standards\\_and\\_regulations\\_aboutgtcs.asp](http://www.gtcs.org.uk/About_GTCS/StandardsandRegula/standards_and_regulations_aboutgtcs.asp)

1.1.1 Acquire a knowledge and understanding of the relevant area(s) of pre-school, primary or secondary school curriculum.

1.1.2 Acquire the knowledge and understanding to fulfil their responsibilities in respect of cross-curricular themes including citizenship, creativity, enterprising attitudes, literacy and numeracy; personal, social and health education; and ICT, as appropriate to the sector and stage of education.

1.1.3 Acquire the knowledge and understanding to enable them to plan coherent and progressive teaching programmes, and justify what they teach.

1.1.4 Acquire an understanding of the nature of the curriculum and its development.

## **1.2 Education systems and professional responsibilities**

1.2.1 Acquire a broad and critical understanding of the principal features of the education system, educational policy and practice.

1.2.2 Acquire a good working knowledge of the sector in which they teach and their professional responsibilities within it.

1.3.1 Draw on relevant principles, perspectives and theories to inform professional values and practices.

1.3.2 Acquire an understanding of research and its contribution to education.

## **2 Professional Skills and Abilities**

### **2.1 Teaching and learning**

2.1.1 Plan coherent, progressive teaching programmes which match their pupils' needs and abilities, and justify what they teach.

2.1.2 Communicate effectively, using a variety of media, to stimulate pupils and achieve the objectives of lessons.

2.1.3 Employ a range of teaching strategies and justify their approach.

2.1.4 Set expectations and a pace of work which make appropriate demands on all pupils.

2.1.5 Work effectively in co-operation with other professionals, staff and parents in order to promote learning.

### **2.2 Classroom organisation and management**

2.2.1 Organise classes and lessons to ensure that all pupils are safe and productively employed when working individually, in groups or as a class.

2.2.2 Manage pupil behaviour fairly, sensitively and consistently by the use of appropriate rewards and sanctions and know when it is necessary to seek advice.

### **2.3 Pupil assessment**

2.3.1 Understand and apply the principles of assessment, recording and reporting.

2.3.2 Use the results of assessment to evaluate and improve teaching and to improve standards of attainment.

### **2.4 Professional reflection and communication**

2.4.1 Access and evaluate professionally relevant literature.

2.4.2 Construct and sustain reasoned and coherent arguments about educational matters and professional practices.

2.4.3 Reflect on and act to improve the effectiveness of their own practice and contribute to the processes of curriculum development and school development planning.

## **3 Professional Values and Personal Commitment**

3.1 Value and demonstrate a commitment to social justice, inclusion and protecting and caring for children.

3.2 Value themselves as growing professionals by taking responsibility for their professional learning and development.

3.3 Value, respect and show commitment to the communities in which they work.

## **Appendix B 3**

### **Graduating Teacher Standards: Aotearoa New Zealand<sup>34</sup>**

These standards recognise that the Treaty of Waitangi extends equal status and rights to Māori and Pākehā alike.

Graduates entering the profession will understand the critical role teachers play in enabling the educational achievement of all learners.

#### **Professional Knowledge**

##### **Standard One: Graduating Teachers know what to teach**

- a. have content knowledge appropriate to the learners and learning areas of their programme
- b. have pedagogical content knowledge appropriate to the learners and learning areas of their programme
- c. have knowledge of the relevant curriculum documents of Aotearoa New Zealand
- d. have content and pedagogical content knowledge for supporting English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners to succeed in the curriculum.

##### **Standard Two: Graduating Teachers know about learners and how they learn**

- a. have knowledge of a range of relevant theories and research about pedagogy, human development and learning
- b. have knowledge of a range of relevant theories, principles and purposes of assessment and evaluation
- c. know how to develop metacognitive strategies of diverse learners.
- d. know how to select curriculum content appropriate to the learners and the learning context.

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<sup>34</sup> Source: New Zealand Teachers Council: <http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/education/gts/gts-poster.pdf>

**Standard Three: Graduating Teachers understand how contextual factors influence teaching and learning**

- a. have an understanding of the complex influences that personal, social, and cultural factors may have on teachers and learners
- b. have knowledge of tikanga and te reo Māori to work effectively within the bicultural contexts of Aotearoa New Zealand
- c. have an understanding of education within the bicultural, multicultural, social, political, economic and historical contexts of Aotearoa New Zealand.

