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Marcel van der Klink
Editors

Becoming a Teacher Educator

Theory and Practice for Teacher Educators

Becoming a Teacher Educator

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Springer

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Foreword

'Becoming a Teacher Educator' is a book for beginning teacher educators written by experienced teacher educators, academics and practitioners, who share their experience and expertise with their beginning colleagues to support the induction of beginning teacher educators. The book provides insights, models and examples for teachers and academics who are in the process of becoming teachers of teachers and who want to understand the complex profession and the various tasks and roles of teacher educators.

Many of the authors of this book are active members of the Association of Teacher Education Europe (ATEE) and meet regularly at the annual conferences of the ATEE. It is, therefore, sound to say that the making of 'Becoming a Teacher Educator' is a joint effort of teacher educators who form a dynamic and inviting community of practice. We hope that this book inspires teacher educators to participate in professional communities like ATEE.

This book has an international scope that is not only reflected in the team of authors, but also in the editorial board of this book, which consists of prominent members of the ATEE, and we like to thank them for reviewing the draft articles for this book and for their advice: Dr. Paul Bartolo (Faculty of Education, Malta University), Prof. James McCall (University of Strathclyde, Scotland and former editor of the *European Journal of Teacher Education*), Dr. Mireia Montane (Director of the International Bureau for Scientific Cooperation of the Department of Education of the Government of Catalonia and a member of the Administrative Council of ATEE), Dr. Leah Shagrir (Levinsky College of Education, Israel) and Prof. Irēna Žogla (Faculty of Education and Psychology, University of Latvia and member of the Administrative Council of ATEE).

We would like to express our gratitude to the president of ATEE, Dr. Gianni Polliani (President of CESES, Centro Europa Scuola Educazione e Societá), the manager director of ATEE, Prof. Arno Libotton (Free University Brussels) and the members of Administrative Council of the ATEE for their enthusiasm and involvement and for sponsoring the book. We are also grateful for the support of the Department of Higher Education of CETAR, Vrije Universiteit, Amsterdam.

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Amsterdam — Anja Swennen
Heerlen — Marcel van der Klink
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Paul Bartolo is a Senior Lecturer in Educational Psychology in the Faculty of Education, University of Malta, where he coordinates the MEd in Responding to Student Diversity; he is also the co-coordinator of the Programme for Culturally Responsive Education. He has led a National Curriculum Focus Group for Inclusive Education in Malta and is the chair of the RDC on Inclusion and Special Educational Needs of ATEE. He serves on the Editorial Board of the *European Journal of Teacher Education*. He has publications on professional development of both psychologists and teachers and on inclusive education. He has recently coordinated a 3-year Comenius 2.1 Project by teacher educators from seven different European countries, which produced the international publication *Responding to Student Diversity: Teacher's Handbook* and accompanying *Tutor's Manual* (www.dtmp.org).

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Part I
Changing Contexts of Teacher Education

Chapter 1
Teacher Education in Europe; Main Characteristics and Developments

Marco Snoek and Irēna Žogla

Introduction

Teachers in Europe are educated in a wide variety of institutes and by a wide range of curriculum models. The main aim of teacher education is the same throughout Europe – the education of teachers – but the underlying ideas and the contexts differ, leading to significant differences between teacher education curricula (Eurydice, 2002). Nevertheless, the teacher education institutes in the various European countries face similar challenges, like how to support the development of teacher identity, how to bridge the gap between theory and practice, how to find the balance between subject studies and pedagogical studies, how to contribute to a higher status of teachers and how to prepare teachers for the needs of pupils in the 21st century (European Commission, 2007a). Both the academic discourse and the exchange of examples of good practice show that in most countries, the national debates focus on similar issues (see, e.g., OECD, 2005).

The curriculum designs of European countries differ, as they are based on different national contexts such as different education systems, political choices and underlying mental models, for example, with respect to the expected level of knowledge and skills of teachers. Reflection on these differences can stimulate discussions and help to identify alternatives, find new perspectives and raise awareness of national presuppositions.

It is impossible within the context of this chapter to make a thorough comparison of all systems of teacher education in Europe. Chapter 2 offers a more detailed description of teacher education in the United Kingdom, Israel and the Netherlands. In this chapter, we reflect on some of the issues that define teacher education, and we try to identify choices that are made in different countries and the differences and similarities in structures and approaches that are a result of these choices. To structure our reflections, we use a comparative framework focusing on:

- The system of teacher education
- The content of teacher education

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- The pedagogy of teacher education
- The role of stakeholders on the macro, meso and micro level

We end the chapter with a reflection on the role and position of teacher education and teacher educators in educational policies. We hope that these reflections will help teacher educators to become more sensitive to and aware of the underlying choices in teacher education in various European countries and will help to develop an open mind to alternative approaches.

Comparative Framework

A comparative framework is needed in order to compare curricula in teacher education. For the comparative framework, we make a distinction between the national system of teacher education (institutes, degrees and qualifications), the 'what' of teacher education – the content of the curriculum in terms of the selection and organisation of knowledge and skills – and the 'how' of teacher education – the pedagogy and teaching methods that are used and the way in which the curriculum is structured (Lundgren, 1983). All these elements can be influenced by powers on the macro, meso and micro level. From a macro perspective, attention is paid to the societal setting in which teacher education takes place. This perspective includes all governmental regulations regarding teacher education, like the number of institutes, the organisation of institutes, degrees, teacher qualifications. The meso perspective refers to the way in which teacher education institutes organise teacher education within their institute. The micro perspective refers to what takes place in the actual classroom and the interaction between teacher educator and student teacher.

As can be seen from the examples in Fig. 1.1, the national government can influence the system of teacher education, the 'what' of teacher education and the 'how' of teacher education. However, in some countries governments restrict themselves to the system and the 'what' of teacher education. They define the outcomes and it is up to the teacher education institutes and teacher educators to design the 'how', the way in which these outcomes can be achieved. Such outcome-based approaches give teacher education institutes and teacher educators freedom and responsibility to make their own decisions with respect to pedagogical approaches; there is no 'state pedagogy'. On the other hand, the increased freedom is often associated with more accountability: governments may use strict methods to evaluate whether the outcomes have been achieved, that is, whether student teachers have acquired the necessary competences. This leads to a dominance of assessment procedures that focus on measurable outcomes (Education Commission of the States, 1995).

Similar issues can be identified at the meso and micro level. The head of the institute or school board can make decisions on the 'what' level and on the 'how' level. These decisions define the professional autonomy of teacher educators on the micro level. The balance between autonomy and control of teacher educators differs

	Main actor	System	What	How	
				Pedagogy	Structure
Macro	National and local governments	For example, decisions on degree level (BA/MA)	For example, decisions on national teacher standards	For example, decisions on compulsory teaching practice	For example, decisions on the amount of teaching practice
Meso	Head or faculty board of university or teacher education institute	For example, division in departments responsible for parts of the curriculum	For example, decisions on criteria for examination	For example, decisions to use a problem-based curriculum approach throughout the curriculum	For example, the number of credits awarded for completing a specific course
Micro	Teacher educator		For example, emphasis on specific skills or competences	For example, design of specific problems, the interaction during the mentoring of teaching practice and the choice of methods	For example, the planning of lessons

Fig. 1.1 Comparative framework with examples

between countries. In the next three sections, we reflect on the system of teacher education, on the 'what' of teacher education and on the 'how' of teacher education.

The System of Teacher Education

Teacher education is part of a country's educational system. It has its own place within the institutional structures and has a strong relation with schools, as it educates their teachers. Therefore, teacher education reflects the characteristics of national education systems. In this section, we focus on the institutional structure of teacher education, on the national degrees and on the national required teaching licenses. Detailed information on teacher education systems in the various countries in Europe can be found in the database of Eurydice, an institutional network for gathering, monitoring, processing and circulating reliable and readily comparable information on education systems and policies throughout Europe. Eurydice maintains Eurybase – the information database on education systems in Europe – and carries out comparative research on education systems in Europe, including teacher education (Eurydice: www.eurydice.org).

Institutional Structure of Teacher Education

In 2007, the European Commission published a communication on the quality of teachers and teacher education. This document provides common European principles with respect to teacher competences and qualifications (European Commission, 2007b). It emphasises that teachers should be highly qualified: they should be graduates from a higher education institute or equivalent, and teacher education programmes should be delivered in all three cycles (Bachelor's, Masters, and doctoral level) of higher education in order to ensure their position in the European higher education area and to increase opportunities for advancement and mobility.

The position of teacher education within higher education is recognised throughout Europe, but the systems for higher education differ and therefore the position of teacher education varies. In many countries, there is just one type of higher education institute, namely universities. In other countries, there are several types of higher education institutes: universities and professional universities, like Högskole in Norway and hogescholen in the Netherlands and Flanders. However, all these institutes are regarded as higher education (third cycle or level 5) by the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

Degrees

Although all teacher education programmes are located within higher education, the levels of the teacher education programmes differ. One way of comparing the level of the programmes is to look at their length. Figure 1.2 provides an overview of the duration of teacher education programmes in a number of countries (OECD, 2005).

As Fig. 1.2 shows, in general teacher education courses for higher levels of education have a longer programme. This is motivated by the specialised subject study that is needed and the more academic role model that a teacher in upper secondary education has to be for his or her pupils. However, it can be questioned whether the complexity of the teaching job and the professional expectations of teachers increase with higher levels of education.

The level of teacher education programmes can also be compared by looking at the academic degree level. As a result of the Bologna agreement, higher education programmes in Europe should lead to qualifications on the bachelor or Master's level. In most countries, teacher education programmes have been adapted to this Bachelor–Master framework. Again, the outcomes of this restructuring differ: in some countries all teacher qualifications are on the Master's level (e.g. in Finland and recently in Portugal), while in other countries some qualifications are on the bachelor level and some on the Master's level. For example, in Flanders and the Netherlands the teacher qualifications for lower secondary education are on the bachelor level and those for upper secondary education are on the master level.

	Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education
Austria	3	4	5
Belgium (Flanders)	3	3	4½
Belgium (Wallonia)	3	3	5
Czech Republic	4 ½	5	5
Denmark	4	4	6
England & Wales	4	4	4
France	5	5	5
Germany	5½	5½	6½
Greece	4	4½	4½
Finland	5	5½	5½
Hungary	4	4	5
Iceland	3½	3½	4
Ireland	3	4	4
Israel	4	4	4½
Italy	4	7	7
The Netherlands	4	4	5
Norway	4	4	6
Portugal	4	5½	5½
Scotland	4	4	4
Slovak Rep.	4	5	5
Spain	3	6	6
Switzerland	3½	4½	6
Turkey	4	–	4½

Fig. 1.2 Number of years of post-secondary education required to become a teacher; situation in 2001 (OECD, 2005)

In some countries, it is possible to enrol for in-service postgraduate courses leading to Master degrees. The introduction of the Bachelor–Master structure has created new career opportunities for teachers. In many cases, these Master courses focus on leadership or special education. However, new courses are being developed that focus on the professional development of teachers with respect to their core quality: the teaching of pupils and students.

It is the ambition of the EU that teacher education programmes should also offer courses on the doctorate level; however, there is still a long way to go. Until now, only a few teachers decide to do a PhD study.

Teaching Licenses

In most countries in Europe, a Bachelor's or Master's degree is not enough to qualify as a teacher. Additional to a higher education degree teachers need a teaching license. The licenses are related to the level of the educational system: those who want to teach in primary education need a different license than those teaching in secondary education. In the Netherlands, teachers need to have a primary education teaching license to teach in primary schools and a so-called second degree teaching license to teach at lower secondary education and vocational education level. To teach in upper secondary education, Dutch teachers need a first degree teaching license. These licenses are restricted to the level of teaching: to change from one level of education, for example from primary to secondary level, teachers need to complete an extensive in-service course. In other countries, teaching licenses overlap. Countries with overlapping licenses create more flexibility for teachers to teach in different levels of education.

There are also differences concerning the number of subjects that are offered in teacher education institutes. Teacher education for primary education prepares teachers who can (and have to) teach all primary school subjects, while teacher education for lower and upper secondary education educates teachers as specialist teachers, who teach one or two, and in some countries, three subjects. Again, these system characteristics will influence the flexibility for teachers and schools. For example, in the Netherlands and Latvia, schools have more autonomy to structure their curriculum. Some schools want to increase the coherence of their curriculum by creating integrated subject areas, such as science or social studies. However, the opportunities to create such subject areas are restricted, as by law teachers are trained and licensed to teach only one subject.

In most countries, teacher education leads to a Bachelor's or Master's degree and a teaching license. The curricula in teacher education have to meet two types of standards: the Dublin descriptors for Bachelor or Master studies and the national requirements for teachers, in terms of teacher standards or teacher competences. In many countries, the degree, teacher qualification and teacher license are issued by the same institute: the institute of higher education that runs the teacher education programmes. However, in some countries, the roles are separated. For example, in Scotland a teaching license is not granted by the higher education institute but by a separate body: the General Teaching Council. Entry to the profession is not regulated by higher education institutes, but by representatives of the profession itself through the General Teaching Council.

In all European counties, the characteristics of teacher education are defined on the macro level, but in some countries other bodies (like Scotland's General Teaching Council) are involved leading to interesting differences between European countries. These differences can be the source of debates about who is responsible for the quality of the teaching profession: is it the responsibility of the government (who is responsible for the quality of education in a country), the teacher educators (who are experts on the education of teachers), the school leaders (who are responsible for the quality of the teaching staff within their school) or the members of the profession

itself (who as members of a professional community take the responsibility for the professional quality of their profession)? The outcome of such debates in a specific country depends on a variety of variables, for example, the perception of the government with respect to its role, the level of autonomy for schools and institutes or the level of professional trust that is given to teachers or teacher educators.

The 'What' of Teacher Education

Decisions on the degree level do not determine what competences, skills and knowledge a teacher is expected to acquire. Therefore, the 'what' of teacher education needs to be defined. Decisions on the content of teacher education curricula are made on all three levels (macro, meso and micro). Even in situations where the government provides detailed lists of skills or competences, teacher educators still have to make decisions about the specific learning goals of a course. Reflection on the choices made in countries on the content of the teacher education curriculum can help to promote curriculum debates on the meso and micro level, where institutes and teacher educators have to make decisions with respect to what and what not to include in the curriculum.

In this section, we reflect on the content of the curriculum, the balance between the different elements of the curriculum and the stakeholders involved in defining the curriculum content.

Content of the Curriculum

Teacher education's main aim is to provide student teachers with the necessary teacher qualities. In some countries, decisions on these qualities are mainly made on the macro level; that is, the qualities are strictly defined by government regulations: 'government steering by content and outcomes'. In other countries, teacher education institutes on the meso level have more freedom in defining the content of their curricula: 'government steering by goals'. Therefore, a distinction can be made between countries with total autonomy, limited autonomy and no autonomy for institutes with respect to the curriculum of teacher education (Eurydice, 2002).

No autonomy for teacher education institutes. The content and structure of the curriculum are defined on the macro level. Institutes follow very precise regulations issued by the top-level education authority, which specifies compulsory subjects, core curriculum subjects and optional subjects and their precise time allocation. These regulations can be enforced through national exams or strict curriculum guidelines.

Total autonomy for teacher education institutes. The content and the structure of the curriculum are defined on the meso and the micro level. Institutes are entirely free to decide how the programmes they offer are organised in terms of content and/or time.

Limited autonomy for teacher education institutes. The content and/or structure of the curriculum are partly defined on the macro level and partly on the meso and micro level. Official documents, issued by the top-level education authority, provide the basis on which institutes develop their own curricula. These documents specify minimum requirements about compulsory groups of subjects, the amount of general and professional training, examination targets and the minimum standards required by teachers when they have completed their initial education.

When there is limited or total autonomy, teacher education institutes have to make decisions about the content of the curriculum. This freedom gives more opportunities for innovation of the curriculum and leads to a larger diversity in the curricula of teacher education institutes within a country.

Balance Between Elements of the Curriculum

In general, teacher education curricula consist of the following four elements (European Commission, 2007b):

- Extensive subject knowledge
- A good knowledge of pedagogy
- The skills and competences required to guide and support learners
- An understanding of the social and cultural dimension of education

The balance between these elements within the curriculum depends on a variety of issues and is related to the views the different stakeholders have. There are several views on teaching and teacher education, and each view has its specific impact on the curriculum of teacher education and the learning of student teachers.

Views on the educational goals of the school. These views concern the principles that underlie the selection, organisation and methods of the curriculum. Lundgren (1983) distinguishes a number of curriculum codes:

- The classical curriculum code, which is based on the ideal of the educated person. The concept of Bildung fits in this code.
- The rational curriculum code, which is based on the natural sciences where learning take place through experiments and discovery.
- The moral curriculum code, whereby the curriculum is governed by the need to introduce the learners to their responsibilities in society. Reproduction of culture, values and morals has a central place in the curriculum.
- The realistic curriculum code, whereby the content of the curriculum is selected based on its usefulness to the individual and to society. The curriculum is intended to contribute to production and economic growth.

These different curriculum codes lead to different emphases being put on content elements for teacher education, for example:

- When the main aim of education is to introduce pupils to the world of knowledge and the intellectual and cultural heritage of society, the subject knowledge and cultural knowledge of student teachers and their ability to transfer that knowledge are emphasised (the classical curriculum code).
- When the main aim of education is to provide pupils with knowledge and skills that support them to learn by discovery and research student teachers need to learn how to support pupils to become explorers (the rational curriculum code).
- When the main aim of education is to introduce pupils to shared values, the teacher education curriculum focuses on the development of democratic attitudes and on the involvement of pupils (the moral curriculum code).
- When the main aim of education is to provide basic skills for society and skills for future professions, the curriculum within teacher education is designed accordingly (the realistic curriculum code).

Views on the role and professionalism of the teacher. These views have their impact on what elements are seen as most important within the teacher education curriculum. The focus can be on the interaction of the teacher with pupils, on the contribution of the teacher to school development, on the relation of the teacher to the local community, etcetera. Views on the professionalism of the teacher can vary from a limited interpretation of professionalism to an extended professionalism characterised by 'a capacity for autonomous, professional self-development through systematic self-study, through the study of the work of other teachers and through the testing of ideas by classroom research procedures' (Stenhouse, 1975, p. 144). Again, these different perspectives lead to different emphases on content elements for teacher education, for example:

- When a teacher is seen as a subject specialist, introducing pupils to the rich world of a specific subject, the emphasis in the teacher education curriculum is on mastering the subject.
- When a teacher is seen as a member of a school team, the emphasis is on teamwork, cooperative skills and supervision.
- When a teacher is seen as someone who is supposed to deliver teaching methods that are developed by curriculum specialists, student teachers are trained to use teaching materials from educational publishers in the way they are intended.
- When a teacher is seen as a professional who is involved in developing his or her own way of teaching, student teachers need to learn how to design their own teaching materials according to their educational views.
- When a teacher is seen as a knowledge worker, contributing to the professional knowledge on teaching and learning, the curriculum focuses on acquiring action research skills.
- When a teacher is seen as an independent professional, the focus is on skills and attitudes concerning public accountability and on creating and maintaining professional networks.

As the views with respect to educational goals and the role and professionalism of teachers vary between countries and between institutes, there is an ongoing discussion, either on the macro level or on the meso and micro level, about the content

Competences for teachers

At the individual student level
- Initiating and managing learning processes
- Responding effectively to the learning needs of individual learners
- Integrating formative and summative assessment

At the classroom level
- Teaching in multicultural classrooms
- New cross-curricular emphases
- Integrating students with special needs

At the school level
- Working and planning in teams
- Evaluation and systematic improvement planning
- ICT use in teaching and administration
- Projects between schools, and international cooperation
- Management and shared leadership

At the level of parents and the wider community
- Providing professional advice to parents
- Building community partnerships for learning

Fig. 1.3 Competences for teachers, based on country reports (OECD, 2005)

of teacher education (see Fig. 1.3). More and more teachers are expected to have several roles and have to be able to contribute to:

- The individual development of children and young people
- The management of learning processes in the classroom
- The development of the entire school as a 'learning community'
- Connections with the local community and the wider world

Stakeholders in Defining the Content of the Curriculum

Defining the 'what' of teacher education is often a difficult process in which a variety of stakeholders are involved: governmental delegates, school leaders, teacher educators and teachers themselves (and in some countries, also parents and pupils). Each actor has its specific concerns and its own perspective on the quality of teachers (see Association of Teacher Educators in Europe, 2006).

The *government* (or local authority) is concerned with maintaining the quality of education. This concern might lead to formal regulations, including the explicit definition of standards of teachers.

School leaders are responsible for appointing teaching staff members who will support and guarantee the quality of the learning process of pupils. To promote the quality of the teaching staff members, an attractive and challenging learning environment must be created. Quality indicators for teachers can be used as an instrument within the human resource policy of the school for the selection of new staff and for arranging the continuing professional development of the teaching staff.

Teacher educators need an explicit definition of the quality of student teachers for three reasons: they need this frame of reference to be able to design their curricula, to be able to supervise students in their development towards becoming competent teachers and to be able to assess the students in order to guarantee the quality of future teachers.

Teachers are responsible for their own continuous professional development. Explicit indicators to identify their professional quality can help them to monitor and navigate their learning process.

Parents and pupils are concerned with the effects that the teacher has on the learning of the pupil.

Quality indicators can create a shared frame of reference and a shared language for communication between the various actors. The lifelong learning of teachers is

Recommendations on the development of criteria for and use of indicators of teacher quality

Development of indicators

- A shared frame of reference regarding the concept of teacher quality is needed in order to facilitate international cooperation and exchange.
- National and European Projects to formulate indicators to identify teacher quality should focus on the involvement and ownership of teachers, as this is a necessary condition for quality indicators that will have a real impact on teaching.

Criteria for indicators

- Indicators of teacher quality should take into account the concerns and perspectives of the different stakeholders (government, school leaders, teachers, teacher education, parents/pupils). Only then can quality indicators be used as a shared language.
- As teaching is a profession that entails reflective thinking, continuing professional development, autonomy, responsibility, creativity, research and personal judgments, indicators to identify the quality of teachers should reflect these values and attributes.
- Indicators and their use should reflect the collaborative nature of teaching by allowing room in professional profiles for flexibility, personal styles and variety.
- Indicators of teacher quality should be focused not only on the teaching process itself but also on the development of teaching materials, school innovation and knowledge development through systematic reflection and research.

The use of indicators

Quality indicators are not goals in themselves, but should be part of a system to stimulate teacher quality that is consistent with the indicators and that stimulates ownership by teachers.

Fig. 1.4 Recommendations on the development of, criteria for and use of indicators of teacher quality (Association of Teacher Education, 2006)

promoted and supported when teachers, teacher educators and school leaders use the same frame of reference for teacher quality and the professional development of teachers.

In countries with little or no autonomy for teacher education institutes, the government plays an important role in initiating or coordinating the process of defining teacher quality. The exclusion of any stakeholders from the process of defining teacher quality leads to reduced ownership. In such cases, teacher standards are seen as – as a Portuguese colleague once put it – 'evil constructs, imposed by the government to control teacher education' or as a way to standardise teaching in a mechanical way.

In countries where teacher education institutes have full autonomy in defining their curricula, it is important to involve relevant stakeholders. If the aim is to educate teachers who have an extended professionalism and take responsibility for their own professional quality and development, teacher education institutes need to involve student teachers in defining teaching quality and the 'what' of the teacher education curriculum. Based on the above considerations, the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) formulated recommendations on the development of indicators for teacher quality (see Fig. 1.4).

The 'How' of Teacher Education: Teaching Methods and Pedagogy

The 'how' of teacher education refers to the teaching methods and the pedagogy of teacher education.

Teacher Education Pedagogy

Teacher education pedagogy addresses the way in which the learning of student teachers is stimulated and assessed. It covers the methods used in the teacher education courses. This variety of approaches can be recognised in such concepts as the reflective practitioner, the teacher as researcher or collaborative learning. Again, a variety of views exist in various European counties and in various teacher education institutes:

- When teacher learning is seen in terms of a transmission model, the curriculum is strictly regulated, leaving limited freedom for student teachers to set their own goals and to adapt the curriculum to the preferred learning style of each student.
- When teacher learning is seen as an interactive and collective process, the emphasis is on a collaborative and adaptive design of the curriculum.
- When teacher learning is viewed as a reflective process of knowledge construction, stimulated by critical investigation of personal experience, the emphasis is on teaching practice, reflection (see Chapter 10) and research activities (see Chapters 13 and 14 of this book).

Korthagen (2001) emphasises the importance of a pedagogy of teacher education based on the involvement of student teachers in authentic and realistic learning environments. Such environments can be schools and when that is the case the work in schools, for example during teaching practice, becomes more important. In many European countries, the role of field experiences in schools is being reconsidered (OECD, 2005) and in recent years the amount of teaching practice in the teacher education curriculum has been increased (see Chapter 4 for more details). This teaching practice provides students with a broad experience of what it means to be a teacher, including teaching in school, counselling and guidance, curriculum and school development planning, research and evaluation, and collaboration with parents and external partners. The OECD (2005) emphasises that the students' field experiences and academic studies reinforce and complement each other, for example, through students doing research on issues identified within the schools.

In most countries, teacher education institutes are relatively autonomous in choosing their pedagogy. In such countries, the institutes are free to define the learning activities that they use to educate their students. In other countries, the national government formulates regulations regarding the pedagogy of teacher education. Mostly, these regulations refer to the role and amount of teaching practice within the curriculum. Sometimes, also tests and assessments are defined on the macro level. In France and Germany, for example, recruitment for the second phase of the teacher education course is based on a national exam organised by the ministry of education.

When teacher education institutes are fully autonomous in choosing their pedagogy, this pedagogy can be defined on the meso level – that is, the head or a faculty board defines the pedagogy for all courses within the curriculum – or on the micro level, when each individual teacher educator defines his or her own pedagogy and teaching and assessment methods.

Many teacher education institutes try to be consistent in their pedagogy. This consistency means that the content of the teacher education curriculum and the pedagogy of teacher education strengthen each other. This affects, for example, the assessment methods used in the curriculum. In a curriculum that focuses on self-responsibility of students and prepares students for lifelong learning, the assessment methods should fit with those aims. In such a curriculum, peer assessment, self-assessment and portfolios play an important role.

Another way to increase the consistency of the pedagogy of teacher education is to mirror the aims of the curriculum in the teaching of the teacher educators. This 'teach as you preach' principle puts high demands on teacher educators with respect to how they demonstrate within their own daily practice such curriculum aims as adaptive teaching, explicit reflection, involvement in action research and integration of ICT.

The 'How' of Teacher Education: The Structure of the Curriculum

In some countries, the structure of the curriculum is decided by the government who defines the way in which the content of the curriculum is organised in specific

courses. In other countries, teacher education institutes have a large amount of freedom on the meso level in the way in which the content is translated into separate courses and how specific elements are integrated (e.g. in problem- or project-based approaches or in cross-curricular areas). Especially the way in which the teaching of the subject part of the curriculum and the professional studies (e.g. educational sciences, pedagogy and teaching practice) are integrated or separated varies greatly. Two models can be distinguished:

- *Concurrent models.* Teacher education curricula in which the subject part and the professional part of the curriculum are programmed parallel to each other, and are taught by the same teacher educators. Concurrent models create opportunities for integrated projects and cross-curricular modules.
- *Consecutive models.* Teacher education curricula in which there is a strict separation in modules, time and teachers. In consecutive models, students first study the subject part (leading to a BA/BSc or an MA/MSc) before continuing their study with a postgraduate teacher education course.

In some countries, the different parts of the curricula are the responsibility of different teams of teachers and sometimes even different departments within an institute (the subject department and the department of education), while in other countries all of the curriculum (subject studies and professional studies) are the responsibility of the faculty of teacher education. In such models, it is easier to create consistency in teaching methods and pedagogy within the teacher education curriculum.

Within the design of the curriculum, attention should be paid to bridging the gap between studying teacher education and entry to the profession in order to prevent the so-called 'praxis shock'. One way to bridge the gap and reduce the praxis shock is to create an on-the-job qualifying phase (Eurydice, 2002). Such a phase can be an integrated part of the teacher education curriculum. In such curricula, part of the induction phase is integrated in the teacher education curriculum, for instance by giving student teachers the opportunity to teach for a long period at the end of the teacher education program. In other countries, the induction phase starts after completing the formal teacher education course as the first year of teaching is considered a probation year, before a student can obtain a full teaching license. In some countries (e.g. France), students have to pass a state assessment before a teaching license can be obtained.

The structure of the curriculum can also vary in the way that schools are involved in the curriculum. There is a variety of models for cooperative partnerships between schools and teacher education institutes (Maandag, Deinum, Hofman, & Buitink, 2007). These models affect the involvement of schools in the design and teaching of courses within teacher education from involvement in the design of teaching practice to schools taking over parts of the teacher education curriculum and having a shared responsibility for the design of the whole curriculum. This also affects the way in which schools organise the professional development of their own staff (see Chapter 4).

Teacher Education and National and European Policies

Thus, there is a wide variety in systems, content, pedagogy and structure of teacher education throughout Europe and the involvement of national governments in teacher education varies considerably. Despite the differences, the domain of teacher education receives special attention from politicians in every country. Politicians and ministries try to influence teacher education more than any other area in higher education, as the quality of teachers is a key issue in the economic development of a country, in safeguarding a socially coherent society and in conserving the cultural heritage of a country. This holds for not only the national level, but also the European level. In 2000, the European Council agreed that 'the Union must become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion'. Two years later, the Council stated that by 2010, Europe should be the world leader in terms of the quality of its education and training systems (European Commission, 2002). This understanding was translated into a working programme – the Education & Training 2010 Programme – in which goals and indicators are formulated to be met by each country of the EU in 2010.

However, education policies are the domain of national governments and the European Commission has to be very careful not to become too much involved in the area of education. Nevertheless, the European Commission exerts a rather strong influence by organising exchanges of interesting policy practices between Member States and, even more important, by establishing benchmarks for the indicators agreed in the Education & Training 2010 Programme. These benchmarks have a strong influence on national education policies, as no country wants to be at the bottom of the league table.

In 2007, the European Commission published a communication (European Commission, 2007b) that stresses the importance of highly qualified teachers and gives recommendations for improving the quality of teacher education. Although the recommendations are formulated in a very general way, the Commission announced its intentions to develop clear indicators to monitor the quality of teachers and teacher education systems in the Member States. Such indicators can have great impact on teacher education policies in the Member States.

One of the main problems of teacher education is its vulnerability to criticism from politicians and society. Problems in society (e.g. with respect to its economic competitive position, multicultural tensions and children's health) are easily transferred to schools as the institutes that should solve these problems and if teachers in schools are not able to solve these problems, teacher education is blamed.

As a result, teacher education is politicised (Bruner, 1996). According to Cochran-Smith (2005), the way in which the goals, positions and problems of teacher education are formulated is never neutral but always 'a matter of the strategic representation of situations wherein advocates deliberately and consciously fashion their portrayals so as to promote their favoured course of action' (p. 182).

While facing criticism, teacher education institutes have to deal with the 'curse of complexity':

> The tradition of teacher education is to take into account diverse viewpoints, subtle nuances, uncertainties and the multiple facets involved in unravelling the relationships between and among teacher preparation and teaching, learning, schooling and contexts. The curse is particularly vexing when many of the critics of university-based teacher education feel no such need to acknowledge uncertainty and complexity and in fact, are quite ready to provide uncomplicated statements about how to solve simultaneously – through 'rational' and 'common-sense' approaches – the many problems related to teacher recruitment, preparation and retention. (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 183).

Teacher education institutes have to cope with this reality. One way of doing this is to strengthen networks of teacher education institutes, to stimulate mutual exchange and research and to develop clear quality criteria. Self-confident teacher education institutes with a shared evidence-based opinion can be strong participants in the development of policies to improve the quality of teachers and teacher education, on both a national and a European level.

Conclusion

We have reflected on some of the issues that define teacher education and that can be easily recognised within national contexts of teacher education. In these reflections, we tried to identify choices and the resulting differences and similarities in structures and approaches that can be found in Europe with respect to:

- the system of teacher education
- the content of teacher education
- the pedagogy and structure of teacher education

The system, content, pedagogy and structure of teacher education are different in each country. Some of the issues discussed in this chapter can be influenced by teacher educators. If so, we hope that this chapter will inspire beginning and expert teacher educators to rethink the choices made by and the underlying philosophies of their institute. Understanding the underlying philosophies and questioning the presuppositions can be fruitful ways to start and inspire new developments in teacher education.

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Useful Websites

http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/et_2010_en.html. Provides information on the European policies concerning education and the Education & Training 2010 Programme.

Eurydice: www.eurydice.org. Eurydice is an institutional network for gathering, monitoring, processing and circulating reliable and readily comparable information on education systems and policies throughout Europe. Eurydice maintains Eurybase, the information database on education systems in Europe. In addition, Eurydice carries out comparative research on education systems in Europe, including teacher education.

OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation & Development): www.oecd.org.

Chapter 2
Understanding Teacher Educators' Work and Identities

Jean Murray, Anja Swennen and Leah Shagrir

Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the work and identities of teacher educators. We know that teacher education is a broad, heterogeneous and differentiated field (or area), within which individual teacher educators undertake many different types of work. Consequently, there are on-going debates about who can be defined as a teacher educator and why. In this chapter we define teacher educators as teachers of teachers, engaged in the induction and professional learning of future teachers through pre-service courses and/or the further development of serving teachers through in-service courses.

The chapter is structured in the following way: in the next section we draw on relevant scholarship and research from sociological and historical analyses of teacher education to identify some of the major tensions and issues within our field. We then follow up this introductory section with specific illustrations from three national contexts – England, Israel and the Netherlands. These sections explore something of the specificity of teacher education in our different countries, thereby acknowledging the differentiated ways in which educational policies and practices act to structure the national and institutional contexts for teacher educators' work and identities.

But at the same time as acknowledging this specificity, our accounts also serve to identify some of the commonalities in teacher educators' work and ways of understanding their professional roles and identities across our differing national contexts. In particular, we identify the centrality in teacher educators' work of professional responsibilities and values, of pedagogies for teacher education, and of scholarship. We also argue that teacher educators need to be seen as a unique occupational group with distinctive knowledge, skills and understanding about teacher education and its importance for schooling.

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Contextualising Factors

As Chapter 1 has established, teacher education is framed by the specific political and social frameworks for schooling and pre- and in-service teacher education in different national contexts. In addition to the factors discussed in Chapter 1, there are some common trends in the development of teacher education across Europe which we can trace. For example, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2004) reports that for more than a decade teacher education has been high on the political agenda in many countries as a critical lever to produce educational change. In these countries changing teacher education has been a key strategy in attempts to reconstruct schooling to achieve altered models of teacher professionalism. Cochrane-Smith (2005, p. 3) has identified that in such policy formulations, teacher education is positioned as a 'public policy problem'. The quest of policymakers then becomes to unearth a formula for 'what works' in terms of reforming the curricula, pedagogies and assessment modes used in teacher education in order to 'drive up' teacher quality and the attainment of pupils. The results of such quests often work to re-position teacher education as a technical rational enterprise of designing and regulating courses to ensure that teachers attain specified 'competences' or 'standards' that are allegedly needed for effective teaching. We see these attempts to re-position teacher education as ignoring the complexity of the teaching and learning process involved in pre-service and in-service teacher education. Standards for teacher educators have been developed within the ATE, the Association of Teacher Education (see Fig. 2.1) and within the VELON, the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON) (see Fig. 2.2).

As Chapter 1 has signalled, the relationships between teacher education and the school sector are crucial to understanding our field and the positions of teacher educators working within it. Whilst pre- and in-service teacher education programmes are usually located in higher education institutions of some sort, our field is also centrally concerned with schooling. This fundamental dualism is captured in the words of William Taylor (1983, p. 41):

> Teacher education is Janus-faced. In the one direction it faces classroom and school, with their demands for relevance, practicality, competence, technique. In the other it faces the university and the world of research, with their stress on scholarship, theoretical fruitfulness and disciplinary rigour.

Whilst models of the ways in which higher education institutions work 'in partnership' with schools vary from country to country (and from institution to institution), at the most basic level of their work all teacher education works with this dualism. For example, for teacher educators involved in supervising pre-service students on field work experiences (or teaching practices) out in schools or working with serving teachers on in-service courses, this dualism and its part in influencing the knowledge, skills and understanding which they require is only too evident.

A further factor in understanding the field of teacher education is that, in many countries, it has a specific history of gender and power relations, rooted in the social and intellectual 'poverty' of the Normal Schools or Teacher Training Colleges of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. One consequence of these 'humble'

Standards for master teacher educators

These standards are based on the revised standards for master teacher educators. On the website of the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) you will find the 'Indicators Potential Sources of Evidence' for each of the standards, see www.ate1.org

Standard 1 Teaching
Master teacher educators model professional teaching practices that demonstrate content and professional knowledge, skills, and dispositions reflecting research, proficiency with technology and assessment, and accepted best practices in teacher education.

Standard 2 Cultural Competence
Master teacher educators apply cultural competence and promote social justice in teacher education.

Standard 3 Scholarship
Master teacher educators engage in inquiry and contribute to scholarship that expands the knowledge base related to teacher education.

Standard 4 Professional Development
Master teacher educators inquire systematically into, reflect on, and improve their own practice and demonstrate commitment to continuous professional development.

Standard 5 Program Development
Master teacher educators provide leadership in developing, implementing, and evaluating teacher education programs that are rigorous, relevant, and grounded in theory, research, and best practice.

Standard 6 Collaboration
Master teacher educators collaborate regularly and in significant ways with relevant stakeholders to improve teaching, research, and student learning.

Standard 7 Public Advocacy
Master teacher educators serve as informed, constructive advocates for high-quality education for all students.

Standard 8 Teacher Education Profession
Master teacher educators contribute to improving the teacher education profession.

Fig. 2.1 Standards for Master Teacher Educators of the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE, 2007)

origins is that the status of teacher education within higher education has long been recognised as uneasy and given a sometimes marginal status. In some countries the field of teacher education has been measured against 'traditional' academic disciplines and found wanting. These struggles for legitimacy have occurred in part because the knowledge base of teacher education is what Furlong (1996, p. 154) calls the 'endemic uncertainty' of professional knowledge.

Issues of gender and class have played significant parts in the marginalisation of teacher education. As the work of Dillabough and Acker (2007) suggests, both teaching and teacher education are examples of the 'social work disciplines'

Summary of the Dutch standards for teacher educators

Fundamentals of the work of teacher educators
The teacher educator:

- works simultaneously on the following three levels:
  1. understands the development of pupils
  2. facilitates and supervises the student teacher's development
  3. is able to steer his or her own professional development
- Focuses on the development of the participants. The teacher educator stimulates the participants to take responsibility for their own development and values the contribution of the participants
- Is a role model for (prospective) teachers

Interpersonal and pedagogical
The teacher educator:

- Creates a safe (working) atmosphere
- Supports the development of the professional identity of the participants
- Stimulates the development of values of the participants and is conscious of his or her own values

Pedagogy of teacher education
The teacher educator:

- Creates an inspiring and stimulating learning environment
- Acknowledges differences between participants and if necessary is able to act upon them

Working in an organisation
The teacher educator organises his or her work and private time well. S/he improvises when necessary

Working with colleagues
The teacher educator makes his or her educational views and concepts explicit, is able to relate them to the views and concepts of colleagues and the institute and is able to discuss these

Working in a broader context
The teacher educator has a relevant (inter)national network

Working at one's own development
The teacher educator reflects systematically on his or her own pedagogical approach and (teaching) behaviour towards students, colleagues and others

Fig. 2.2 Summary of the standards of the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON, 2007)

in which a predominantly female labour force works in a public service setting. Certainly in many countries, teacher education now involves many women teacher educators working in higher education and centrally involved in the professional development of their often female students. Research from various countries, including the USA (Ducharme & Ducharme, 1996), Canada (Acker & Feuerverger, 1997)

and England (Maguire, 1994; Murray, 2006), also indicates that there is a gendered division of labour within teacher education, with women more likely than men to take on pre-service work and to supervise fieldwork.

In some nations the historical legacy of teacher education's marginalisation in the higher education sector has been countered to some extent by the movement of teacher education from Teacher Training Colleges or Normal Schools into departments and schools of education situated within the university sector. This process of what Arreman and Weiner (2007), writing about the Swedish context, call 'universification'. Through this process, which has occurred in many countries including Sweden, the United Kingdom, the USA and Australia, teacher education has joined the academic mainstream. This process has its own complex histories, playing out differently in varying national contexts. These histories are too complex to detail here but, in general, the move has been welcomed as giving the field of teacher education enhanced status, recognition and academic credibility.

This move into mainstream universities has, however, also brought different tensions to teacher education departments and to the teacher educators working within them. As Goodson (1995, p. 141) argues, on entering the university sector, teacher education became caught up in a 'devil's bargain' whereby its mission changed from being 'primarily concerned with matters central to the practice of schooling towards issues of status passage through more conventional university scholarship'. Some of the unintended outcomes caused by this 'devil's bargain' can be seen in the dilemmas created for departments of education and for teacher educators.

These existing tensions within teacher education and teacher educators' work have been exacerbated by far reaching changes that have impacted on the higher education sector as a whole. As Morley (2003) notes processes of audit and regulation have become entrenched in the governance of universities in many countries. This is in part in response to the pressures of competing international and global higher education markets and to the growing discourses and practices of managerialism. A particular factor in relation to the latter point has been the increased emphasis on what Davies (2003, p. 91) terms the 'management, surveillance and control' of individuals and professional groups in the cause of public 'accountability'. The work of academics in all disciplines has changed and intensified because of the entrenchment of managerialism, but these discourses and practices affect those working in 'social work' fields such as teacher education in particular ways (for further details of this argument, see Acker & Dillabough, 2007; Murray, 2007).