**Professional Practice****Standard Four: Graduating Teachers use professional knowledge to plan for a safe, high quality teaching and learning environment**

- a. draw upon content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge when planning, teaching and evaluating
- b. use and sequence a range of learning experiences to influence and promote learner achievement
- c. demonstrate high expectations of all learners, focus on learning and recognise and value diversity
- d. demonstrate proficiency in oral and written language (Māori and/or English), in numeracy and in ICT relevant to their professional role
- e. use te reo Māori me ngā tikanga-a-iwi appropriately in their practice
- f. demonstrate commitment to and strategies for promoting and nurturing the physical and emotional safety of learners.

**Standard Five: Graduating Teachers use evidence to promote learning**

- a. systematically and critically engage with evidence to reflect on and refine their practice
- b. gather, analyse and use assessment information to improve learning and inform planning
- c. know how to communicate assessment information appropriately to learners, their parents/caregivers and staff.

## **Professional Values & Relationships**

### **Standard Six: Graduating Teachers develop positive relationships with learners and the members of learning communities**

- a. recognise how differing values and beliefs may impact on learners and their learning
- b. have the knowledge and dispositions to work effectively with colleagues, parents/caregivers, families/whānau and communities
- c. build effective relationships with their learners
- d. promote a learning culture which engages diverse learners effectively
- e. demonstrate respect for te reo Māori me ngā tikanga-a-iwi in their practice.

### **Standard Seven: Graduating Teachers are committed members of the profession**

- a. uphold the New Zealand Teachers Council Code of Ethics/Ngā Tikanga Matatika
- b. have knowledge and understanding of the ethical, professional and legal responsibilities of teachers
- c. work co-operatively with those who share responsibility for the learning and wellbeing of learners
- d. are able to articulate and justify an emerging personal, professional philosophy of teaching and learning.



## **Appendix B 4**

### **Australia: Proposed national standards for accreditation of teacher education<sup>35</sup>**

#### **Proposed accreditation system:**

The accreditation system will be managed by an Accreditation Council, possibly titled the Australian Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (ACATE).

The role and responsibilities of the Accreditation Council will be to:

- Make recommendations about accreditation policy
- Establish and document accreditation procedures
- Establish accreditation arrangements with each of the teacher registration and accreditation authorities
- Make accreditation decisions
- Maintain a register of accredited programs
- Establish appropriate appeal procedures
- Report publicly on the outcomes of accreditation
- Publish and maintain a register of accredited programs
- Disseminate information and guidance on quality teacher education
- Provide advice about matters such as specific requirements relating to the accreditation of teacher education for specific stages of schooling and specialist areas
- Provide advice about approaches to recognising high quality through accreditation
  - Establish and maintain effective liaison with relevant bodies.

#### **Accreditation standards**

##### **PART 1: Graduate standards**

The purpose of graduate standards is to indicate the knowledge, skills and dispositions that should be developed through a teacher preparation program and observed in a

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<sup>35</sup> Source: Teaching Australia (June 2007) *A Proposal for a National System for the Accreditation of Pre-service Teacher Education*: Accessed at <http://www.teachingaustralia.edu.au/ta/go/home/publications/pid/301>

newly graduated teacher. Graduate standards specify what graduate teachers should know and be able to do upon completion of their pre-service education. While the standards are not intended as a checklist of competencies to be marked off, they will provide guidance on the expected outcomes of initial teacher preparation programs.

### **Organising categories**

The organising categories represent the critical elements of what is expected of a graduate teacher.

The categories of professional standards for graduate teachers are:

1. Professional knowledge
2. Professional practice
3. Professional commitment.

### **Capabilities**

Capabilities are the discrete elements of the knowledge, skills and dispositions expected of teacher education graduates. They are both practical and aspirational in the sense that they encapsulate what graduate teachers should know and how they intend to practise. The capabilities for teaching graduates are:

1. Professional knowledge

Teaching graduates should ...

- a) Have a high level of literacy and numeracy
- b) Know the content of subjects they teach
- c) Know how students learn and how to teach them effectively
- d) Know their students.

2. Professional practice

Teaching graduates should ...

- a) Plan for effective learning
- b) Assess and report for effective learning
- c) Create and maintain productive learning environments.

3. Professional commitment

Teaching graduates should ...

- a) Develop a capacity for reflective practice
- b) Engage in professional development

- c) Become members of a professional community.

## **Descriptors**

Descriptors provide an elaboration of each capability in terms of the observable practices expected of all teachers when they graduate from programs of initial teacher preparation. When the graduate standards are applied to specific programs, a degree of differentiation will occur in the interpretation of these descriptors, especially for programs that focus on defined stages of schooling or specialisations (for example, early childhood, middle schooling and the like). Nevertheless, the descriptors below depict the knowledge, skills and dispositions of recently graduated teachers.