As this section has indicated then, teacher educators work in complex social contexts in which many differing actors and stakeholders have legitimate – and often differing – goals. This complexity and the tensions which it brings have led some commentators to characterise teacher education as a contested field and teacher educators' work as what Maguire (1994) characterises as the 'impossible job'. We recognise the accuracy of such characterisations for many in teacher education, but would also point to the high levels of satisfaction which most teacher educators find in their work.

Across Europe the majority of teacher educators are based in higher education institutions. As Chapter 1 has signalled, these institutions vary considerably, providing

a variety of differentiated settings for how teacher educators' work is understood and practised. In the sections below we discuss some of these differentiations in teacher education and the ways in which they affect teacher educators and their work. In writing these accounts we acknowledge that they are brief and necessarily selective.

Working as a Teacher Educator in Teacher Education: Examples from Three Countries

This section describes some of the main features of teacher education and the work of teacher educators in England, Israel and the Netherlands.

England

The current context for teacher education in England is the result of a radical 'reform' process, driven by repeated and intensive state intervention. The pre-service programmes resulting from government legislation have been routinely described as 'teacher training' in public discourses, and characterised as 'demanding, relevant, and practical' (Furlong, Barton, Miles, Whiting, & Whitty, 2000, p. 144). Most teacher education is funded and monitored by the Training and Development Agency (a government quango), and pre-service courses are regularly inspected by a government funded body called Ofsted. These bodies create strong regulatory frameworks for teacher education and for teacher educators' work, especially on pre-service courses.

Most student teachers for both primary and secondary school sectors now undertake a one year course (often called a PGCE, Post Graduate Certificate of Education) after completing their undergraduate degrees. There are still significant numbers of students following three or four year under-graduate degree courses in education leading to Qualified Teacher Status. Most of these courses are for primary schooling. Most students on under-graduate routes are between 18 and 25 year of age; PGCE students are 21+ and include significant numbers of mature students and 'career switchers'. Most student teachers are female. The majority of students still train on higher education-based courses, but the last seven years have also seen a diversification of the system, with school-based routes for pre-service education growing in number. The sector as a whole has experienced demographic changes requiring first sharp increases and now significant decreases in the number of pre-service places. In addition to pre-service courses, most universities offer Continuing Professional Development (CPD) courses for serving teachers; these often lead to Master's degrees.

Teacher education has been affected by the 'univerisification' of the higher education institutions. At the time of writing in 2007 all of higher education-based provision takes place in universities or in colleges of higher education on the verge of

attaining university status. This has meant that all teacher education departments – and the teacher educators working within them – now have to face the imperatives of the university sector, including engagement in research. But these changes have been experienced in differentiated ways by individuals involved in teacher education in different universities and the departments within them.

Teacher educators teaching on pre-service courses in England are nearly always qualified schoolteachers, with considerable experience of teaching in the school or college sectors. They therefore bring with them a wealth of professional knowledge and expertise acquired through previous teaching experience. This is often the main reason for their recruitment, and is frequently a major source of their professional credibility during their early years in higher education. Most new teacher educators enter higher education without doctoral level qualifications, or other sustained experience of research and publication processes. The most common academic qualification on entry is a Master's degree, although in some institutions it is possible to be appointed with only a first degree. In some university departments there may be a number of new teacher educators who come into the field straight after PhD study. Unless they also have experience of teaching in schools, these teacher educators do not normally teach on pre-service courses.

There are no national standards for teacher educators' professional knowledge in England, but the general expectations are that most teacher educators will have been effective schoolteachers and that this experience will enable them to become facilitators of learning for student teachers. Teacher educators' work on pre-service courses is generally understood as including the following elements: teaching students in university; supervising students on school placements; engaging in scholarship and research; service to the school sector; and service to the university (academic administration). But requirements for the depth and breadth of engagement in all these elements of work differ across institutional contexts. The following are three brief examples of some of these differences in teacher educators' work and identities In most old universities teacher educators on full lecturing contracts are usually required to be research active and publishing their work in accepted academic formats, in addition to their teaching and service roles. Old universities were established prior to 1992. Most of these institutions are research-intensive. In other universities, there may be less pressure to be research active in the conventional sense, and teacher educators may focus their identities around their teaching and the scholarship which that involves. In some universities teacher educators may now take on managerial roles, devoting the majority of their time to administering courses and ensuring that the government requirements for teacher education are met. Recent research on teacher educators and their work for the Knowledge and Identity in Teacher Education (KITE) project (Murray, Davison, & John, 2006) indicates that the heterogeneity of teacher educators as an occupational group may be increasing.

Dominant – and sometimes conflicting – discourses in teacher education include the following: 'teacher training' as a focused, vocational training (see above and Furlong et al., 2000); partnership with schools (since 1992 government regulations have required that all courses should be taught in such partnerships); reflective practice as a model of the good practitioner (see the analysis of Furlong et al., 2000,

for further details); and often gendered discourses of care and nurture (see Maguire & Weiner, 1994; Murray, 2006, for discussion of these ideas). In the KITE study many of the teacher educators involved saw their central commitments as being to their students, their teaching and to educating the best possible teachers for the school sector. They also commonly understood their work as being the 'gatekeepers' of teacher education, responsible for 'producing' high quality teachers for the school and further education sectors. Many teacher educators employ a range of pedagogical skills and strategies in their teaching, with modelling being given particular emphasis by some (see, for example, the teacher educators' practice discussed in John, 1996). In addition to teaching their students, most teacher educators were also involved in liaising with mentors and school-based tutors in their partnership schools. Norman Lucas and David Guile (1999, p. 212) have called this aspect of teacher educators' work adopting a 'pedagogy of guidance' for working in partnership.

Israel

Teacher education in Israel takes place in the universities (for teachers intending to teach in high schools) and in the teachers' colleges (mainly for teachers in primary and junior high schools). The 26 academic teacher colleges act as independent academic institutions, and award their graduates a first degree in education (B.Ed.) and a teaching qualification. Some of the teachers' colleges also award second degrees in teaching (M.Ed.) for serving teachers. Pre-service students are usually aged between 19 and 25. They follow a four-year course, including an induction into teaching in the final year. The teacher colleges also run courses for training graduates to become qualified teachers.

Recent changes in teacher education have been twofold. Firstly, three years ago the government which finances and inspects teacher education, decided to reduce the number of colleges, and to transfer the budget from the Ministry of Education to the Council for Higher Education. It also decided to create new structures for pre-service programmes. These changes are still in process and it is anticipated that it will take many years for them to be fully implemented. Secondly, the training which students receive in schools during fieldwork (teaching practices) has become more important and various models of partnership have been developed, including Professional Development Schools. School-based mentors are now considered almost as integral to the teacher education system as higher education-based educators. These changes are impacting on the colleges and on individual teacher educators in various ways. Brief examples include the following: some of the small colleges are in the process of merging together to create larger institutions and one of the teachers' college has merged with a regional college; teacher educators are working on changing the pre-service curriculum, following the model suggested by the Council for Higher Education; and eleven colleges are cooperating in a nation-wide network looking at the issue of school-college

partnership in teacher education and have just published a book presenting the different models.

On entry to higher education most teacher educators have at least a masters degree, but since the teacher colleges have started to run M.Ed courses working teacher educators and new entrants are required to hold a PhD. Teacher educators are not necessarily required to have practical experience of teaching or to hold a school teaching qualification.

In many ways teacher educators' work is similar to that of other academic staff in that they teach and research, including publishing papers and books and presenting at conferences. But for many teacher educators the quality of their teaching and the ways in which it results in developing students as reflective teachers is of particular importance. Discourses of reflective practice are central to the ways in which working in schools and teacher education are understood. For example, teacher educators emphasise the importance of reflection on experiential learning in learning to teach. They also stress that beginning teachers need to be responsive to local educational contexts, bringing flexibility and open-mindedness to their work. Within the teacher education colleges it is widely understood that teacher educators must act as a community of professionals, engaging in lifelong learning (Ben-Peretz & Silberstein, 2001).

Developing pedagogies for high quality teacher education has been one definite focus of the professional group – and of MOFET (see below) – in recent years. A further focus has been developing effective modes of assessment for student teachers' professional and personal development. Not all teacher educators work as supervisors of students' fieldwork in schools. Those who do are likely to have personal experience of working in schools before entering higher education. This sub-group of teacher educators has taken the lead in developing ways of working in partnerships with school-based mentors. Teacher educators, alongside those mentors, take responsibility for recruiting, educating and assessing a high quality school teaching force.

In recent years there has been a distinct shift in the ways in which teacher educators understand their work, broadly this shift can be conceptualised as being from a practice orientation to an academic and disciplinary orientation. Research engagement is important for most teacher educators, some of this work focuses on the pedagogies of teacher education and student learning patterns. Three examples of relevant research by teacher educators are Smith's research on teacher educators' expertise (Smith, 2005), Arnon and Reichel's work on the ideal teacher (Arnon & Reichel, 2007), and Eldar and Talmor's study of the characteristics of outstanding student teachers (Eldar & Talmor, 2006).

The Ministry of Education has a funded system of professional development for teacher educators through the unique MOFET Institute. This is an independent, non-profit foundation that provides a national forum for the exchange of information and ideas, research, advanced study, and professionalisation in teacher education. MOFET provides a wide range of learning opportunities to support teacher educator induction and professional development. Professional development opportunities include 'professional specialisation' courses in the following areas:

- Pedagogy and Instruction
- Academic Management
- Teacher Educators as Researchers
- Information and Communication Technologies
- Evaluation and Measurement

There are no explicitly stated professional standards for teacher educators in Israel, but some MOFET initiatives have addressed the applicability of the Association of Teacher Education (ATE) Standards from the USA (see Fig. 2.1) for the work of teacher educators in Israel.

The Netherlands

To understand teacher educators' work in the Netherlands, it is important to understand something of the structure of Dutch teacher education. As Chapter 1 of this book indicates, higher education is divided into universities and institutes for higher education (*Hogescholen*, like *Hochschul*e in German or *Hogskole* in the Nordic countries). Nowadays, these institutions for higher education are usually referred to as *professional universities*. A distinction is made below between the traditional universities and these professional universities. There are broadly three types of teacher education institutions in the Netherlands:

Teacher education institutes for primary teaching are part of the professional universities. Students who want to become a teacher of primary education take a four year course that leads to a bachelor degree. The courses consist of all subjects of the primary school curriculum, the methodology of teaching, pedagogy and other education related subjects. Teaching practice (fieldwork in schools) consists of a quarter of the curriculum. Most of the students are women.

Teacher education institutes for lower secondary education are also part of the professional universities. In a four year course leading to a bachelor degree, the students study the subject that they will teach in secondary schools. The curriculum consists of a theoretical introduction in the subject, subject pedagogy, methodology of teaching, pedagogy and other education related subjects. One quarter of the curriculum is dedicated to practice. Students in these teacher education institutes are usually in the 18–25 age range, although there are also some mature students. Most of the students are women, but the number of women varies from subject to subject.

Teacher education institutes for upper secondary education are part of the traditional universities. The course for upper secondary education is a one year post-graduate course, which leads to a Master's degree. These students are usually between 24 and 30 years old, but there are also mature students; again the majority of students are women.

Recent changes in teacher education include a growing emphasis on partnerships with schools. This change is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4, but in summary

we can say that institute-based teacher educators and school-based teacher educators (or mentors) collaborate in different ways to teach and supervise student teachers. Institute-based teacher educators now have to share the responsibility for educating student teachers with school-based teacher educators, while for mentors the challenge is to respond to these new responsibilities. As not all mentors are ready for this new challenge, teacher education institutes provide courses for all teachers who play important roles in the education of student teachers in the schools.

There are generally speaking two types of teacher educators working in higher education.

One type of teacher educators consists of those who were previously experienced teachers in primary and lower and upper secondary education. Before moving into higher education this group has often formed links with the teacher education institutes through being mentors in partnership schools. On moving into higher education some of these teacher educators have a teaching diploma (bachelor level) for primary and secondary education and experience of teaching. Others may have a Master's degree, either in a specific subject or in educational studies, but few have a PhD These teacher educators form the majority of teachers at all teacher education institutes in the Netherlands.

A further type of teacher educator includes individuals who have studied at a traditional university, have a Master's degree in a subject or in educational studies and have gone straight from university to being a teacher in higher education. These teacher educators are a minority.

Teacher educators in the Netherlands work in institutes of teacher education, where the main institutional mission is to educate students for their future profession. Today good teacher education is thought of as competence-based, practice-based and student-centred. Most teacher educators (the exceptions being a small group of teachers who are subject specialists) teach their subject and subject 'didactics' (best be translated in this context as 'subject pedagogy') devoting considerable time and energy to the development of their teaching skills. Teaching in teacher education is seen as a complex task, involving a wider range of pedagogical knowledge, skills and understanding. This type of competence-based, practice-based and student-centred education asks from teacher educators that they are able to 'teach' their subject and the accompanying subject pedagogy. It also requires them to centre their students' learning needs in developing those pedagogies and to be able to use relevant assessment and reflection instruments. Portfolios are important tools in guiding, supervising and assessing the professional development of student teachers.

Teacher educators are often involved in scholarship, based on their teaching, and in reflective enquiries into their work as pedagogues. But teacher educators – in both types of universities – do not have to undertake research and publication, as these activities are traditionally defined in academic work. So, for example, a teacher educators' thoughtful enquiries into the practices of teacher education might inform personal practice and, more broadly, the curriculum designs, pedagogies and assessment modes at a local level, but these activities might not be published and disseminated as a conventional research-based publication or 'output'.

In attempts to increase the quality of teacher education research (as judged in conventional terms) in the professional universities and encourage systematic

practice-based research, the Dutch government now invests financial resources to appoint 'lectoren' (readers). These are highly qualified practitioners and researchers whose mission it is to support teacher educators and their departments to improve and be able to contribute to the knowledge society. Teacher education departments have one or more 'lector', each with her/his own 'community of knowledge' through which a group of teacher educators engage in practitioner research.

The national standards for teacher educators are an important aspect of professional development. In 1998 the Dutch Association of Teacher Education (VELON) was invited by the Minister of Education to develop standards for teacher educators and to identify a trajectory that teacher educators could follow to reach these standards. The standards were developed in collaboration with teacher educators and other stakeholders in teacher education (see Koster & Dengerink, 2001). These careful, collaborative processes resulted in the first standards for teacher educators in 1999. In 2003 the standards were updated through the same careful processes. The coordinators of the standards invited teacher educators and their managers from various levels and institutes to reflect on the existing standards and asked for input for the new standards. The coordinators then wrote the new version of the standards that was approved by the members of the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (a summary of the current standards is shown in Fig. 2.2). An important development is that teacher educators can now follow a special trajectory to register with the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators. The standards for teacher educators provide a structure for this trajectory and also function as a mode of assessment.

The national standards have influenced teacher educators in several ways. Firstly, the professional group has benefited from the fact that it has standards that were developed within their own profession. Secondly, the standards articulate the complexity of the pedagogy of teacher education, stressing the inter-weaving of its cognitive, professional and inter-personal aspects in good quality teaching. Teacher educators who have followed the trajectory and registered as teacher educators have worked on their own development, not just as subject specialists or schoolteachers, but as *teacher educators*. The management of teacher education institutes attributes considerable importance to the standards, and will often encourage their teams to achieve registration. This institutional support has contributed to the high number of teacher educators now registered with VELON.

Conclusion

These brief accounts from our three national contexts illustrate some of the key differences in our teacher education systems. For example, as we have shown, teacher education is seen in different ways and implemented by drawing on different models of under-graduate and post-graduate study; and systems of professional regulation – from within and outside the occupational group – vary greatly, affecting the degrees of autonomy which teacher educators have – both individually and communally – over their work. In some important ways teacher educators' work is also understood

differently across the three countries. For example, as the above accounts show, in the Netherlands many teacher educators centre their work around their teaching roles, and are encouraged to do this by their institutes and the VELON Standards; in Israel and in some – but not all – English universities ways of understanding teacher educators' work are closer to the conventional academic model of teaching, research and service to the university (Halsey, 1992).

But our necessarily brief and selective accounts also serve to suggest some of the commonalities in teacher educators' work and ways of understanding their professional identities across and between those differing national contexts. These commonalities are underlined by the available research on teacher educators' work and identities (see, for example, Ducharme, 1993; Korthagen, Loughran & Lunenberg, 2005; Murray, 2007; Smith, 2005). As professional groups, teacher educators have on-going senses of professional responsibility to teachers and to school education, not least in terms of the 'gate keeping' functions they perform in ensuring that their pre-service programmes educate the best possible new teachers. They continue to see teaching and learning as complex processes involving cognitive, social and affective dimensions. Sometimes in resistance to instrumental and reductive discourses which re-interpret teacher education as merely 'training', they understand their pedagogy as involving deep learning processes for them and for their students. They often prioritise their work as teachers of teachers, developing expert pedagogies of teacher education which demand what Loughran (2006, p. 6) defines as both 'knowledge of teaching and of learning about teaching'. For many teacher educators this dual focus includes working to develop learning partnerships and a shared language of teacher education with school-based teacher educators or mentors. In some cases it also involves educating and guiding schoolteachers as they become mentors and teacher educators themselves. Whilst not all teacher educators engage in conventional research activities, as we have explored above, many engage in a scholarship of teaching (Loughran, 2006; Shulman, 1999) involving sustained and systematic enquiry into the practice of teaching teachers. In sociological terms then a profound engagement in the discourses and practices involved in teaching and teacher education is at the heart of teacher educators' work and identities, regardless of the contexts within which they operate.

We see teacher educators as a unique – but often overlooked or devalued – professional group, with distinctive knowledge bases, pedagogical expertise, engagement in scholarship and/or research, and deep rooted social, moral and professional responsibilities to schooling. In articulating these beliefs we reiterate the ways in which many other commentators have understood our occupational group. Writing at the end of the 1980s, for example, Gardner (1989) claimed that teacher education could not continue to be an intuitive-normative process rather the field had to articulate its distinctiveness and those who practised teacher education within it had to take their places as a recognised professional group. Shulman (1998) considers the practitioners of teacher education to be a community of colleagues that is different from the community of teachers and operates according to its own professional principles. Korthagen (2005) stresses that 'teaching about teaching' requires skills, expertise and knowledge that must not be taken for granted. These

authors argue, teacher education should be examined and formulated so that the its distinct nature of within higher education is understood and clarified. As Leah Shagrir (2005) states, understanding teacher education as an independent profession grants it a place of honour, acknowledges the unique theory of knowledge of teacher education, and identifies its distinct tools, language and skills, including the pedagogies and scholarship associated with it (Loughran, 2006).

It is relevant to note that many of the commonalities about the distinctiveness of teacher educators' work and the call for teacher educators' work more fully to be recognised are also reflected in the ATE and VELON Standards (see Figs. 2.1 and 2.2). Both of these sets of standards indicate that good teacher educators will be expert teachers of teachers, as well as scholars involved in the production of differing forms of new knowledge about their field. Importantly, both sets of standards also emphasise teacher educators' moral responsibilities to schooling, to teacher education as a vocational field, and to the development of their own occupational group. As the original version of the ATE standards expressed it:

> Teacher educators have an obligation to be precise about what is entailed in being a teacher educator. To do less at a time when the quality of children's education weighs so heavily in the balance is indefensible (ATE, 2007).

This quote provides a suitable note on which to end this chapter since it neatly links teacher educators' work with their professional responsibilities, not only to their students in teacher education but also to the quality of schooling and to children as learners. We would only wish to add that we hope that our readers will be able to learn from the issues that we have touched upon in this chapter. We hope that this chapter will provide starting points for individuals to participate in rich professional learning conversations with other teacher educators, working in their own institutional and national contexts, as well as across Europe.

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Chapter 3
Professional Codes of Conduct; Towards an Ethical Framework for Novice Teacher Educators

Michal Golan and Göran Fransson

Introduction

This chapter deals with ethical aspects of being and becoming a teacher educator. The awareness of the very existence of ethical issues is an important part of any profession. Putting ethics in the foreground involves responsibility as well as a striving to improve the status of the teaching profession.

To be a teacher in general, and a teacher educator in particular, is much about handling conflicting interests and considering different alternatives of action that derive from different principles, values, backgrounds and personalities. The core essence of teaching is human interaction and very often, interaction occurs in complex situations in which unequal positions of power occur. This, among other reasons, highlights the necessity of a frame of reference for teachers and teacher educators and the need to develop ethical awareness, sensitivity and competence among practitioners at all levels (Campbell, 2003). The ability to develop awareness and competence depends on the ability of individuals to identify and analyse ethical situations. This premise presumes the existence of a common consensus about an ethical dimension in teaching and learning as well as shared democratic views.

Over the last couple of decades, the profession of teacher education has changed profoundly. Due to alleged poor performance, teacher education programmes have become a target for severe criticism in many countries (Maandag et al., 2007). The findings of several researchers (Maandag et al., 2007; Cochran-Smith, 2005; Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002) also underpin the need for reforms in teacher education. These circumstances increase the need for an ethical framework that can serve as a kind of torch in turbulent times (Willemse, Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2005). In order to be more than a sign of good will, such an ethical framework should include universally acknowledged components as well as specific context-related components.

This chapter raises questions and discusses considerations to be taken into account when developing an ethical framework that will support teacher educators

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in coping with the complex dilemmas they face in their work. We do not wish to create a universal ethical standard for teacher education, but we aim to focus on the components that are important for the development of a context-related ethical framework for teacher educators.

We open the chapter with a general overview of ethics and we then highlight the unique aspects of ethics in the teaching profession. In that context, we present some of the various ethical issues that teacher educators face, which derive from the structure of teacher education, the contents of the teacher education curriculum and the process of becoming a teacher. We close the chapter with a discussion about professional codes of conduct and offer some practical suggestions regarding ways to foster the discussion of ethics in teacher education. The main contribution of this chapter lies within the exposure of several aspects of ethical issues deriving from the practice of teacher education. It is aimed to help novice teacher educators to begin focussing on ethical dilemmas and developing an ethical competence.

Ethics in the Education Professions and in Teacher Education

When addressing the issue of teacher education, one cannot avoid including the whole area of education. This section will present an overview of the concepts of ethics and take a closer look at the unique features of ethics in the teaching profession.

Teacher education programmes take place in several kinds of institutes. Thus, we shall look at the literature referring to ethical issues in higher education and in teacher education institutes. We shall also describe different components of the programmes and discuss the potential ethical dilemmas and ethical challenges these programmes pose.

Some Ethical Issues in Teaching and Learning

As a foundation for the discussion of ethical questions, it is important to acknowledge the distinction between moral and ethical principles. Ethics is a general term for the ‘science’ (study) of morality. The word ethics comes from the Greek word ‘ethos’, meaning character, while the word ‘morals’ comes from the Latin word ‘moralis’, meaning custom or manner (Tschudin, 2003, p. 45). Morality is a complex of principles based on social, cultural, historical, religious and philosophical concepts and beliefs of what is right and what is wrong. These concepts and beliefs are often codified by a society or a group and regulate the behaviour, actions and norms of its members. The way people are influenced by them in everyday life can be more or less explicit, and people can be more or less aware of how they are influenced by them. In education, these moral concepts and beliefs are coming into play and are being expressed as an inherent part of the process of teaching and learning. In that sense, teaching and learning are moral activities fraught with ethical issues.

Educational settings include many ethical issues, in which questions about 'right' and 'wrong' are produced. One issue is the teacher's everyday struggle to handle situations and to solve problems and cope with dilemmas in the most appropriate way. Dilemmas are problems that cannot be solved without some remainder being left behind or new dilemmas occurring. Dilemmas are distinguishable from problems in that only the latter leave no remainder and are fully eliminated when solved (Denicolo, 1996). Several questions arise: what is most appropriate? Is there a most appropriate solution? What factors influence the decisions of what is most appropriate? And most appropriate for whom?

From a more philosophical point of view, Hansen (2001) discusses another aspect of ethics. He describes how intellectual and moral learning are intimately related, and he expresses concern about the consequences of acquiring knowledge without paying attention to the influence of the learning process and the newly acquired knowledge on the kind of person one might become. In his view, the process of change involves the ethical issue of mutual influence of those involved in the learning process. Consequently, all teaching has ethical implications within the individual as well as with regard to his/her relations to the surrounding world. For instance, new understanding and insight about injustices in society can make people feel uncomfortable or even evoke feelings of guilt. New understanding might also motivate people to become actively involved in a struggle for a better world. Therefore, teachers and teacher educators need to be aware of possible influences they might have on student teachers and look at their day-to-day work from an ethical perspective.

Another example of an ethical issue in teaching concerns the selection of content, that is, what is included and what is excluded in the curriculum (Colnerud, 1997). The selection can be made, intentionally or unintentionally, for pedagogical or for disciplinary reasons (e.g. choose a 'simple' content, not to challenge the pupils' patience), but it might as well derive from economic, social, religious or personal preferences. For instance, in times of social, cultural or religious sensitivity one might wonder whether it is ethical to avoid, or not to avoid, questions and curriculum content that might increase anxiety. Or is it ethical to ask questions and select content to avoid an increase in anxiety? The selection of content is no doubt an ethical question, as it contains questions of power, justice and concepts of 'right' and 'wrong' as well as values, beliefs and personal convictions.

Ethics in Teacher Education

In many countries, teacher education takes place in higher education institutions. Thus, it seems relevant to look at higher education and gain a better understanding of its potential influence on student teachers. The literature relating to ethics in higher education is increasing, and the fact that inappropriate norms, as plagiarism or cheating in examinations, penetrate into the academic world is disturbing to education managements on all levels (Devlin & Gray, 2007; Gitanjali, 2004). Writers point to the fact that this reflects the discernible slack of ethical norms in

the professional world, but at the same time they argue that as the academy prepares the future generation, it should take active steps to change the picture (Bui, 2003).

Keith-Speigel, Whitly, Ware-Balogh, Perkins, & Witting (2002) claim that teachers in higher education are often ill-prepared to cope with ethical aspects in their profession and even find it difficult to identify such aspects. They are convinced that these questions should receive much more attention in higher education.

Gur-Ze'ev (2002) points to three major factors that contribute to inappropriate behaviour (e.g. cheating or shirking) in higher education: values' ambiguity, personality or personal features and organisational factors. Reasons students plagiarise are for instance laziness/convenience, external pressures, poor academic skills, a range of teaching and learning factors (as insufficient teaching or students often expected to understand assignments, with little or no help from their teachers), institutional admission criteria or that students do not know what plagiarism is (Devlin & Gray, 2007). Post-modern points of view are also likely to play a role in increasing the ambiguous picture by blurring the borders between 'right' and 'wrong' and between academic freedom and academic commitment. Globalisation makes ethical dilemmas come closer to us in our everyday lives, e.g. through television, the Internet or while interacting with other cultures, perspectives and ways to act (Cragg, 2005). Equality, gender and diversity are some among many other important issues that globalisation brings to new ethical issues. Teacher educators have to deal with them in their everyday work when trying to develop teacher students' ethical competence. In the next section, we shall look at the various components of teacher education programmes and discuss potential dilemmas in these programs.

Ethics Within the Teacher Education Programme

Teacher education usually takes place in two arenas – the campus and the school. The teacher education curriculum is best seen as a whole, and the differentiation we make here between school- and institute-based learning of student teachers stresses the different dilemmas and challenges that each learning context may present. Exposing some aspects of the uniqueness of each arena might contribute to the awareness of the complexity and the multifaceted character of the construction of an ethical framework. We will start with ethical dilemmas concerning the teacher educators themselves and then continue to more specific dilemmas associated with the process of developing teacher students' ethical competence.

Ethical Aspects of Institute-Based Learning

Institute-based learning includes all the courses and the informal interaction taking place in campus. As such, it includes the organisational culture, policy and atmosphere of teacher education and the translation of these factors into a curriculum. Teachers in higher education on the whole and teacher educators in particular serve

as role models and, therefore, bear a heavy responsibility both as teachers and as individuals for the process of becoming a teacher. Recent studies reinforce that open dialogues within teaching teams and between faculty and student teachers have the potential to influence student teachers' attitudes towards ethical aspects in their work (Tigchelaar & Korthagen, 2004; Golan & Ressissi, 2006).

Teacher education involves the construction of knowledge, attitudes and skills. In the light of these central elements, it is not surprising that a number of writers favour the strategy of case study as a preferred method for learning ethics – as case studies help to visualise and conceptualise what to learn (cf. Campbell, 2003; Coombs, 1998; Beyer, 1997). Some go further and suggest that learning increases if the cases are authentic and based on the students' concrete experiences (Tigchelaar & Korthagen, 2004). This is important to be able to increase the relevance of the learning process for the individual student and to help connect newly acquired theories with existing ones (Campbell, 1997). Authors also stress the importance of learning from live experiences in a well-planned and systematic manner. In doing so, people become aware of what they are learning or what kind of ethical attitudes they have – and why. However, working this way makes great demands on teacher educators. It requires a solid foundation in philosophical and practical knowledge and the ability to crystallise and express one's own stance openly. This includes the ability to realise and understand that all teaching and learning contain moral and ethical implications, which are not always obvious (Hansen, 2001). It also requires high skills in responding to issues raised spontaneously, e.g. being able to analyse and discuss issues in a variety of ways, like practical implications in the classroom or more philosophical aspects related to the curriculum.

Ethical Aspects of School-Based Learning

Teacher educators play a mediating role in the two main arenas of acquiring the profession – higher education institutions and schools. They have different roles in each of these contexts and are required to develop and enact different sensitivities. The supervising and mediating role within the schools is especially saturated with controversial and competing obligations, and it sometimes requires constant juggling with different commitments. For instance, when do we reach a point when teacher student's 'trial and error' in the classroom is no longer ethically acceptable? Are some concerns more important than others? The teacher educator's multiple loyalties, to the teacher education institute, the school and the student teachers, require special caution and put high ethical demands. Teacher educators are very often caught in the middle between obligations to different partners involved in the programme and are forced to make ethical decisions that might derive from conflicting values and duties.

Turney et al. (1982) add to the dilemmas of multiple loyalties the dilemma of the multiple roles of the teacher educators' supervision of their students at school. They stress the complexity of the relationships between the teacher educator and the

individual student teacher. They also describe five interwoven roles that the teacher educator has to play while facilitating field experience: observer, guide, giver of feedback, counsellor and assessor. Each situation requires different roles and very often the roles blend and contradict each other. This is what might happen when one expresses empathy to subjective difficulties and has to give 'objective' assessment to the student teacher performance at the same time. Another example when contradictory roles could emerge is when it comes to the necessity of following high professional standards on the one hand and to allow mistakes and failures in the student's learning process on the other hand.

The issue of student assessment involves many ethical aspects. Often the information exchanged between the institute-based teacher educator and the schoolteacher about the student teacher, an adult learner, is discussed and analysed whilst he/she is absent. The temptation to 'slip' from an assessment discourse into irrelevant personal gossip is apparent. The individual's sensitivities and abilities to receive feedback on a certain situation are another issue to be constantly examined, e.g. how to act when problems or failure depends on the teacher student's personality.

Some of the dilemmas that teacher educators face derive from the demands of their professional role. Teacher educators are required to be familiar with the theoretical and the practical knowledge base of teaching. Very often, they have to handle a situation in which a student teacher performs unevenly. He/she might perform excellently in the classroom, creating interaction with the children, but might have problems understanding theoretical parts of the curriculum. Difficult questions are raised on such occasions: is it appropriate not to approve of the student, with the consequence that he/she will not get a teaching degree? Is it more appropriate to make special allowance in the examination for that specific theoretical part? What is best for the student teacher? For the future pupils? For the reputation of the specific teacher educator or his/her institute?

The appropriateness of a decision or action usually depends on a complex of principles based on social, cultural, historical, religious, philosophical and educational concepts and on beliefs of what is right and what is wrong. Some of the considerations underpinning those actions are implicit whereas some are explicit, and discussing them in an open manner might contribute to awareness and professionalism.

The requirement to cope with this kind of ethical dilemmas (and many others) in a constructive way calls for a joint effort of all the involved parties aimed at promoting professional development (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999). It is evident that even though the subject of ethics is interwoven in all aspects of life and teaching, and in its own way is an interdisciplinary issue, we cannot leave it to intuition or randomly accumulated experience. The community of teacher educators has to give it a thorough and systematic thought in order to help novice teacher educators and future teachers to construct theoretical frames of reference and directions of action. The building of these frames is strongly connected with the issue of choosing and handling the various contents and contexts to support the emerging attitudes of student teachers.

Ethical Aspects of Selecting Curriculum Content to Support Ethical Competence

Prior to a discussion of the difficult issue of selecting the 'proper' curriculum content, teacher educators, or rather the institute, have to look at its policy regarding ethics studies and address questions such as should ethical issues be dealt with separately or be integrated in all courses? Is it the concern of a specially committed group of teacher educators or the concern of the whole community (including faculties who teach specific subjects)? Is it important enough to 'waste' time on it while teacher educators have to 'cover' so many other subjects? Is there a decent way of doing it? Are faculties aware of its importance in personal and professional life or in teaching and learning?

Different institutes give different answers to these questions and each answer has different implications (Coombs, 1998). The institutional policy (or the absence of it) is one side of the coin. Another one is the individual's point of view and opinion. One's self-awareness and personal stances, and the influence these have on one's own selection of contents, is a serious subject to consider. Teacher educators serve as 'living role models' and have to be aware of personal opinions and possible bias, and they need to be able to expose them openly (Keith-Speigel et al., 2002).

In many countries, schools and academic institutions forbid that teaching is used as a stage for political preaching. For that reason, it is important to make a difference between propaganda or indoctrination and expressing human care, social involvement and good citizenship.

One of the criteria for choosing specific curriculum content is its potential to support the accumulated practical knowledge and professional understandings of student teachers and to help them to construct professional attitudes. The need to define and choose the theoretical issues to be taught with regard to ethics in education is a subject for debate in the literature (Coombs, 1998; Campbell, 1997; Beyer, 1997). Coombs (1998) reviewed several studies done in this area and describes two main approaches, both developed mainly with the aim of helping student teachers to reason about educational ethics. He writes: 'It either sets forth an ethical theory or set of ethical principles for educators to follow and instruct them on how these principles are to be applied, or attempts to improve the reasoning educators engage in when deliberating about ethical problems' (p. 556).

Coombs presents a critical view on the value of explicating ethical principles and is quite sceptical about the contribution of special courses in educational ethics. He also doubts whether philosophical expositions or ethical theories can fulfil the aims mentioned above and carefully suggests that the emphasis should be on the direction of developing 'moral sensitivity along with deliberative and dialogical competence' (ibid., p. 567). Campbell (1997) is more determined in recommending this path. She talks about the orientation of the contents of value-laden courses saying that those courses 'although not concerned with the how-to-do details of teaching should provide the how-to-interpret-what-is-and-should-be-done focus to help student teachers make informed professional decisions about what is good practice and ethical behaviour and enable them to anticipate the value-laden dilemmas

that they will inevitably confront in schools' (p. 257). This very clear direction does not necessarily exclude the teaching of ethical foundations being taught in courses (Campbell, 1997). It rather draws our attention to the question of appropriate strategies and settings for teaching and learning in dealing with such a complex component of the profession. Developing ethical sensitivity is a cumbersome and time-consuming activity, but practical experience, accompanied with self- and group reflections and connected to theories, seems a promising path to follow (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999). Role plays could be another fertile way, as situations could be 'played' and ethical dilemmas made visible and concrete. The opportunities to stop the role play, reflect and put forward suggestions of other ways to act in the play turn the role play into an interactive and dynamic method, which might contribute to the development of teacher students' ethical competence. In the next section, we will give another practical tool for the development of ethical competence.

Development of Ethical Competence and Ethical Sensitivity Within the Community of Teacher Educators

In this section we widen the discussion to the area of developing professional codes of conduct within teacher educator communities. We believe that the issue should be given priority at the very first stage of induction and professional socialisation of teacher educators. Taking part in a joint experience of discussing ethical aspects of the roles of teacher educators and determining their significance might help promote ethical awareness and ethical sensitivity with teacher educators, which might in time influence the way they convey these issues to their student teachers.

Discussing Professional Codes of Conduct as a Way to Re-negotiate Professional Values, Goals and Potential Obstacles

The development of professional codes of conduct for teacher educators is connected with many of the questions and themes discussed above. Many professions have made what is considered appropriate behaviour explicit, by formulating ethical codes of conduct. We can find them in business (see De Gerge, 2006; Bowie, 2005), in medical service (see Hugman, 2005; Tschudin, 2003), in social work (see Becket & Maynard, 2005) and in education (Campbell, 2003). These codes might be seen as written statements of expected behaviour. Pater and Van Gils (2003) define an ethical code as 'a written, distinct and formal document which consists of moral standards used to guide employee or corporate behaviour' (p. 764). These ethical codes regulate the professional practice in addition to the juridical regulations of the profession. While juridical regulations are manifested and have their basis for sanctions in laws and legislation, ethical codes are manifested and have their base for sanctions in a more informal way, for instance as loss of confidence from clients, stakeholders, customers or colleagues.

However, ethical codes of conduct are not merely used to regulate behaviour of a group of people. They are also powerful tools to construct a positive image in the eyes of the professional and others, as well as a way of trying to gain legitimacy and status in the public eye. For instance, when an occupational group is trying to have their occupation recognised as a profession, the design of ethical codes is often used as a tool to claim professionalism, as professional ethical codes are considered a characteristic of professionalism as well as part of the process of professionalisation (Colnerud, 1997; 2006).

Campbell (2003) stresses that ethical codes and ethical knowledge could provide a basis for 'a renewed sense of professionalism, not simply for reasons of status or even accountability, but for the purpose of redefining the collective profession in ethical terms' (ibid., p. 4). This statement expresses concern for the teaching professions and is an argument for the creation of professional codes of conducts for teachers and teacher educators. Another important argument is the concern for the clients – the future teachers and their pupils (Colnerud, 1997; 2006).

Teacher education has unique professional features and as such calls for a unique code of ethical conduct. This code should reflect the desired values as well as the potential hurdles lying ahead of teacher educators. The process of defining and determining its content is likely to be beneficial for all members, experts and novices.

There are a number of professional codes of conduct outlined for the teaching professions in various countries, contexts and levels of the educational system. Within higher education, there exist nationwide codes for members of different unions or associations. In Sweden, The Swedish Association of University Teachers (SULF) has developed some ethical guidelines for university teachers, not just for teacher educators (SULF, 2004). These guidelines focus on aspects of quality (e.g. the teacher's obligation to have sufficient qualifications and knowledge; be well prepared; be a model for the students), the aspect of respect (e.g. for the students' situation, personality, competence and opinion and values), the aspect of fairness (e.g. give acknowledgement to others who have contributed to one's own performances; being fair in valuing students' performances and work) and the aspect of openness (e.g. meet deviant opinions or criticism openly and not assume them being wrong; participate in the creation of an open, friendly and reviewing atmosphere).

Examples of more specific codes of conduct for teacher educators exist for instance at MOFET Institute – the centre for Research, Curriculum and Program Development for Teacher Education in Israel. This code concentrates on four specific commitments embedded in the profession:

1. Commitment to one's own professionalism and professional development
2. Commitment to student teachers
3. Commitment to peer teacher educators and
4. Commitment to colleagues in field-experience systems

Each section is detailed according to common values, essence of mutual relations and potential hurdles. This code of conduct is based on drafts being discussed in two teacher colleges in Israel and formulated in a joint forum of teacher educators at the MOFET Institute.

A quick scan of the Internet results in a lot of websites discussing or offering professional ethical codes from varying perspectives. We believe that these kinds of forums could support the development of professional codes of conducts, especially if it is realised in a collaborative manner. Such a development has the potential to offer significant contributions to the understanding of the profession in general and sensitivity to its ethical dimensions in particular. Both are highly important for newly appointed teacher educators.

Recommendations for Developing Ethical Competence

In this section, we invite the reader to examine some suggestions aimed at encouraging the beginning teacher educators and the institutes at which they work, to establish a systematic way of studying and promoting the issue of ethics in teacher education. Most of the suggestions are based on our personal and institutional experience, and we believe that they might be relevant and beneficial for beginners elsewhere. We shall divide our recommendation into general suggestions that relate to beginning teacher educators as such and to specific suggestions that focus specifically on the subject of ethics. Here we present five general suggestions to support beginning teacher educators.

1. *Establishing an institutional group discussion*: Creating a peer group for beginning and expert teacher educators might play an important role throughout the induction phase. The group has to have formal recognition and should meet on a regular basis. It should have a chair who is in charge of the programme. It is recommended that the group works according to a plan in which there is space for emerging themes. The plan should include peer learning, for instance case study analysis, and serve as a support group at the same time. Ethical dilemmas should be given priority in the programme.
2. *Using peer observations*: Newly appointed teacher educators can start to develop their ethical competence prior to the start of their work in teacher education. They may observe institute- and school-based teaching and supervision and attend group meetings, with teacher educators at the institute as well as with teachers at schools. Expert teacher educators can attract the attention of novice teacher educators to hidden or evident situations involving the need to consider ethical dilemmas.
3. *Learning from 'case library'*: Expert teacher educators can build a 'case library' consisting of analysed cases that might serve as good examples for future discussions.
4. *Appointing a peer coach*: Evidence shows that novice teacher educators make good use of the mentoring situation. It could, therefore, be fruitful for newly appointed staff members to have an expert peer coach who serves as a personal mentor (see also Chapters 6 and 7).
5. *Initiating collaboration between institute-based teacher educators*: At many university-based teacher education institutes, the teaching of subject courses and

the teaching of practice-oriented courses are organised by two different departments. One suggestion to deal with this is that staff members of both departments establish different kinds of cooperation and collaboration and carry out a continuing dialogue on different levels starting from an informative level through a strategic and pedagogical level. The theoretical and practical facets of ethics should be dealt with at such meetings.

In addition, we present seven specific recommendations to promote the development of ethical competence of teacher educators.