## **Standards for graduate teachers**

### **1. Professional knowledge:** Teaching graduates should ...

Have a high level of literacy and numeracy:

- appreciate the critical role of language and literacy skills, including multiliteracies, for participation in society
- demonstrate excellence in verbal and written communication
- understand key concepts in mathematics and the relationships between them
- are competent and confident in numerical computations

Know the content of subjects they teach:

- know the subject matter that they plan to teach
- be able to explain important principles and concepts relating to their subject
- demonstrate their knowledge through inquiry, critical analysis and synthesis of subject matter

Know how students learn and how to teach them effectively:

- know a range of strategies for literacy and numeracy acquisition, including the development of oral language, vocabulary, grammar, reading fluency, comprehension and the literacies of new technologies

- know how to use diagnostic tools to identify and assess the development of literacy and numeracy skills
- demonstrate a thorough understanding of the pedagogies relevant to their discipline
- know how to use pedagogical knowledge and appropriate resources (including information and communication technologies) to engage students in learning
- know how to encourage higher order thinking and critical inquiry
- understand potential barriers to student learning and know how to address them
- appreciate the importance of understanding Indigenous cultural norms and practices
- know how to communicate effectively with students about learning and learning goals
- know a range of teaching strategies to cater for different learning needs and know how to use assessment to support learning

#### Know their students:

- understand how the skills, interests and prior experiences of students influence learning
- possess pedagogical skills for classroom management
- demonstrate empathy and positive regard for students
- regard all students as capable of learning and demonstrate an understanding of and commitment to equity in their teaching practices
- know how to build productive relationships with students and their families
- understand child and adolescent development
- understand students' different approaches to learning
- acknowledge the status of Indigenous Australians as the original custodians and inhabitants of Australia and respect Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students' culture
- know strategies for teaching students with specific educational needs, such as: students with special educational needs, non-English speaking background students, and students with challenging behaviours

**2. Professional practice:** Teaching graduates should ...

Plan for effective learning:

- use their professional knowledge to identify clear, challenging and achievable learning goals for students as individuals and groups
- design and implement learning opportunities that promote higher order thinking and critical inquiry
- plan and implement coherent lesson sequences to engage students and support the achievement of learning outcomes
- use a range of appropriate resources (including information and communications technologies) to support student learning
- create engaging learning environments for different types of learners
- listen to and learn from the Indigenous community
- design and implement learning opportunities that are socially just and inclusive
- take into account the school, family and community contexts in which they work when designing learning programs
- take into account the skills, interests and prior experience of students when designing learning programs

Assess and report for effective learning:

- use a range of strategies to assess the achievement of learning outcomes
- understand the links between learning outcomes and assessment strategies
- give effective and timely oral and written feedback to students
- keep accurate and reliable records to monitor progress
- understand the principles and practices of reporting to parents and guardians
- use assessment results to reflect on past practice and to inform further planning of teaching and learning

Create and maintain productive learning environments:

- establish clear expectations of behaviour for a safe learning environment for all students
- communicate effectively with students about learning and learning goals
- use a range of strategies to develop rapport with students while maintaining an appropriate professional relationship with them
- model exemplary behaviour for co-operative learning and positive interactions with others
- establish a climate where learning is valued and students' ideas are respected
- use a range of strategies to establish an inclusive learning environment where all students are challenged to explore ideas and develop skills
- respect and seek to understand Indigenous cultural norms and practices
- work co-operatively with colleagues and other professionals who share responsibility for the learning and welfare of students
- understand the specific requirements for maintaining student safety in schools

### **3. Professional commitment: Teaching graduates should ...**

Develop a capacity for reflective practice:

- reflect on their strengths, preferences and needs as a learner and identify priorities for professional development
- reflect on and evaluate their professional knowledge and practice
- seek and use feedback from others to improve their professional practice
- engage in professional development:
- demonstrate a capacity for evidence-based professional practice
- engage in both individual and collegial forms of professional learning
- be committed to participating in communities of learning
- know how to learn and apply new knowledge to address new challenges or changing circumstances
- understand the structures and skills that underpin collegial practice

- explore professional concepts and issues through research, discussion and debate

Become members of a professional community:

- demonstrate a capacity to work collaboratively
- build productive professional relationships with colleagues
- practice and uphold the principle of teamwork in an educational context
- be prepared to enter the consultative, collaborative and critical relationships embedded in communities of practice
- understand the legal and ethical dimensions of teaching and the nature of a teacher's professional commitment to students

## **PART 2: Program standards**

Program standards provide a measure of the capacity of the institution to operate teacher preparation programs and to support student learning. They are based on assumptions about the inputs necessary for effective learning in teacher preparation programs, based on existing practice and informed by evidence.