1. The development of an institutional framework (guidelines) for professional codes of conduct for teacher educators. The code should be designed in a collaborative manner.
2. The development of a plan for how ethical issues will be given attention and used to increase the ethical competence of staff members, students and administrators.
3. Research focussing on ethical dilemmas should be initiated by individuals as well as faculties.
4. The design of systematic models to study, discuss and cope with ethical dilemmas in both the university and in the schools.
5. The development of institutional regulations such as promotion criteria and criteria for the increase of wages should include ethical aspects of the profession.
6. The encouragement of faculty members to take part in courses dealing with ethical dilemmas inside and outside the organisation. Courses developing and accrediting teachers in higher education should deal with ethical dilemmas of teaching and learning. The encouragement of the senior management for staff members (teacher educators) to learn to cope with ethical dilemmas in courses and during field experience and to be involved in debates about academic and interpersonal honesty/dishonesty.

Most of these suggestions have been used at the authors' institutes and appear to be most stimulating and supporting for novice and expert teacher educators. Ethical dilemmas have, for instance, been discussed in a pedagogical course for university teachers in a constructive and elaborative way. As the participants were from different disciplines, not just teacher education, but also economics and engineering, the discussions focussed on ethical dilemmas in teaching and learning from a variety of perspectives. The directions described above are not always easy to conduct and do not ensure success in evoking awareness of ethical issues, but we believe that teacher educators should initiate discussions and incorporate the awareness of the ethical issue in both the systems – teacher education institutes and schools. The responsibility to support the beginners should be in the interest of the novice teacher educator, the unit he/she belongs to, the teacher education institute, student teachers – and ultimately the pupils. Beginners have an important role in the organisation as they tend to identify weak points in the system. Novice teacher educators should feel confident enough to express their opinions, and experienced colleagues should be open enough to listen to them. Using the fresh glance as a lever to promote the profession is likely to be beneficial for all concerned.

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, we have discussed the issue of ethics from various points of view, mainly from the perspective of teacher educators. We have also discussed the need for teacher educators to develop ethical competence (Campbell, 2003; Keith-Speigel et al., 2002), i.e. to discover, analyse and tackle ethical dimensions in teaching. Ethical competence can be enhanced by the development of professional codes of conduct for teacher educators, as well as for teachers in schools and in kindergartens. These professional codes of conduct are an important aspect in the development of standards for teachers and teacher educators (see Chapter 2). As standards are created to reflect competences, as well as potential hurdles, professional codes of conduct could create a framework of appropriate norms, values and actions for teacher educators. In this sense, the development of standards for teacher educators could become a powerful tool to bring the issue of ethical competence and professional codes of conduct to the foreground of teacher education and into the process of professionalisation of teacher educators. Whether this will become a reality depends on the teacher educators themselves.

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Chapter 4
Partnerships Between Schools and Teacher Education Institutes

Corinne van Velzen, Christopher Bezzina and Peter Lorist

Introduction

Society has developed into a complex system of organisations and interactions, therefore the demands on schools and schooling has increased and the need for professional teachers increased accordingly. 'The profession of teaching is becoming more and more complex. The demands placed on teachers are increasing. The environments in which they work are more and more challenging' (Commission of the European Community, 2007, p. 2).

With the recognition of teaching as a profession it has been acknowledged that all teachers require specialised training in order to develop the knowledge and competences necessary to take on teaching. As early as the end of the 1980s a growing dissatisfaction with 'teaching practice' culminated in a UNESCO report in which teacher preparation was regarded as 'insufficient, due to a lack of linkages between for instance subject matter and teaching processes, and preparation for diverse class and school situations'. Furthermore, 'the lack of training of cooperating teachers and the lack of credibility of college or university supervisors' was seen as a real problem (Down, Hogan & Madigan, 1995, p. 62). To address these problems teacher education institutes developed curricula based on the real problems student teacher need to learn to address in order to do their work in schools and classrooms (e.g. Bullough, 1997).

Two important concepts underlying these new forms of teacher education are school-based teacher education and professional development schools. In the next section we will elaborate on these two concepts. During the last twenty years these changes in the practice of educating teachers have resulted in partnerships between schools and teacher education institutes. There is a great variety in form and intensity of partnerships in and between countries. We present three examples in two different countries of partnerships between schools and teacher education institutes to illustrate school-based teacher education and professional development schools.

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Christopher Bezzina describes partnerships in Malta, in the tradition of the professional development school movement.

Corinne van Velzen discusses a partnership in the area of Amsterdam, the Netherlands. The main objective of this partnership is to create a school-based teacher education curriculum, especially the school part.

Peter Lorist presents a partnership in the Utrecht area, in the Netherlands. Vocational education institutes cooperate with the institute for teacher education to assure that school development becomes strongly intertwined with school-based teacher education: a form of professional development schools.

In the final sections of this chapter we summarize some of the consequences for teacher educators involved in these partnerships and we discuss some research outcomes.

School-Based Teacher Education and Professional Development Schools

School-based teacher education is based on the assumptions that teacher education should be based on the real problems student teachers need to address in order to do their work in schools and classrooms (e.g. Bullough, 1997). Teaching is a very complex profession and formative in nature, one grows within the profession and hence through daily experiences. Becoming a teacher is not only a matter of getting access to a certain body of knowledge and acquiring adequate skills. Becoming a teacher is transformational and it is therefore, first and foremost, about developing one's own personal and professional identity. Such an identity can be obtained and enriched by taking part in school practices and in the daily life of teachers. Next to participation student teachers do need a form of formal education.

Thus, school-based teacher education in our view is only possible when schools and teacher education institutes collaborate intensively and recognise the strengths and possibilities each has to offer to the student teachers' learning. As a consequence, teacher educators are not only found in institutes for teacher education, but more and more in schools.

Within these partnerships student teachers can learn from theory and practice, but the question how to link theory and practice is still an important issue in school-based teacher education. Collaboration between schools and institutes in order to encourage school development and connect it with teacher education can be one avenue worth pursuing to address this challenge. This form of collaboration is known as collaborative school-based teacher education and it elaborates on the ideas of the professional development schools (Ten Dam & Blom, 2006).

Professional development schools are initially developed in the USA (Holmes Group, 1986). In professional development schools teacher education is embedded in the overall process of school development and professional development of all teachers. A professional development school is based on collaborative relationships

between teacher educators and teachers. It is a school in which not only student teachers are educated, but also a place where teacher educators and teachers can collaborate on research and development (Abdal-Haqq, 1998). All this is to take place within an organisational structure that encourages professional development and empowerment. Professional development schools have a number of characteristics, although not all of them are realised in each school or within each partnership between each school and teacher education institute. Here we present three of the main characteristics:

Congruent learning and developmental possibilities for all partners: Pupils, student teachers, experienced teachers, teacher educators, researchers and management. A professional development school is an ideal setting for beginning institute-based teacher educators to work alongside teachers and student teachers as they 'learn' to address practical issues from a theory-practice perspective.
Professional development: Teachers take on new roles and differentiated responsibilities involving goal setting, problem solving, decision making, student assessment, teacher preparation, scheduling and staff development. Collaborative inquiry into the teaching and learning processes is encouraged to increase the knowledge base of teachers and teacher educators who are involved in teacher education.
Curriculum development: Collaboration between partners is directed at improving the education and experiences of all pupils. Teachers who work in professional development schools are encouraged to experiment and take risks. Staff members are involved in trying out and evaluating new practices both in designing and mentoring learning processes as in organisational development.

Establishing Partnerships: Three Examples

Over the last years teacher education institutes and schools in several European countries have experimented with partnership models. They developed their own ways of collaboration imbedded in the structures and cultures of their own institutions. In this section we present three partnerships that are based on the ideas described in the former section and each partnership has found its own solutions for problems that are connected with complex and new forms of collaboration. The examples are based on experiences of the three authors of this chapter. Each author is involved in the partnership between his or her own teacher education institute and secondary schools. The authors are also interested in the development of the teachers in the schools who supervise the student teachers. In the examples these mentors are developing more and more into school-based teacher educators.

The first example is from Malta. The Faculty of Education at the University of Malta is collaborating with secondary schools in order to improve the learning opportunities for the student teachers in particular and to create learning opportunities

and innovation in the schools and the Faculty of Education in general. In these examples the teachers from the university are referred to as Faculty and the supervising teachers are called 'mentors'.

The second and third examples are from the Netherlands. Partnership between schools and teacher education institutes in the Netherlands generally emerged from situations comparable to those that generated school-based teacher education in other European countries, such as the UK. Apart from the necessity to improve the quality of teacher education, as described above, predicted shortage of teachers in the Netherlands, made it necessary to find alternative ways to educate teachers (Bolhuis, 2002). Teacher education institutes, schools and the Dutch government decided to join forces, and with government funds, a number of schemes for collaboration between schools and teacher education institutes were developed. It is important to stress that schools and teacher education institutes were, and are, autonomous in designing their partnership, and collaboration became an opportunity for schools and institutes to learn from each other and improve the quality of teachers and ensure the education a sufficient number of teachers for the future.

The first Dutch example is from a university-based teacher education institute in Amsterdam, which is part of CETAR (Centre for Educational Training, Assessment and Research) and part of VU University Amsterdam. This institute offers a one year post-Master course for a teaching diploma that allows teachers to work at all levels of secondary education, including senior general secondary education and pre-university education. CETAR has formed partnerships with six schools in and around Amsterdam. A characteristic of this partnership is the education of the supervising teachers, who developed from mentors to school-based teacher educators.

The third example is also from the Netherlands. The Archimedes Teacher Education Institute is part of Hogeschool Utrecht, a university for professional education in the centre of the Netherlands. This teacher education institute offers various bachelor and Master courses for teaching diplomas for all kinds of secondary education. The example focuses on courses for pre-vocational education and vocational education and elaborates on the process of increasing collaboration between Archimedes Teacher Education Institute and about 150 schools. Over the years these mentors in these schools have evolved into school-based teacher educators.

In both Dutch examples the teachers of the institutes are called institute-based teacher educators and the educators who work in school are called school-based teacher educators.

Faculty of Education, University of Malta

This section explores an initiative undertaken in the island of Malta by the Faculty of Education as part of the developments in the teacher education programme. It presents its move to establish partnerships with schools. This initiative is being undertaken so as to capitalize on the expertise of beginning teacher educators to

bridge the gap between university studies and the realities of school life. This aim, it is envisaged, will address at least three objectives:

- Improve the quality of the teaching practicum.
- Create a more 'realistic' and meaningful environment for varied forms of learning to take place.
- Nurture a culture of cooperation and collaboration between the Faculty of Education and schools on different aspects of teaching and learning.

The educational climate within the Faculty of Education has witnessed, especially over the last ten years as, 'A shift from individualism to social relationships' (Bezzina & Camilleri, 1998). The four-year B.Ed. (Hons.) programme is based on the following main features: 'Participation, consultation, support, collaboration, reflection, motivation, openness and empowerment'. Various initiatives have been undertaken (e.g. Tomorrow's Teachers Project, 1998) which have helped both the individuals members within the Faculty but also the Faculty's own identity and character to grow.

Our discourse, together with that of our students, has taught us over the years that we need to seriously address the dichotomy between what is learned at the university and the realities in schools. Our discourse, together with a growing literature in the field of professional development schools (Darling-Hammond, 1994) has highlighted the benefits that can be gained through school-centred initial teacher training. Therefore the main purpose of the Faculty of Education professional development school partnership will be simultaneous renewal of the teacher education programme at the university and teaching and learning in schools.

The setting up of a University-School Partnership offers us the possibility of exploring different ways of learning as a result of which there will be greater relevance to the teaching-learning context (Teitel, 1998). Professional development schools create opportunities, which allow us, as teacher educators, to take on different roles. It is within such a context that we expect beginning teacher educators to feel at their best. They have just left the classrooms and are therefore ideally positioned to establish the necessary philosophical and pedagogical underpinnings needed for any professional discourse to take place. Experience has shown us the need to work together with teachers in schools. On the one hand we need teachers at the school site who, through their diverse qualities, will be good models to prospective teachers. In this respect teachers can serve as mentors or cooperating teachers, both fulfilling different but complimentary roles. On the other hand, the university lecturer has the opportunity of getting closer to the school and establishing the ground for educational discourse to take place between the student teachers and teacher educators alike. Such opportunities do not only effect the personal and professional development of participants in the classroom context, but also address areas which go beyond the classroom and which effect school life in general.

The contribution by mentors should ascertain a partnership of teachers and faculty alike in at least the following areas: the education of student teachers, the development of school programmes and continued teacher formation. In this model, the student teacher learns from a mentor and a cooperating teacher by spending

quality time in the classroom observing the cooperating teacher perform tasks, asking questions and receiving assistance and gradually assuming increasing personal responsibilities as his/her knowledge and skills develop. The cooperating teacher initially models the task for the student teacher, and then provides coaching (i.e. instructions, feedback) as the student teacher attempts the task, fading the amount of coaching and turning over more and more responsibility for task completion to the student teachers as their skills develop.

Within the context of school site management, which the government is striving for, the recommended reforms for the B.Ed teacher education programme will help to generate the climate that has been lacking in our schools – that of schools being centres of enquiry and activity. In this way the dynamics of schooling takes on a different dimension – one that puts educators at the centre of a process which generates uses and personalizes knowledge. Through such a process schools can gradually become valuable agencies of research and analysis and indeed learning communities (e.g. Bezzina, 2006) critical for the success of current government decentralisation reforms.

Such a context would be unique in this regard. It will help us to create a systematic programme based on job-embedded learning. The transition from the realities of classroom life for the beginning teacher educator to one where he/she needs to handle theoretical paradigms can easily be embedded within the strategy of professional development schools. Such a context will help to challenge the theory-practice divide through the creation of a 'natural' environment for 'shared' learning to take place.

It is hoped that with the proper piloting of this scheme the different stakeholders will appreciate the benefits that are to be accrued for the whole profession. All this may sound overtly optimistic. We are slowly becoming aware that the setting-up, and more so, sustaining such institutions is not only a highly political issue, but also one demanding extremely high levels of commitment at the personal/collective levels, and the financial backing to sustain such efforts (Teitel, 1998). Indeed no easy task. In fact, such concerns have been already shared with the appropriate authorities and we do expect their response and backing (Bezzina, Borg, Camilleri, & Mallia, 2005).

Establishing Partnership in Amsterdam

In line with international developments the teacher education department of CETAR initiated a partnership with six schools for secondary education in and around Amsterdam to improve the education of the student teachers. The teacher education program is a one year post-master study in which student teachers develop professional competences. In this section we address the way the teacher education curriculum has become more school-based.

Since 1987 teachers for pre-university education are educated in specialized centres within Dutch universities. From the very beginning student teachers spent

half their time in schools. Although the collaboration between the institute and the schools has always been good this collaboration was mainly organisational: schools provided places for student practice and the teacher educators at the university were responsible for all the assignments students had to carry out in the schools and for the assessment of the student teachers. Figure 4.1 illustrates the relation and responsibilities between school and institute.

In 1999 we, schools and the teacher education institute together, initiated a training program for mentors at the university in order to improve the quality of mentoring within schools. Twelve subject teachers from six different secondary schools were involved. These twelve teachers had some experience in mentoring student teachers, but none of them were formally trained.

In 2002 the schools and the institute agreed that part of the curriculum would be taught in school. The training of the twelve teachers, then, was extended to *teaching* teachers instead of only mentoring. Each school, in turn, set up a support system for their own staff.

A school-based curriculum in teacher education is based on shared responsibilities between school and the teacher education institute. The trained twelve teachers and the support system within the schools made it possible for the twelve teachers to take that resposibility. In 2003 six general themes (Becoming a Professional, Class Management, Communication and Interaction within the Classroom, Collaborative Learning, Lesson Design and Pupil Mentoring) were identified to be taught within the schools. School-based teacher educators would teach each theme, next to mentoring the student teachers. A number of seminars were designed to introduce the assignments and the theoretical aspects of the themes in a way which matches the ideas of the schools and the demands of the institute. At the university a supportive electronic learning management system in Blackboard was set-up for both students and educators. The mentors kept their roles in the classroom.

The assessment conversations became a shared responsibility of school and institute. The teacher educators in the schools had to learn to work with a digital portfolio

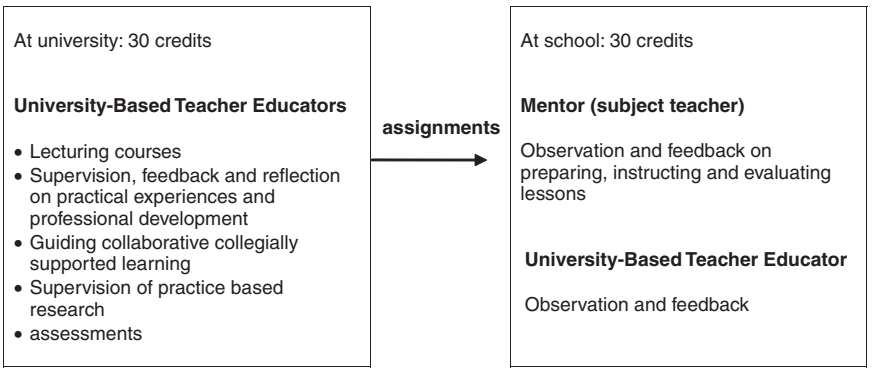

Fig. 4.1 Relation and division of responsibilities between institute and school in regular teacher education

and other assessment instruments that are commonly used to assess student teachers at CETAR. Special procedures were developed for the final assessment interviews and crediting the course. Although part of the curriculum now was implemented in the six schools, the institute still remained legally responsible for the students' certification.

A number of organisational adaptations had to be made. In each school the timetables were adjusted so that student teachers and their school-based teacher educators (who were also teachers) could meet on a regular basis. Similarly, at the institute things had to change. All teacher educators had to get used to the idea that student teachers can learn how to teach both within the institute and the school. It is not always easy to share responsibility, but on the whole school-based teacher educators, institute-based teacher educators and their student teachers were able to collaborate within the new and wider boundaries of the teacher education program. The division of responsibilities of our work together is presented in Fig. 4.2.

We are constantly improving the fruitful combination of university-based and school-based learning. We learn how important, next to planned seminars, the unplanned learning possibilities within schools are and how school-based educators can help student teachers to identify that moments and make them meaningful. Systematic deep and broad reflection is an important tool for us (see Korthagen, 2001). Special attention still has to be paid to different types of (theoretical) knowledge in and outside schools (Hodkinson, 2005).

In working together we experienced that good communication between all actors is a key factor for sucessful collaboration. So each school-based teacher educator has a permanent contact with an institute-based teacher educator, who informs the school-based teacher educator, gives feedback and supports the school-based

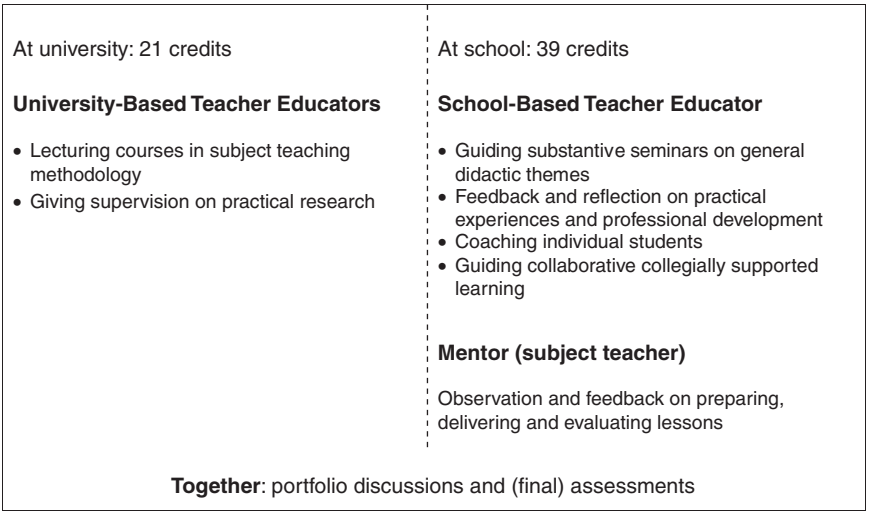

Fig. 4.2 Responsibilities of the institute-based teacher educator and the school-based teacher educator in 2006

teacher educator. Similarly, the school informs the institute about what happens in the school.

It is hard becoming a teacher educator within an institute for teacher education (see Chapters 6 and 7), but it is even harder to do so in school where pupil learning is the first focus. As it turned out, the training the twelve teachers received was insufficient; there was too little time for more formal courses. Even more important, while working as teacher educators, new and unforeseen challenges came up. For example school-based teacher educators thought it was very difficult to evaluate and asses the teacher students, especially at the end of the course. They also envisaged problems when working together with other mentors of the student teachers, like subject teachers. We had to find other ways to develop the competences and identity of the teachers who are becoming teacher educators in their own school (e.g. Ritter, 2007). That is why during these years we developed a way of cooperative learning, based on meeting on a regular basis, talking about our work and reflecting upon our actions, ideas and convictions. We now share our worries and celebrate our successes and we inspire and motivate each other. On the one hand, we are developing into a community of practice that is a group of professionals who are mutually engaged in educating teacher students, who see that as a joint enterprise and who are developing a shared repertoire of language, actions and tools (Wenger, 1998). On the other hand we value our differences and we are learning from frequently crossing the borders between school and institute.

There has been a major improvement in the mentoring of the student teachers and they are very satisfied with the personal attention and support provided. However, the cooperation between the school-based teacher educator and other teachers who act as mentors in the schools still needs improvement. We worked hard to establish these partnerships, partnerships which aimed to meet the needs and differences of the schools, the institute and the student teachers. Perhaps the most important characteristic of these partnerships is the trust we actually can teach teachers together.

The Utrecht Model

The ‘Utrecht Model’ is an intensive partnership between Archimedes Teacher Education Institute and several secondary schools and schools for pre-vocational and vocational education. Among others, the Archimedes Teacher Education Institute offers a four-year integrated bachelor course and a professional Master course to get a teaching degree in secondary education and vocational education. We start this example with a short description of what we have done over the last two decades. After that we will focus on the project ’Teacher in Vocational Education’.

Over the past twenty years Dutch teacher education institutes offering a bachelor level course developed a system in which student teachers engaged as trainees in schools for half of the final year of their bachelor course. During this period they are supervised by mentors and teacher educators from the teacher education institute. Despite the fact that this was a marked improvement in bridging the gap between

theory and practice, schools, especially those specializing in vocational education on the lower and middle level, were not satisfied with the knowledge, skills and attitudes that teacher education graduates brought into the school.

Between 2001 and 2003 The Archimedes Teacher Education Institute organised partnerships with several schools in the region. Up to now, about 150 schools are participating and these schools support around 1000 student teachers. In this partnership the institute and the schools work with a new competence-based curriculum in which workplace learning is a key feature. In their first year student teachers learn and work in a school for one day a week and over the four years the time they spent in schools increases to three days per week. Student teachers start as assistant teachers, progressing slowly to take on full class duties by the end of their four year course. As a consequence the schools have started to facilitate and train mentors as co-educators for student teachers. The partnership is now evolving into the concept of professional development schools as described earlier in this chapter. The education of student teachers is more and more integrated in the innovation of the schools and the development of the staff of the schools and the Archimedes Teacher Education Institute.

In 2003 Archimedes Teacher Education Institute and seven schools offering a pre-vocational education programme and educating pupils between the ages of twelve and sixteen, took the initiative to go one step further. We developed a new concept, 'Teacher in Vocational Education'. In this teacher education course student teachers work in a school which functions as their home base. Teacher educators will be in the school for at least one day per week. Deepening the student teachers' formal education is organised on a monthly basis at the institute and is continuously supported by an electronic learning platform. The learning process of the student teachers is organised in a congruent way for pupils, student teachers, experienced teachers and teacher educators, in combination with forms of (action) research (Swennen, Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2004; Ponte, 2002).

Since 2005 experienced teachers have attended professional Master's level programs supervised by researchers from Archimedes Teacher Education Institute. In this way an extra mode of congruent learning and teaching is emerging: learning processes of teacher students, teachers and teacher educators are likewise organised as learning processes of pupils. All learning processes are based on authentic tasks related to their learning aims. All participants benefit from this program. In the limited space we can only offer the experience voiced by one of the teachers of a participating school.

The school-based teacher educator and teacher economics, enjoys his job every day. He shows his enthusiasm about the new ways of learning for the pupils and student teachers. In the beginning it was hard work to adapt programmes of, for example, bookkeeping for the pupils, but it was well worth it. 'I used to have a lot of stress, because I thought that if I hadn't explained it all, the pupils would not have understood. I was always thinking whether I would

be able to finish the program. All that is over now. I am spending more time supervising pupils and student teachers to work more independently. Contact with pupils and student teachers has become much more pleasant and easy. They have their own responsibilities they are gaining more self-confidence.'

In any participating school between ten and twenty-five student teachers learn and work. These student teachers have different backgrounds: some of them just graduated from secondary education, while others have worked in industry or owned their own company. Student teachers spend the larger part of the week at their school, during which they attend a program organised in the school. They work on their tasks and reflection assignments in schools, at the institute or at home.

Each school has an educational team, consisting of the school-based teacher educator, the teacher educator from the institute, personal coaches for the student teachers and subject-knowledge experts (based at the institute). The teacher educator from the institute will work each week for at least one day at the school. He or she works intensively together with the school-based teacher educator and together they organise the learning process of the student teachers. Each student teacher has a personal coach, an experienced teacher working in the same team of the school.

In most schools the school-based teacher educators communicate with the school management and he or she is also responsible for finding personal coaches for all student teachers. He or she organises workshops for student teachers and colleagues, and offers collegially supported learning. The teacher educator from the institute is responsible for tutoring the student teachers in their professional career. Student teachers work on their own digital portfolio and they perform formative and summative assessments (see Chapter 12).

Experts from Archimedes Teacher Education Institute organise, on a regular basis, study and working conferences. They are also available to give advice to both students and their coaches. An electronic learning platform is used for presenting information, communicating and discussion, and as a portfolio environment. For all actors involved it is crucial to realise that they are members of an innovative project, acting as ambassadors on the school site and in the institute. This calls for a high level of enthusiasm and commitment. Evaluations involving teacher educators from both the schools and the Archimedes Teacher Education Institute show positive results, expressing the benefits that can be accrued for all stakeholders. At the same time, caution is needed so as to retain the high levels of commitment, enthusiasm and support at both the personal and institutional levels for progress to be maintained and disseminated.

Implications for Beginning Teacher Educators

Educating teachers in school-institute partnerships demands a lot of teacher educators whether working at school, at the institute or in both and as beginning

teacher educators are often involved in supervising student teachers, they will also be involved in school-based teacher education and we have formulated some of the most important implications for beginning teacher educators. Beginning teacher educators have to establish firm relations between schools and institutions and will need – depending whether they educate student teachers for primary of secondary education – knowledge and skills that include:

- Expertise about primary education and the transition of pupils from primary to secondary education.
- Expertise about vocational, secondary and tertiary education including the transition of pupils from primary to secondary, prevocational to vocational education, and from secondary to tertiary education.
- Expertise about local industry and institutions, because practice in society is part of the curriculum of the pupils, hence of student teachers.
- Expertise beyond the borders of their own subject areas so they can meet the needs of the schools and the student teachers.

Teacher educators have to play new roles, including:

- Being a member of both the school team and a member of the staff of the teacher education institute.
- Being a link person between school and teacher education institute and being asked to communicate, coordinate and address problems as they arise.

Teacher educators have to learn to act in new contexts:

- Institute-based teacher educators will be working next to school-based teacher educators in schools with pupils that have sometimes negative experiences, inside and outside education. These pupils need the best professional teachers, and the teacher educator is crucial in educating them.
- School-based teacher educators and institute-based teacher educators will be involved in school development, including action research, the innovation of the curriculum and staff development.
- School-based teacher educators and institute-based teacher educators will help to review, update and develop the teacher education curriculum program.

Within such a context beginning teacher educators can play a central and exciting role that can help create strong and valuable links between schools and teacher education institutes.

Discussion

This chapter has shown that different forms of partnerships can be established between schools and teacher education institutes, with respect to local circumstances and national or regional contexts. However, one aspect which evolves beyond boundaries is the desire and commitment to collaborate to improve learning

for teachers in general and student teachers in particular. This helps to diminish the gap between theory and practice and increases the opportunities for teachers and teacher educators to learn about teaching while working in the school context. The gap between schools and institutes is bridged over the whole range of professional development and innovation, because expertise of the teacher educating institute enters the schools and teacher educators get acquainted with school reality.

Educators occupying different roles at different stages in their career are placed in a position to address first and foremost issues directly related to curricular issues; developing schemes of work and lesson planning amongst other things. However, the main benefit is that all those involved are working together to create a specific context and culture. This is undeniably the critical and most important development that has been noted, because all educators involved learn to appreciate what it really means to be a member within a living institution, the partnership with all its ups and downs; learning to understand, empathise, listen, seek help, give advice.

Research about the benefits of partnerships in teacher education shows positive and negative outcomes. Neubert and Binko (1998) found that the professional development school internship was more effective than the regular programme in preparing teacher candidates to maintain classroom discipline, use technology effectively, and reflect on their teaching. Students teachers apply a greater variety of pedagogical methods and they are less vulnerable for the 'culture shock' when entering the profession (Book, 1996). Sutherland, Scanlon and Sperring (2005) found that pre-service teachers who are able to participate in the community of practice of teachers develop more insights into the professional practice than those who are involved in a more common practicum situation, who are more likely to develop a restricted technical knowledge.

Neubert and Binko (1998) explain that the use of mentors as teacher educators in schools had a profound developmental effect on the qualified teachers, who became more skilled at using theoretical discourse as part of their daily practice. Abdal-Haqq (1998) summarizes the outcomes of his research about the learning of the student teachers' mentors. Their learning improved and they knew better what is important to observe and to asses and how to do this. They record their insights and share them with others. In doing so they helped to establish a firm learning culture within their schools.

There are also serious concerns about the quality of teachers educated in schools especially when teachers lack the theoretical base of the profession. In Edwards, analyses of teacher education in England she presents examples of these concerns (Edwards, 2001).

Nevertheless it is our conviction that in the future teacher education will take place within partnerships between schools and the teacher education institutes. These partnerships will have a large variety of forms, depending on regional situation, learning styles of student teachers, aims of teacher education institutes and schools. Although not the easiest way, partnerships are the only way to provide a learning environment for students in which they can develop an identity as teacher and learn how to face the challenges of schools and their pupils in the near future.

As the Commission of the European Communities stated in the common principles on the characteristics of the teaching profession: 'It is a profession based on partnership' (Commission of the European Community, 2007, p. 12).

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Chapter 5
To Be a Facilitator of In-Service Learning: Challenges, Roles and Professional Development

Göran Fransson, Jaap van Lakerveld and Valdek Rohtma

Introduction

Learning is, and always has been, the core business of schools, but the idea that teachers are also learners, and lifelong learners, has gradually become more important over the last years. This chapter stresses the importance of organised activities of professional in-service learning. While teachers participate in pre-service teacher education for just a few years, they are increasingly challenged to participate in in-service learning during their whole professional career. By emphasising the importance of in-service learning, in-service education has extended its ambition, its scope, its approach, its modes of provision and its professionalism. The actual process of in-service learning starts at the moment a teacher is formally employed. There is, however, a grey area between pre-service education and in-service learning, which includes teaching practice of student teachers and the induction phase of newly qualified teachers. In this chapter, we define in-service learning as an organised intentional learning process for teachers at all school levels, from pre-school to upper secondary school, which is supported and facilitated by teacher educators or other professionals. We do recognise that teachers also learn un-intentional, incidental and together with colleagues, but this learning goes beyond the scope of this chapter.

To be knowledgeable and competent teachers who are aware of societal needs, they will have to engage in lifelong learning. There are several reasons for this. First, the content of education at all levels is changing. Secondly, lifelong learning is also important because the pedagogy of teaching is developing rapidly. In the past, teaching was to a high extent teacher-centred and teachers were expected to transfer their knowledge to their students. Teaching is now increasingly student-centred and has turned into a process in which communication with students, among students and among colleagues is crucial. Schools have developed new structures and climates that allow teachers to become lifelong learners in connection with the local community and the outside world (cf. OECD, 2005).

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The learning of teachers also changed from an emphasis on content-based courses and learning outcomes towards facilitating the learning process and the ability to learn (Bolhuis & Simons, 2001). Self-initiated and self-regulated active learning of teachers is now more important than the receptive process of being taught (Efklides, Kuhl & Sorrentino, 2001). The shift in conceptualising teachers' learning has also resulted in the use of the concept 'in-service learning' instead of 'in-service education'. For instance, the Research and Development Centre (RDC) of the Association of Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) In-Service Education for Teachers has changed its name to In-Service Learning.

With these changes from in-service education to in-service learning, new positions had to be defined for the educators who support teachers and schools. Earlier these educators were called 'in-service educators' or 'in-service trainers', but these names reflect the traditional way of thinking about teaching and learning, which is based on the assumption that the learner has to be taught by an educator or trainer. When the views on in-service educators (as the task of teachers) gradually changed, the role of the in-service educator became more and more that of a facilitator of learning and in-service educators are now called 'in-service learning facilitators'; in this chapter, we will use this term or simply speak of 'facilitators'. The modern in-service learning facilitator is a multi-headed monster – in a positive way – with a variety of tasks and roles. He/she is a person who operates in various organisational settings and is using a variety of educational modes, like virtual environments, group work, organisational consultation and experts' input.

This chapter is based on literature and a number of research projects carried out by the RDC 'In-Service learning' of the ATEE. The authors are members of this RDC. This group has studied, among others, the concept of in-service learning (Evans, 1993), the way in-service learning facilitators should be educated (Van Lakerveld, 1993), the lifelong learning processes of in-service learning facilitators (Fischer, Van Lakerveld, & Nentwig, 1995), induction of newly qualified teachers (Baldassarre, 1998) and mentoring in in-service education of teachers (Fischer, Andel, Cain, Van Lakerveld, & Zarkovic, 2007).

We will first describe the changing concepts of in-service learning. We will argue that in line with developments in primary and secondary education, the contents and pedagogy of in-service learning are also changing. The focus of this chapter, however, is the in-service learning facilitator who supports teachers to continuously develop their knowledge and skills. We will describe the dilemmas, challenges and possibilities to become in-service learning facilitator and the ways they, like teachers, can develop and become lifelong learners.

In-Service Learning in Europe

Throughout Europe, there are differences in the ways governments support in-service learning. In the last decade, several countries, like Estonia, Malta and the German and French-speaking part of Belgium, have made in-service education one of the official responsibilities of teachers and made in-service education

compulsory for teachers. Continuing professional development as a professional duty for individual teachers has also been reinforced in Belgium (Flemish Community), the Netherlands and Scotland (Eurydice, 2003).

Although countries are in favour of lifelong learning for teachers, the minimum annual time allocated to compulsory in-service training varies considerably from one country to the next. According to the collective labour agreement in the Netherlands, 10% of the teacher's annual working time has to be allocated to learning activities (e.g. courses) to enhance the professional development. This 10% is by far the highest number of hours a year of all European countries. Sweden reports the next highest number of hours a year (104 on average). In Liechtenstein, United Kingdom (Scotland) and Estonia, between 32 and 42 hours a year are compulsory, while Malta and Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities) report 21 hours. Lowest numbers of hours of compulsory in-service training a year, between 19 and 12 hours, are in Romania, Finland, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria and Latvia (Eurydice, 2003).

What is considered as organised in-service learning activities in various countries may also depend on the historical, social, institutional and cultural contexts and traditions of the educational systems in different regions and/or countries. In Europe, educational systems differ among countries and sometimes even among regions of countries (Eurydice, 2003). In educational systems with centralised organisations, in-service learning will depend on top-down initiatives. In other countries, in-service learning may be organised in a more democratic way. In-service learning facilitators will have to be able to fulfil various, and sometimes conflicting, roles to support authorities, school leaders and teachers and to find the right balance in such matters. Tact and diplomacy become increasingly important in the delicate processes of learning, innovation and change.

Many teachers tend to work in regulated and often restricted contexts. The consequence is that they are more likely to have limited influence on how to establish their own in-service learning. The situation may be quite different for teachers who work within educational systems that promote professional autonomy. An approach in which teachers or schools themselves have the freedom to decide what kind of in-service learning is most needed has become quite widespread in Europe during the last years (Eurydice, 2003). For instance, in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden, Iceland, Estonia and Hungary, the responsibility for in-service training policy is decentralised and lies entirely at regional, local or school levels.

Learning of Adult Learners

There is much overlap between the work of pre-service teacher educators and in-service learning facilitators, but a striking, and important difference, is the fact that pre-service teacher educators often support the learning of young adults and teachers who have no or little teaching experience, while in-service learning facilitators

support the learning of adult learners who have a career in teaching. In this section, we highlight a few of the most important characteristics of adult learning that are developed within human resource management and are important to understand the work of in-service learning facilitators.

In education as well as in other sectors of society, the urge of learning within organisations has increased. In various sources within the field of human resources development, this need is stressed (Ellström, 2001; McLagan, 2002). The 'learning organisation' (Senge, 2000) has become a popular concept, but the question remains: what is it that helps people learn? Warries and Pieters (1992) have developed a useful model that identifies the basic determinants of successful adult learning and is known as the ARCS model, and acronym referring to the words *attention*, *relevance*, *confidence* and *satisfaction*: first, the *attention* of learners must be caught; second, learners have to be convinced of the *relevance* of the learning content; third, the learners will have to feel *confident* that the goals set out are within reach for them; and fourth, it must be clear that the learning fulfils a need. It is important to realise that this creates the dilemma of balancing immediate *satisfaction* and long-term learning. A pleasant learning activity may be soon forgotten; the often painful process of pushing oneself to a higher level of performance may have a lifelong impact that is highly appreciated in the longer term.

Based on the literature, we can now distinguish important characteristics for adult learning. It is nowadays commonly accepted that effective adult education has to be:

Active. meaning that the learning must be learning by doing rather than through preaching (Gollob, Huddleston, Krapf, Salema & Spajic-Vrkas, 2005).
Constructive. This learning implies that we seek to create and develop our own knowledge and competence rather than absorb what others have found out for us (Kessels, Van Lakerveld, & Van den Berg, 1998).
Social. Learning together with and from each other. The interaction is vital for experimenting with, and checking of, one's own newly acquired insights (Fenwick & Tennant, 2004).
Self-directed. Learning will be more effective when the learner is in charge of his/her own learning process and the trainer or the teacher takes the role of facilitator rather than of director (Fenwick & Tennant, 2004). This does not imply that this latter role cannot be taken once learner and teacher agree on it.
Reflective. This includes a process of reflecting on ones performance in general, but also on the learning process itself (Gollob et al., 2005).

Many researchers have tried to identify the conditions that allow employees to learn (Ellström, 2001). These conditions are partly organisational: people learn best when various sources are available. The in-service learning starts even before the recruitment interview, when new employees are informed for the first time about what is expected of them and they develop concepts about these expectations and adjust their learning to these concepts. Further on in their careers, induction activities, career counselling, in-service courses, collegial feedback, involvement in policy making, reflective meetings, self-evaluation, supervision, quality assessment, documentation and external relations are included in the process of professional learning (Van Lakerveld, 2005).

The social, cultural and institutional characteristics of an organisation (like a school) may enhance the learning of the employees (like the teachers) (Senge, 2000). Such characteristics are an open atmosphere, supportive leadership, a positive approach to learning, a culture of self-evaluation and flexible (or even fuzzy) organisational structures. The opportunity to see colleagues in action produces a collective sense, which provides individual as well as organisational learning (Fransson, 2006). A balance between a certain level of stability on one side and creative turmoil on the other side is another important indicator of the quality of the learning climate. Too much turmoil paralyses people; too much stability makes them fall asleep. A calm environment makes people reflect on improvement; creative turmoil makes them change (Van Lakerveld, 2005). Learning requires structure and freedom at the same time; it needs a balance between challenge and support, between stability and creative turmoil. The right balance will be a matter of continuous fine-tuning, of dialogue between learners and facilitators and between managers and teachers. Not all of the conditions mentioned may be exclusively affected directly by in-service learning facilitators, but still it is important for them to realise in what context learning flourishes best so that they can take, within their reach, whatever measure to influence this context.

Roles and Competences of In-Service Learning Facilitators

In-service learning as a term stands for a whole variety of intentional activities that are organised for many different purposes. Some in-service activities arise from the learning needs of individual teachers. Teachers may have various reasons to engage in in-service learning. They may see it as a way to improve their professional work, as a way to specialise in particular tasks, as an entry to new career perspectives or as an opportunity to become part of wider professional networks. In-service activities may also be triggered by school developmental needs (OECD, 2005). School administrators may have their own reasons to promote in-service learning: raising the quality of their staff, implementing innovations in the school or improve the school as a learning organisation. To make things more complicated, in-service learning is often promoted to help teachers and schools to realise policies initiated by local, regional or national authorities. Friction may arise between the needs and interests of individual teachers, teams within the schools, the schools as a whole or the society at large. In-service learning facilitators continuously have to seek the right match between all parties involved. From the facilitators' perspective, their task may vary from delivering specific content knowledge to being a consultant in a long-term process. It may, for instance, include courses with a course syllabus and credits or it may involve supervising individual or group processes (OECD, 2005).

The new concept of in-service learning and its complicated context require permanent professional learning of the in-service learning facilitators. Like pre-service teacher educators, researchers and teachers, they will have to engage in lifelong learning: they will have to communicate and share knowledge, reflect together on the developments in society and within education, and they will have to discuss

their actions and the relevance, efficiency and effectiveness of those actions. They, in sum, will have to compose their own learning environment in which they will continuously be challenged and supported in their professional learning and development. When they will do so, they will practice what they preach; they will serve as role models and thus help teachers to become learners as well (Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007).