### **Organising Categories**

Organising categories represent the critical areas of teacher preparation programs for effective teaching and learning. The five organising categories for teacher preparation programs are:

1. Student selection
2. Teaching program
3. Assessment processes
4. Professional experience
5. Quality assurance

### **Descriptors**

Descriptors identify the observable practices expected of teacher education institutions when delivering an effective teacher education program.

### **Standards for teacher preparation programs**

#### **1. Student selection**

The institution will apply clear selection criteria for applicants that:

- provide for equitable access
- promote diversity within the profession
- facilitates the selection of students who have the aptitude and disposition to undertake teacher preparation

#### **2. Teaching program**

The teaching program will:

- be delivered by appropriately qualified staff



- demonstrate best practice in research and tertiary-level teaching
- use multiple sources of data for continuous program improvement
- be delivered in adequate facilities with ample resources to support student learning
- have a budget adequate to support the delivery of quality learning experiences for students both on site and in schools
- deliver sufficient content knowledge, within the context of a focused liberal education, to enable graduates to meet the Graduate Standards
- deliver sufficient professional knowledge about schooling, schools, human development and pedagogy, to enable graduates to meet the Graduate Standards
- provide students with the diagnostic tools to identify and assess the development of literacy and numeracy skills
- develop the knowledge and skills needed to function as a capable and caring professional in an educational setting
- demonstrate best practice in integrating learning technologies with teaching and learning

### **3. Assessment processes**

The institution will have assessment procedures that:

- are rigorous, fair and transparent
- are regularly moderated, evaluated and improved
- assess student performance in multiple contexts and in different ways
- monitor the students' progress towards achievement of Graduate Standards
- ensure that students who do not perform satisfactorily in all units of study, including the professional experience component, do not pass the program

### **4. Professional experience**

The institution will offer professional experiences for students:

- of sufficient length, diversity and depth to enable graduates to meet the Graduate Standards

- that enable students to apply and reflect on their content, professional and pedagogical knowledge, skills and dispositions in a variety of settings
- that are aligned with clear and progressive stages for the development of the acquired knowledge, skills and dispositions of beginning teachers as defined in the Graduate standards
- where student performance is assessed against clear statements of purposes, roles and expectations
- based on an authentic collaborative partnership between the institution-based staff and members of the teaching profession working in schools
- that provide access to the expertise of knowledgeable and skilled teachers within schools
- that offer students access to mentors and other forms of professional support
- that are regularly evaluated and improved through collaborative processes

## **5. Quality assurance**

The institution will develop the quality of its teacher education programs through:

- maintaining its status as a legal, solvent educational institution
- adequate resourcing of all aspects of the program
- monitoring, evaluating and modifying curriculum, delivery and assessment on a regular basis
- being responsive to the legitimate concerns and requirements of the profession;
- supporting the professional development of program staff both on-site and in schools
- consulting with stakeholders such as employers and the profession on a regular basis
- transparent and equitable recruitment practices
- workload policies and practices that enable staff to engage in professional activities, including teaching, scholarship, assessment and advisory roles, and work in schools



## **Appendix B 5**

### **Foundations of measures for evaluating teachers<sup>36</sup>**

#### **FOUNDATIONS OF MEASURES FOR EVALUATING TEACHERS**

On what foundations should teachers be evaluated? If measures of *teacher quality* are to be used in making decisions that are critical to teachers' lives and careers, it is clear they must be based on valid criteria or defensible foundations. Wheeler (1994, pp. 3-4) provides a helpful classification of foundations or sources that have been used in the US for developing criteria for evaluating teachers, together with comments on their relative validity. Each provides a way of answering the question, 'how will we determine what teachers should know and be able to do?' Each provides a source for criteria to be used in determining the domains of performance and attributes to be covered by the standards:

***Government regulations and requirements.*** This category covers state and federal laws, codes, and program guidelines. Examples are complying with safety codes for the handling and storage of chemicals; implementing categorical program requirements such as involving of parents of Chapter 1 [Disadvantaged] students in their educational program; following the state curriculum frameworks; using district adopted textbooks; and administering tests in accordance with specified procedures.