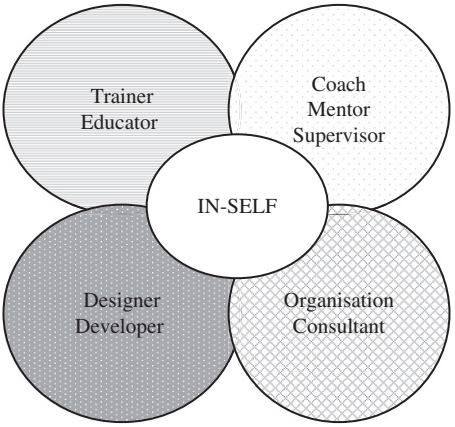

Fig. 5.1 Schematic picture of the different roles of in-service learning facilitators

In-service learning facilitators have many and various roles when facilitating the learning process of teachers and schools (see Fig. 5.1). They may be trainers who deliver courses on particular subjects or themes, but more and more they are organising learning through more supportive activities as coaching and mentoring. They may also facilitate the learning of teachers and schools by creating supportive learning environments, often with the help of new technologies. Facilitators create virtual learning environments, data warehouses, educational monitors, ICT-based portfolio systems, chat rooms, web-logs, web quests, etc. Facilitators may also create learning environments by means of organisational activities such as appraisal interviews, meetings of professionals, peer communication, inter-collegial consultation, self-evaluation, reflection or policy meeting as a way to support learning among staff members (Van Lakerveld, 2005).

More recently, in-service facilitators have come to use research activities that help teachers to reflect upon their own practice and use their new insight and understandings to improve their practice. Research methods like action research (Ponte, Ax, Beijaard, & Wubbels, 2004; Zeichner & Noffke, 2001) and self-study research (Loughran, & Russell, 2002; see also Chapter 14) have proven useful to support the professional development of teachers. In general, in-service facilitators have to be able to adopt a variety of different roles, each requiring a high level of knowledge and skills. The following roles may be distinguished:

- *Catalysts*, who make people move, who bring about change, who inspire.
- *Experts*, knowledgeable and competent in acquiring/producing new knowledge.
- *Problem solvers*, who help learners identify and solve problems they are facing.

- *Process helpers*, who support learners in their learning processes.
- *Developers*, capable to develop learning environments, materials and tools (Van Lakerveld, 1993).

Professional learners, role models in lifelong professional learning. The many and different roles of the facilitators create the challenge of how to cope with them, as well as knowing where, when and why a particular role is suitable.

Professional Competence Profile of In-Service Learning Facilitators

Based on literature, work done within the RDC of the ATEE 'In-service Learning' and based on our experiences, we can develop a competence profile for in-service learning facilitators. In order to understand the competence profile of in-service learning facilitators, it is important to realise that competence is a complex concept. First of all, a competence is the capability to show a particular behaviour in a particular context/setting that has a certain quality. Second, it is important to be aware that competence is a holistic concept including knowledge, skills and attitudes (Koster, Brekelmans, Korthagen, & Wubbels, 2005).

In this section, we will describe the competences of facilitators of in-service learning in those terms. It is also important to understand that there is always a tension between a chronologically organised list of competences and the complex reality of the task they refer to. The work of the in-service learner facilitator is a process of preparing, planning, developing, executing and evaluating in-service learning that has various sequences, repetitions and patterns of growth.

The competence profile presented in Fig. 5.2 consists of 13 competences described as behaviour repertoires, their contextual settings and the 'main qualities' of the competences in the specific contexts. The competences are in some way organised in a chronological list trying to reflect the working process of in-service learner facilitators.

One of the most important and characteristic competence of in-service learning facilitators is the capability to assess the needs and expectations of the clients. This competence is needed in several stages of the facilitation process. It is important in the first stage of the process in which the situation is analysed with the person who is considered the contractor, often a school administrator. With him/her, the facilitator analyses the situation and decides upon the outline of the support needed. Often this contractor is not part of the target group, the individual teachers or a team of teachers, and once confronted with the target group, the in-service learning facilitator has to identify and specify the needs and expectations of this group. If the goals and expectations of the teachers are similar to those of the contractor, there is no problem. However, if the needs of the contractor differ from those of the teachers, the in-service learning facilitator has to reiterate the process of needs assessment, always being aware of conflicting interests and constantly asking whom he/she considers the client. A process of listening, clarifying and negotiating will follow with all parties concerned, but in the end it is crucial that the learners, the

Behavioural repertoire	Context	Quality
Marketing, contracting, communicate ideas	With school leaders, teachers, administrators in a non-profit environment as well as in a profit environment	Client-centred
Needs assessment, surveying expectations	In situations in which actors may have varying or conflicting needs and interests; it is vital to identify who is the actual learner/client	Need-oriented
Web/literature searches, identifying sources of information, problem conceptualisation	Within limited time, one needs to find one's way in a vast field of sources	Theory-based
Exploring, describing, categorising, comparing, explaining, valuing	Both while working, as well as afterwards in private, data and impressions have to be systemised and analysed	Analytical
Goal setting, formulating goals and targets	Since teachers (individually and collectively) are often not aware of their goals, they must be helped to identify that. The in-service learning facilitators must elaborate and double-check goals	Focussed
Classifying goals, choosing appropriate learning activities and modes of provision, choosing appropriate settings and formats	In various situations in which many constraints may be met, as far as rooms, equipment, other priorities are concerned	Professionally yet practically designed
Organising things in time, including issues such as the logistics, the setting, the atmosphere	Embedded in school work and schedules and day-to-day school priorities or elsewhere where people will be more detached from that pressure	Systematically planned
Knowing the limits of ones own expertise and being open to mutually fruitful cooperation with other experts	In a context in which in-school trainers, external experts, researchers and consultants of other parties may be operating	Cooperative
Presenting, listening, interacting, coaching, supervising, mentoring, training, role playing, advising, writing documents/articles	In interactive, educative or learning situations with individuals or groups of learners	Communicative
Reacting to emerging issues and needs, listening and tuning	In complex situations with individuals or groups of learners, sponsors, authorities, stakeholders or other parties involved	Responsive

Making inventories of reactions, learning outcomes, changed professional behaviour and organisational impact on the school and wider impact on the (students) community	In settings with learners, sponsors, authorities, stakeholders or other parties affected, or involved	Evaluative
Systematic thoughts and discussion about what the experiences, beliefs and concepts tell about the in-service learning facilitator's own competence, performance and learning process	Individually, with target groups, or among other in-service learning facilitators	Self-reflective
Meta-evaluation concerning the course of events, the cooperation, the schools context, the systemic embeddedness as well as the future perspectives	In a complex reality of a context with various actors, such as student, teachers, school leaders, authorities, funding agencies, researchers, scholars, inspectorate, parents, stakeholders, etc.	Systemic, development focussed, theory-based, value-oriented, pluralistic and respectful

Fig. 5.2 Professional profile for in-service learning facilitators

teachers, set their own learning goals and define the objective and 'the best' way to learn.

If the mission and the activities of in-service learning are defined by the teachers, it is more likely that teachers will have a positive attitude towards the support of the facilitator than when the activities are imposed upon them by others, like administrators or other authorities. In such cases, it is important for an in-service facilitator to be able to analyse how committed the participants are. If participants do not feel that activities of in-service learning may be useful to them, the learning process is seldom fruitful and the process may not only be difficult for the facilitator, but may even fail (Lendahl Rosendahl & Rönnerman, 2006).

In the process of analysing the needs and expectations of the participants, it may be necessary to transform unclear needs and expectations into more realistic ones. If possible, the formulation of the goals and the design of the activities could be a joint activity of all participants and part of the activities of in-service learning. In this process, it is important that participants visualise the change: the desired effect, the present position and the route forward to reach the desired position. By doing so, it is possible to reduce insecurity of participants and create a comprehensive picture of the learning process, its outcomes and possible effects. The importance of this becomes obvious when it comes to collective in-service learning intended to establish collective learning and changes, for instance in team teaching or changes at an organisational level. Another important reason to emphasise assessment of the needs of the participants and a genuinely listening attitude of the in-service learning facilitators is that employees support organisational changes that make sense to them

(McLagan, 2002; Ericson, 2001). By engaging into a dialogue with the contractors and the teachers, the in-service learning gains legitimacy and support, and as a consequence resistance towards learning, innovation and change tends to be reduced. Facilitators have to find the right balance between being a critical fiend, an assessor or even an authority. A peer-like approach, for instance, may lower the threshold and may enhance mutual understanding.

How to Become a Successful In-Service Learning Facilitator

In this section, we focus on the question how teachers, teacher educators and other professionals may become in-service learning facilitator. Is there a particular kind of education available? Are any particular career patterns required? Is a particular assessment available? The answer to all of these three questions in general is *no*. In-service learning facilitators have very different backgrounds and use different paths into in-service learning. Some facilitators are experienced teachers, while others are organisational consultants, trainers, coaches, advisors, developers, researchers, etera. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify elements that contribute to becoming a successful in-service learning facilitator.

Many in-service facilitators have been engaged, and are engaged, in forms of formal training or education. A qualification as a teacher is a definite advantage. Teachers prefer to be supported by someone who knows the profession from the inside. Expertise in particular subjects may be helpful but is not necessary, unless these subjects are the focus of the learning process. In-service learning facilitators may also be educated in fields like organisation development, innovation and change and may have gained formal expertise in programme development and evaluation. Very often, in-service learning facilitators have been trained extensively in group dynamical skills. On top of this, it is important that they have developed writing skills, both for their own learning as well as the learning of those they support. Although we do not know of any formal training or educational programme for in-service learning facilitators, universities, colleges and private institutes do provide courses at different levels to become organisational consultants. Associations of trainers and consultants provide training for experienced consultants. These initiatives have in common that they include both theoretical and practical training components.

Successful facilitators have gone through a variety of experiences (Fischer et al., 1995). They have experienced successes and know how to cope with failure as well. They must be able to identify with their various clients and learn from them so that they benefit from hands on experience in various processes and projects. Experience is also important to gain legitimacy in the eyes of the stakeholders.

The personality of the facilitator, the basic attitude, must be one of curiosity and open mindedness. Eagerness to learn, a sociable attitude, the ability to cope with criticism, flexibility, respectfulness and a positive self-image are qualities that were derived from a study of biographies of successful in-service learning facilitators (Fischer et al., 1995). General qualities of the in-service learning facilitator are important, but it is of equal importance that the facilitator and the learner match.

The context in which the in-service learning facilitators work is of great influence on their own professional development. To be able to support the learning of teachers and to engage in lifelong learning as professionals, in-service learning facilitators have to posses a certain degree of professional autonomy and they have to invest into an extensive professional network. These are important factors when in-service learning facilitators participate in the professional debate that is needed to support their own reflection, learning and professional development as in-service facilitators.

Teachers, pre-service teacher educators and other professionals who become in-service learning facilitators have to make a fundamental change of perspective and adopt the norms, perspectives, conceptions and actions necessary for in-service facilitators. They must be aware of their mission and of the conceptual base that they have at their disposal to support the empowering professional learning processes they will have to facilitate.

Becoming an in-service learning facilitator is something that goes beyond mere training. Most of the actual in-service learning facilitators report a history of in-service learning and professional development that made them reach a level at which they were asked to engage into supporting the learning of teachers. To improve themselves, successful in-service learning facilitators mention research, networking, study, challenges, job rotation and inspiring examples/models as important activities (Fischer et al., 1995). Experienced educators also state that they value a personal portfolio as an opportunity to document, analyse and evaluate their work. Self-analysis allows them to think about dilemmas, which are connected to one's own actions, attitudes and values as a facilitator (Märja, Lõhmus, & Jõgi, 2003).

Training and experience may be important to become a successful in-service learning facilitator, but they are not sufficient. For in-service learning facilitators to function properly, it is important that they serve as model learners. This implies that their professional context and network are organised accordingly. In-service learning facilitators must motivate each other and be motivated by others. They benefit from professional networks that serve as communities of practice in which peer consultation takes place, in which learning is a common goal and in which mutual inspiration and support are core elements. As stated before, professional learning also requires challenges, confrontation, criticism and debate. The struggle to survive in one's own professional community also adds to the depth and meaning of the learning process (Fransson, 2006).

A Code of Conduct for In-Service Learning Facilitators

Like other professionals who work with people, ethics and ethical thinking are an important element of the work of in-service learning facilitators (see also Chapter 3). Ethics and ethical thinking are vital for understanding other persons and approaching them respectfully. It is a crucial principle and the emotional base of teaching (Hansen, 2001). Understanding cannot be regulated by standards and ethical thinking develops through experience. Constant analysis of one's own actions

helps to understand oneself and others. The codes help facilitators to cope with the sometimes conflicting needs and goals of the different participants in the learning process.

As we have argued in this chapter, the traditional in-service educators have become facilitators of learning, their roles shifted from training to coaching and mentoring, they became more concerned with their own professional development and standards, and professional codes of conduct will have to be developed or revised. These codes will have to fit in new situations in which the level of differentiation and individualisation and the level of self-regulation and self-directedness have increased. This requires a new approach to ethical standards in in-service learning in which an agreement is reached on how to deal with issues such as:

- the process of learning
- the responsibility for professional development
- privacy
- fairness
- transparency
- prevention of intimidation violence and aggression
- equal opportunities
- prevention of sexual harassment/abuse
- the right to appeal
- respectful approach of diversity
- independent judgement

This professional code of conduct for in-service facilitators has to be developed specifically for this professional group. This does not mean that other codes of conduct as in use for organisation developers, advisors, teachers and so on cannot serve as a source for its development (cf. Sveriges universitetslärarförbund, SULF, 2004).

Summary and Conclusions

In education, change has become the rule and stability the exception. In this context, it is the task of in-service learning facilitators to facilitate learning among professional teachers and in professional learning contexts. The work of the in-service learning facilitator is increasingly complex and we have developed a professional competence profile showing that the profession of in-service learning facilitator is broad and diverse and requires a variety of competences. These competences will have to be developed through training, experience and active intentional professional learning of the individual facilitator and within professional networks. On top of these requirements, there are additional contextual conditions to be fulfilled. Among those are learning conditions, organisational conditions and ethical conditions. All the described topics, actions, advices and recommendations imply that learning of in-service learning facilitators will be lifelong. In-service facilitators are facing new challenges, and every change or problem may be an opportunity

to learn or support teaching. Fulfilling these conditions for professional learning is a major challenge for the profession of teacher educators – and especially for those active as in-service learning facilitators. If we consider the in-service learning facilitator to be a relatively autonomous professional, this challenge will not be solved by imposing a kind of lifelong professional curriculum on them, but rather by supporting processes in which they make optimal use of their professional context as a learning environment.

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Part II
Induction of Teacher Educators

Chapter 6
Becoming a Teacher Educator: Voices of Beginning Teacher Educators

Anja Swennen, Leah Shagrir and Maxine Cooper

Introduction

This chapter is about the readers of this book, about the rewards and challenges of beginning teacher educators. As was outlined in the 'Introduction and Overview' of this book, teacher educators are not an easily recognisable group and their problems and rewards during their first years as teacher educators may vary a great deal. Nevertheless, from the limited research that has been done, and from our own experience as teacher educators, we know that the transition from teacher to teacher educator can be more challenging and difficult than beginning teacher educators may expect.

This chapter is based on three sources of data. As there has not been a lot of research about beginning teacher educators, we first analysed self-study literature of teacher educators who described their first years in teacher education and the problems they encountered. In their articles, these teacher educators look back and reflect on their transition from teacher to teacher educator. Looking back from a distance gives them a wide perspective on the challenges and problems they encountered. Moreover, these teacher educators were and are involved in self-study and publish about their own development and other issues concerning teacher educators (Guilfoyle, Hamilton, Pinnegar, & Placier, 1995; Knowles & Cole, 1994; Zeichner, 2005). We will refer to these teacher educators as 'the self-study teacher educators'.

A second source we drew upon was Australian research on teacher educators and their career trajectories. These narrative and collaborative studies are based on structured and unstructured interviews, written stories, descriptive metaphors of journeys in teacher education, time lines of careers and professional documentation such as curriculum vitas and diaries (Cooper, Ryan, Gay, & Perry, 1999; L. Ling, P. Ling, Burman, & Cooper, 2000; L. Ling, Burman, Cooper, & P. Ling, 2002; Perry & Cooper, 2001). For the purposes of this chapter, we used the data from these studies and focussed on the beginning years of the participants' careers as teacher educators. We will refer to these studies as the 'narrative studies'.

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A third source we examined was a small-scale study about the induction of beginning teacher educators that was conducted by members of the Research and Development Centre (RDC) 'Professional Development of Teacher Educators', which is one of the many RDCs of the Association of Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE). Eleven members of the RDC, all experienced teacher educators, interviewed 11 beginning colleagues, 8 women and 3 men from 26 to 50 years of age (see for a full description of this study Van Velzen, Van der Klink, Swennen, & Yaffe, 2008). Characteristic of these 11 teacher educators is that they were undergoing their own induction period at the time of the interviews. These beginning teacher educators were not involved in research, let alone self-study about their own development. We will refer to these teacher educators as the 'interviewed teacher educators'.

In the chapter, we will describe the transition from teacher to teacher education based on the limited research that is available about this topic. If we want to understand the transition from teacher to teacher educator, we have to understand some of the aspects of the work of teacher educators and we will describe the complexity of the work of teacher educators and the fact that they are always a model for student teachers. We will then describe the main challenges of the beginning teacher educators through the self-study, narrative studies and interviewed teacher educators. These challenges include a heavy teaching workload, pressure to engage research, isolation and a clash of ideas and ideals.

Beginning teacher educators do not just face challenges and difficulties; they also experience joys and rewards and these help them to develop their identities as teacher educators. They know about teaching, and this gives them strength to deal with their challenges. Most rewarding, though, is working with students and collaborating with colleagues, and we will describe these aspects of the first years of teacher educators as well. We also discuss if and how beginning teacher educators expand their identity from teacher to teacher educator. As induction for teacher educators is a relatively new idea, beginning teacher educators often have to organise their own networks of support (see Chapter 7). We conclude this chapter with some suggestions for beginning teacher educators on how to organise this support to survive and thrive in the first years as beginning teacher educators and on how to improve and enhance their work and lives as teacher educators.

Transition from Teacher to Teacher Education

Murray & Male (2005, p. 126) distinguish between teachers who practice 'first-order teaching' and teacher educators who practice 'second-order teaching': 'Teacher educators induct their students into the practices and discourses of the school and of teacher education.' This means that teacher educators not only need the knowledge and skills to teach their subject, but they also need knowledge and skills about the education of teachers. The work of teacher educators demands new and different types of professional knowledge and understanding, including

more extended pedagogical skills, than those required of classroom teachers. In this respect, many beginning teacher educators are expert teachers who become novices in their new profession as teacher educators. Novice teacher educators are often good teachers of the first order, but they may lack the knowledge that is needed to be good teachers of teachers; in other words, they may lack the knowledge and skills to practice second-order teaching (Acker, 1997; Guilfoyle et al., 1995; Knowles & Cole, 1994). Teachers who become teacher educators need to change or expand their identity as teachers into that of teacher educators working with adult learners. Research on teachers making the transition to teacher education shows that the transition process is often experienced as stressful, with new teacher educators reporting the need to establish new professional identities as teachers of teachers and to develop new areas of expertise (see, e.g., Boyd, Harris, & Murray, 2007; Murray & Male, 2005).

The limited research available suggests that the majority of teacher educators need between 2 and 3 years to establish such professional identity and the process can be both stimulating and difficult. Murray & Male (2005) doubt whether all teachers who start to work in teacher education will be able to make that change. There will always be teacher educators who derive their identity from being former teachers in primary or secondary schools or being academics. Teacher educators who are not able or willing to make this transition often have a negative attitude towards research and identify more with schools and pupils than with the professional issues and concerns of teacher education. This becomes visible because they want to teach their subject content knowledge as such, thus teaching it in a 'first-order' manner without necessarily adapting it for the teacher education context. The reason may also be that teacher educators find it hard to give up, at least partly, their strong and positive identity as teachers or academics for an identity that is unknown and unsettling for them. The critical discourses used and capacity to reflectively critique current school practices, along with the ability to theorise about the social, political and economic contexts and changes in education, are elements that can be a challenge to beginning teacher educators.

The Work of Teacher Educators

Research on the work of teacher educators (such as Perry & Cooper, 2001; Guilfoyle et al., 1995; Cooper et al., 1999) characterises it as multi-layered and complex work that is often fragmented and at times quite disconnected. Teacher educators are not only responsible for teaching their students, but indirectly also for the teaching of the pupils who will be taught by their student teachers. This makes the work of teacher educators socially complex: 'We have a moral obligation to all participants: the student teacher, the co-operating teacher, and the student in the classroom. On top of that teacher educators collaborate with other faculties (like science, languages, arts, geography and history) about the content of the curriculum, they work together with school boards and all kinds of institutes and institutions related to teaching'

(Guilfoyle et al., 1995, p. 37). Teacher educators have their own views on good teaching, but have to take into account the sometimes different views of their student teachers, the mentors in the schools and of the management of the schools. Moreover, the politics of education and national and international debates about teacher education have a great impact on the work of teacher educators. In short, teacher educators do their work in diverse and complex social and cultural environments in which many players have their own agendas and justifiable goals.