***Professional standards.*** Specific examples of this category are (1) the professional standards for teaching mathematics developed by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics [See Case 1 in this report]; (2) the standards for teacher competence in the educational assessment of students developed by the American Federation of Teachers, the National Council on Measurement in Education, and the National Education Association; and (3) the standards of the National Board for Professional

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<sup>36</sup> SOURCE: Wheeler, P.H. (1994). *Foundations upon which to build a teacher evaluation system* (Memo 18). Kalamazoo, MI: Western Michigan University, The Evaluation Centre, Centre for Research on Educational Accountability and Teacher Evaluation. Cited as Appendix 1 in Ingvarson, L. & Rowe, K., (2007) *Conceptualising and Evaluating Teacher Quality: Substantive and methodological issues*, *The Economics of Teacher Quality* conference, Australian National University: 5 February 2007.

Teaching Standards. Such professional standards can be helpful in developing a local teacher evaluation system. However, they may be narrowly focussed, may reflect the interests of the association, and may or may not be relevant to the local context.

***Outcomes of teaching.*** Examples of outcomes are student assessment results, number and types of disciplinary referrals, implementation of skills learned in a training program, and amount of resources used. Such evaluation systems assume that promoting the attainment of those outcomes covered by the evaluation system is the primary function of the teacher. These systems can drive teaching behaviour rather than promote diverse teaching practices and curricula content for different teachers and students. They can also be constraining for teachers confronted with challenging situations and students with extensive behaviour problems, and it can be impossible to obtain valid and reliable assessment data for some students (e.g., disabled, non-English speaking, and highly mobile).

***Theories grounded in practice.*** Theories of teaching, of learning and cognition, of the cognitive psychology of teaching, and of the cognitive development of teachers are examples of foundations in this category. However, theories are attempts to provide explanations of phenomena and are not, by themselves, adequate as foundations for systems to evaluate teachers.

***What teachers are doing.*** Potential foundations in this category look at what teachers are doing and use the results of such efforts to build a teacher evaluation system. One type of study looks at effective and, in some cases, ineffective teachers, and identifies the practices and behaviours associated with these teachers (also called effective teaching research, or process-product studies). Another type of study looks at what teachers are doing (job analysis). A third is based on the consensus of practitioners concerning what they actually do as part of their teaching job. A fourth is based on what teachers at a particular school have been doing in the past and are expected to continue doing, that is, the norms of the school. All of these assume that what some teachers are doing is a good approach for others in the profession of teaching, a questionable assumption that can lead to an invalid system (Scriven, 1994).

***What others would like teachers to be doing.*** Examples of these include the use of

certain teaching styles (e.g. co-operative learning groups, whole language instruction), preferences of peers and supervisors, and desires of clients and stakeholders (e.g. students, parents, future employers of students, community members). A foundation based on the styles, preferences and desires of others is clearly invalid, whether the approaches work well for an individual teacher or not.

***What teachers should be doing.*** The duties and responsibilities of a teacher, as designated by the local school board, the superintendent and principal, and the state education agency, form the seventh type of foundation. Criteria and performance indicators derived from a foundation of teacher duties and responsibilities often overlap with the first type of foundation (governmental regulations and requirements). Teachers must be fully informed as to what their duties and responsibilities are. This can be done through well-written and comprehensive job-descriptions or an employee handbook. In some cases, teachers in some subject areas or specific individuals will have additional duties and responsibilities not common to all teachers; they must be made fully aware of these if they are to be evaluated on the basis of how well they perform these duties and responsibilities.

## Appendix C: Pupil numbers<sup>37</sup> in Irish primary and post-primary schools (1978/79 & 2005/06)

**Table C.1 Pupil numbers in post-primary schools, 1978/79**

Secondary Schools	196,606	68.5%
Vocational Schools	68,120	23.7%
Community Schools	14,204	4.9%
Comprehensive Schools	8,152	2.8%
<b>Total</b>	<b>287,082</b>	<b>99.9%</b>

**Table C.2 Pupil numbers in post-primary schools, 2005/2006**

Secondary Schools	183,766	55.3%
Vocational Schools	96,903	29.2%
Community and Comprehensive Schools	51,738	15.6%
<b>Total</b>	<b>332,407</b>	<b>100.1%</b>

**Table C.3 Number of full-time students in institutions aided by the DES, 2005/2006**

LEVEL	NO. OF STUDENTS
<b>First Level</b>	<b>457,889</b>
<b>Second Level</b>	<b>332,407</b>
Secondary	183,766
Community and Comprehensive	51,738
Vocational	96,903
<b>Third Level</b>	<b>136,719</b>
Institutes of Technology/ Technological Colleges	53,386
HEA Colleges (excl. RCSI)	80,801
Other aided (incl. teacher training)	2,532
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>927,015</b>

SOURCE: Department of Education and Science website: [www.education.ie](http://www.education.ie)

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<sup>37</sup> SOURCE: Department of Education and Science website: Statistical Reports.