An important aspect of the complexity of teacher education is that teacher educators have to build three sets of relationships. Teacher educators have to build a relationships with their adult students. Although they are experienced teachers with primary and/or secondary pupils, the relationship with young adults, and often mature age students, is quite different. At the university, the teacher educator is the teacher/lecturer for the student teachers, and in the schools, he/she is their supervisor, advisor, and a person who empowers and supports them in their practices of classroom teaching and other aspects of their professional work as teachers. Teacher educators also have to build a relationship with their new colleagues in the teacher education institutions and with many other university workers. Additionally, teacher educators have to build a good relationship with the staff in the schools where the students are undertaking their professional practices. In the school settings, there are various people who are involved in the education of the student teachers: the headmaster/principal, the mentor teachers, other teachers and other functionaries in school such as specialist teachers, parents and other members of the community. It is even more complicated and demanding when a teacher educator wants to build relationships with those working in professional development schools (Teitel, 2003). Beginning teacher educators have to gain an insight in this multi-layered and complex context and find their own identities, place and space within the teacher education context.

The work of teacher educators is especially complex because they have many and varied tasks. They are usually expected to teach student teachers, supervise their students in schools, collaborate with mentors, design parts of the curriculum for their institutions, supervise research or thesis writing of their students, and many have to do research and publish in reputable journals. When finding the time, they study and work on their own professional development and academic learning. In their study on teacher educators, Perry and Cooper (2001) highlighted metaphors of teacher educators, and Myra used the metaphor of being a traveller overloaded with ‘luggage of all shapes and sizes’, Ruth described a ‘maelstrom of rapidly tumbling kaleidoscope pictures’ and Margaret wrote about ‘being a swimmer in cold and deep water’.

Inherent to the work of teachers of teachers is that they always serve as models, good or bad, for the student teachers. It is taken for granted in the literature that teacher educators should be able to ‘teach as they preach’ and that they should be a good model for their student teachers. Most authors (Loughran & Russell, 2002; Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007; Wood & Geddis, 1999) agree that ’modelling’ is important but modelling alone is not enough. Student teachers who observe teacher educators who model good teaching may not be conscious of the intentions of the teacher educators. They may appreciate the teacher educator as a good teacher, but it is left to the individual student teacher to find out what good practice

or theory the teacher educator is modelling. It is, therefore, important that teacher educators not only model good practice or theory but also communicate explicitly with their students about their own learning and teaching (Swennen, Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2004).

Challenges of Beginning Teacher Educators

The experiences of beginning teacher educators bear a remarkable resemblance to those of beginning teachers (see Fuller & Bown, 1975; Veenman, 1989); Knowles & Cole, (1994), but not all challenges are comparable; some challenges are characteristic for teacher educators (see, e.g., Smith, 2005).

Beginning teacher educators work as hard as beginning teachers, not in the least because they have a new job in a new environment and much of their work is new and difficult for them. One of the interviewed teacher educators stated: 'As a novice teacher educator you have to do everything. I have to start all over again. I'm curious what colleagues think about me.' The interviewed teacher educators also mentioned that preparing lessons, assessments and exams was time consuming because they wanted to do their job well. Especially when they compared themselves to teachers in other departments of the university, the self-study teacher educators reported that they have to teach more hours and have more student-related tasks: 'I can feel the stress of working here taking effect. For me, and I suppose for many others, stress shows its effects in health problems (Knowles & Cole, 1994, p. 38).

The self-study and narrative study teacher educators also mentioned time constraint in relation with the need to publish and do research. They constantly feel the burden of a heavy teaching load and limited time to undertake research. From the research, we learn that especially female teacher educators find this combination very difficult: they report being expected to take more responsibility than men for the well being of their student teachers and, compared to their male colleagues, report that they are given more teaching and supervising duties at the cost of research time (Dillabough & Acker, 2002; Cooper et al., 1999; Cooper, Ryan, Perry, & Gay, 1998; Ducharme, 1993).

The word 'isolation' seems to be the most characteristic feeling that teacher educators experience at the beginning of their career as teacher educators (Murray, 2007; Zeichner, 2005). Several of the interviewed teacher educators felt that they had to find their way into teacher education without much support from their colleagues or management and that in this respect, too, they resembled beginning teachers: 'I felt undervalued, because no one recognised that I was a beginner. Like the teachers that I teach, I had to find out everything by myself.' A narrative study teacher educator reported (Ling et al., 2000) 'Sometimes I feel like I have been thrown in at the deep end of the pool.' Another reported (Ling et al., 2002): 'It's that feeling of isolation, that you are actually on the edge of this community and the community goes on without you.' But it is not just the lack of support to find one's way around, but it is also difficult for beginning teacher educators to find people with whom they can share their ideas about education, as the self-study teacher educators

report frequently: 'As yet, I haven't connected with anyone who engages in thinking and research interests similar to me. I am sure they're out there (probably only two or three doors away), but where?' (Knowles & Cole, 1994, p. 36).

Most of the teacher educators in all groups involved in this study have been schoolteachers for quite some time before they became teacher educators. They entered teacher education at different stages in their careers and for different reasons, but each of them brought with them a wide range of experience in teaching and some studied for years for a Master's or PhD diploma in their subject area or education. They started teaching in teacher education full of idealism, but many of them experienced a clash of ideas and ideals between themselves, their students, their colleagues and the administrators in their institutions. Especially the self-study teacher educators sometimes felt that their own ideas and ideals differed from those of their students, and this gave them the feeling of not being able to reach their students: 'We foster ideas of teaching and learning often not evident in the schools where our students learned or where they will observe and teach. Our students bring with them mature beliefs about teaching and learning that tend to be more congruent with their past experiences than with the ideas we are asking them to consider' (Guilfoyle et al., 1995, p. 37). Some of the interviewed teacher educators are disappointed about the students who are not as motivated as they want them to be: 'One of my biggest challenges is the lack of motivation. The profession of teaching is not highly valued in Lithuania, and many of my students have no intention of even going into that field. They're here for the diploma.'

The self-study teacher educators report frustration about being unable to act upon the skills, knowledge and ideas because of restraints by colleagues and management: 'The faculty had agreed to teach courses in a uniform way, and I began by team teaching with another faculty member. While we had a good relationship, I felt that little I had or knew was of value here. My expertise as a teacher of English and as a student of English language, human development, learning and qualitative research was for the most part ignored' (Guilfoyle et al., 1995; see also Ducharme, 1993). Teacher educators often recognise the irony of this: teacher education institutions are not always in the forefront of educational innovation, and beginning teacher educators sometimes feel trapped between their own ideas and beliefs, the ideas, beliefs and needs of their student teachers and the ideas and belief of their colleagues and the management of their own teacher education institutes. The narrative study teacher educators suggested that part of their idealism stemmed from 'their freshness, their innocence, their lack of awareness of the politics of corporate universities, and their passion for their discipline area.' Because beginning academics do not have to become embroiled in the politics, they may be more able to fulfil their ideal as an academic (Ling et al., 2000).

Learning to be a Teacher Educator

As mentioned before, teacher educators bring with them a wealth of teaching experience, mostly as secondary or primary schoolteachers and beginning teacher

educators recognise this experience as one of the main sources they can rely on during their first years in teacher education. They know how to teach and they are used to working with groups of students (albeit of a different age) and they know how to prepare their lessons: 'From the beginning we knew how to construct curriculum, carry out evaluation, use a variety of teaching strategies, and counsel students' (Guilfoyle et al., 1995, p. 36). This is also reported in almost the same wording by several of the interviewed beginning teacher educators: 'I have a very strong practical and theoretical background' and 'I have practical knowledge from twelve years in the field and it makes me more flexible and more able to adapt myself to different situations.'

Being a good teacher is not all beginning teacher educators have to offer. Some teacher educators who have been teachers rise above the micro situation of their own classrooms. As a result of academic study (e.g. an educational Master's study) or their position in school (as supervisor of student teachers or as manager), they are experts about education and teaching. This knowledge makes them aware of the fact that their work is multi-layered and complex: 'My greatest advantage is my experience from my role as a supervisor and trainer in the ministry of education.'

One of the things that is most rewarding to teacher educators is teaching and supervising student teachers. Not surprisingly, beginning teacher educators reported that they learned a lot from teaching and supervising student teachers, by teaching and reflecting upon their own teaching: 'I have to say simply that I learned to teach teachers by doing it. Just as quilters learn to quilt I learned to teach teachers by teaching. I became familiar with my own comfort levels as well as those of students. I discovered what worked for me as a person responsible for the learning as well as the interest levels of the students involved' (Guilfoyle et al., 1995, p. 47). A narrative teacher educator reported 'I find that student contact takes up quite a lot of my time but I love that side of it. I think that I have reached my ideal by getting this job' (Ling et al., 2000).

Seven of the 11 interviewed teacher educators reported the support of an officially appointed mentor, but none of the self-study authors or narrative teacher educators mentioned this. The help of a mentor seemed to be most effective when the mentor and beginning teacher educator had the same ideas about teaching or when the mentor held a powerful position within the institution: 'My mentor was well accepted socially and had a strong position within the staff. That is why she could give us better support during our socialisation process. She was something special. She had a combination of supporting us without dictating what to do. She left a lot of space for freedom and choice.'

However, beginning teacher educators all report that they learned the most from their colleagues. Some of the interviewed teacher educators were lucky enough to find colleagues to share their concerns with: 'On Monday after my lessons I often went to Paul to talk. We first let off steam. Then we discussed the lesson plan and talked about where it went wrong and we elaborated on that. After that we thought about ideas to improve the next lesson. These talks were a big support. I was able to improve my way of teaching for the next lesson. I sometimes started the lesson with the results of my talk with Paul. I asked the students for example: 'I have the

feeling that you did not learn enough during the last lesson. What do you think?' That worked very well.'

As the self-study teacher educators became more acquainted with their university, some teacher educators also found support from colleagues who shared their views from outside their own department. And so, slowly but surely the teacher educators expanded their professional network, and this increased the joy in their work: 'A major breakthrough! In a conversation with one of my colleagues the other day, I happened to mention, just in passing, that I was interested in field-based research and teacher development. With a somewhat perplexed look she suggested that I talk to the chairperson of one of the other divisions of the faculty (…). And lo and behold, it was like the door opened to a whole new world – people who speak the same language, and who have the same ideas and perspectives on teacher education and research' (Knowles & Cole, 1994, p. 37).

What may beginning teacher educators expect for their future and will all their efforts be rewarded? Some frustrations remain. Frustration about students who do not apply what the teacher educators hoped they learned. Lack of time and conflicting demands between research and teaching duties are very persistent over time, as the studies show. Female teacher educators, especially, feel more isolated and frustrated about the fact that they get (and take) more teaching and supervising duties than their male colleagues. Beginning teacher educators have to show a lot of initiative and have to possess a great amount of perseverance, but in the end it is worthwhile. 'Exciting and fulfilling' is how the experienced teacher educators described their work in the study of Ducharme (1993). They like their students, they love watching them grow and find pleasure in supervising the development of their students. And most of all, they enjoy teaching. As one of the narrative teacher educators, Rowena discussed the metaphors she uses and her pleasures in teaching: 'Sometimes when I come here I just can't see the forest for the trees and I flounder, but I … [like to] know what I'm doing and I'm quite passionate about what I do. There have been times when the garden is really weedy and it's just all over the place and then when you get this really nice period where it is stable and you haven't got any marking and there's no student anxiety, there's flowers growing' (Ling et al., 2002).

How Did These Teachers Experience the Transition from Teacher to Teacher Educator?

The limited set of self-studies, narrative studies and the small number of interviews that were presented in this chapter demand that we must be careful while drawing conclusions. However, we learned that the interviewed teacher educators who were in the middle of their induction period hardly referred to themselves as second-order teachers or teacher of teachers. We can only speculate about the reasons for this. Perhaps the first years in teacher education are so stressful that beginning teacher educators rely on their abilities as teachers and they have neither sufficient time nor

enough peace of mind to reflect on themselves as teacher educators. As we learn from this chapter, teacher education institutes are not always supportive of the professional development of the beginning teacher educators; let alone their development from teacher to teacher educator. If institutions do not support the transition of teachers into teacher educators, how can we then expect of novice teacher educators to make this difficult transition during a stressful period?

Although far from feeling that they had reached all their goals, in the end the self-study teacher educators felt that they had become teacher educators. But how? What did they do to develop as teacher educators? The teacher educators described some very powerful activities they were engaged in and that, consciously or unconsciously, aggregated their own development. One of the most important activities was communicating with others – junior and senior colleagues, student teachers, colleagues, colleagues from other faculties, members of teacher education professional associations, friends and, of course, the people they are involved with in their research and publication activities.

Important in most teacher education programmes is reflection – student teachers reflections on their teaching, on their academic reading, on their conversations with others, on their observations of others teaching, on what student teachers do and need, as well as on their own needs. Writing for and to each other is mentioned as an important means to engage in reflection. Their involvement in research also helped the teacher educators to develop their knowledge, skills and abilities – perhaps not so much with the traditional research approaches, but action research, collaborative research with teachers and self-study research (see also Loughran & Russell, 2002 and Chapters 13 and 14 in this book).

The teacher educators acknowledge that despite the similarities, there are also differences between the concerns of beginning teacher in primary, secondary and even higher education and that of novice teacher educators. Their transition from teacher to teacher educator is not just a change in working conditions and acquiring new skills and new knowledge, but also in the way of thinking about one's own teaching and a change, or at least an expansion, of one's identity as teacher into that of teacher educator: 'I'm beginning to think differently about how we've conceptualised our experiences as beginning professors. We attributed our difficulties, frustrations, uncertainties (and yes, joys too) to our newness and likened our experiences to the beginning teachers we study because they, too, were experiencing newness. But, things have not changed much even though we are not longer very 'new'. And many of our colleagues, some far from new, can match our stories. Could it be that our experiences have more to do with being in transition and less to do with being new?' (Knowles & Cole, 1994, p. 49). In summing up the concerns of the narrative teacher educators, it can be argued that the issues for classroom teachers as teacher educators revolve around the adoption of an appropriate teaching style, the ability to theorise about the social, political and economic context of education and the ability to reflectively critique existing school practices (Ling et al., 2002).

This transition is a difficult and complex process, which under the best of circumstances takes a lot of effort and time. The stories of the teacher educators who reported about their own development show us that they succeeded to expand their

identity with the greatest effort and that they used a variety of tools and activities. No one told them that they had to become teacher educators and their activities were meant to cope with the difficulties they encountered and the ideals they wanted to fulfil. In the course of that process, their image of teacher education and that of themselves as teacher educators changed and they had to find new words and metaphors to describe themselves: 'My current image of myself as teacher educator builds more directly on the underlying image I discussed initially and removes me as awkward tap dancer from the centre stage. This is the image of teacher education as a solution to the three person problem: the teacher educator, the future teacher, and the student of the future teacher. In this representation, the teacher educator is responsible for teaching a student who will become a teacher of students and has simultaneously a moral obligation to both. With the emerging of this image, I saw myself most clearly as a teacher educator. I also found voice and ways to respond to this image in my academic life' (Guilfoyle et al., 1995, p. 48).

Suggestions for Beginning Teacher Educators

As we have seen, becoming a teaching educator is a demanding job and the transition from teacher to teacher educator can be rewarding but also stressful, and beginning teacher educators need various layers of support and encouragement. As we learn from Chapters 2 and 7, the induction of teacher educators is virtually non-existent. There is one exception: the MOFET institute in Israel. This institute is unique as its focus is on the professional development of teacher educators and one of the goals is to induct beginning teacher educators into the work of teacher educators. Their research, conducted among the beginning teacher educators that they support (Shagrir, 2007), confirms the analysis of the literature and the interviewed teacher educators. Beginning teacher educators want to develop their knowledge and skills as teacher educators:

- Professional knowledge, language and skills – learning the language of the profession.
- Solutions for personal problems and difficulties that arise in practical work.
- Information about research, theories and existing approaches in the world of teacher education.
- Professional confidence.

And beginning teacher educators want to improve their work with student teachers:

- Develop teaching skills for the everyday work as teacher educator.
- Develop guidance and supervising abilities.
- Develop an individual teaching style.
- Develop an identity as teacher educator.

The results of the MOFET research show that beginning teacher educators want to learn in a support group in which they can share their problems with colleagues and get feedback and reflect with others. They also want to talk and reflect with more

experienced colleagues, and they would like to collaborate with beginning and experienced colleagues in and outside their own institute. The suggested methods may seem easy, but they are still unusual in the context of higher education, especially universities, and it takes strength and courage to organise your own induction.

Based on this chapter, it is quite obvious that except for Israeli teacher educators, most beginning teacher educators will have to organise their own induction support. We now summarise some of the possible activities that beginning teacher educators may want to get involved in to facilitate their transition to teacher educators.

First, ask beginning and experience colleagues to work collaboratively on the preparation of lessons, assessment and curriculum development. In this way, beginning teacher educators can develop the knowledge and skills they need to teach, nurture and assess the student teachers, which is, after all, the core responsibility of teacher educators.

Second, exchange visits with other beginning and experienced teacher educators and discuss your teaching and learning in a safe and supportive learning environment using feedback methods cooperatively. This will improve your teaching and help you find your own teaching style. It may also help you to improve your supervision skills, because you will further develop these skills if you give feedback to other beginning teacher educators.

Third, create your own support group of colleagues who want to expand their identity from classroom teachers to teacher educators. Most teacher educators value working in a community with other beginning teacher educators to exchange ideas, expand their knowledge, study together and, very importantly, to share their experiences with each other to explore solutions for their problems and concerns that will fit their needs and suit their own particular work contexts.

Fourth, get involved in research with colleagues in, across or outside your institution, for example, self-study, narrative study or using alternative approaches, to understand your own development as a teacher educator or any other aspect of being a teacher educator.

And finally, as a narrative teacher educator summed up, ‘For me I think it’s that sense of belonging to a work community, particularly if you’re in transition, I see that as quite important. Feeling part of a community, having a forum for discussion and information and being able to access resources and administrative assistance is central for all beginning teacher educators’.

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Chapter 7
Second-Phase Induction for Teacher Educators: Challenges and Possibilities

Åsa Morberg and Eve Eisenschmidt

Introduction

Chapter 6 described how difficult, and sometimes stressful, the development of beginning teacher educators can be and from Chapter 6, we learn that beginning teacher educators receive limited formal support. This chapter addresses the issue of the induction of teacher educators in the university context. To understand fully the induction of university teacher educators, the notion of second-phase induction is a useful concept. This concept allows us to focus on the needs of beginning teacher educators and on the various kinds of support activities that can be offered during second-phase induction. Even though the examples given in this chapter are based on authors' experiences and observations in two quite different European countries, Estonia and Sweden, the problems will easily be recognised by those working in other teacher education institutes, and the support activities presented will be useful for those who are involved in the induction of teacher educators in a large range of countries in Europe.

The process of becoming a teacher educator differs from one country to another, but there are two main routes to become a teacher educator (see also Chapters 1 and 2). The first routes, quite common at the universities of Estonia and Sweden, is that of an academic who becomes a teacher educator. It is not unusual that researchers who have obtained a PhD become involved in teacher education. These teacher educators are familiar with the world of higher education and have no (or fewer) problems with research tasks than teacher educators who have been teachers. On the other hand, these academics have little or no experience as a teacher, and they might feel less confident in teaching student teachers since they are less familiar with the skills teacher students need to work in schools.

The second route to become a teacher educator is based on practical experience. Teachers who worked in primary or secondary schools continue their careers as teacher educators at the university. These teacher educators know the teaching profession from within as they have practical experiences as teachers. However, these

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educators may experience problems when having to do research, and they might encounter specific problems when teaching adult students in higher education. Whatever their background teacher educators may not always be fully prepared for their new jobs and further professional learning, what we term second-phase induction, is needed.

This chapter deals with the issue of how to induct beginning teacher educators for their new work at university teacher education institutes. In this chapter, the authors first introduce the notion of second-phase induction. This is followed by a focus on the problems concerning second-phase induction. The authors also provide suggestions to improve second-phase induction.

Second-Phase Induction

The concept of second-phase induction is developed by the authors of this chapter and it is grounded in their own experiences as university lecturers, researchers and supervisors of beginning teacher educators (see Eisenschmidt, 2006).

The induction phase is an important phase in teachers' professional development (Gold, 1996; Tickle, 2000). The term 'induction' in education is a fuzzy concept that generally refers to the teachers' first period of work in which novice teachers develop into experienced teachers. Sometimes the concept of induction is used to describe a period of time, like the first year. The concept is also used to indicate a support programme within this period, a more formal course, or a type of supervision by a senior teacher or mentor. The notion induction may also refer to the more individual professional learning process of novice teachers (Britton, Paine, Pimm, & Raizen, 2003; Blair-Larsen, 1992). However, the aims of induction is always to support professional socialisation, the development of professional competences and/or workplace learning (Eurydice, 2002).

The first induction phase is the phase new teachers go through when they start working in schools after finishing teacher education (or a new researcher may go through when s/he starts working at a university). For new teachers, the induction phase is considered to be a link between initial teacher education and professional development and lifelong learning as a teacher at school (see Fig. 7.1).

Teacher educators have had careers as teachers or academics and bring with them knowledge, skills and experience that are valuable for their work in teacher education. But no matter how extensive their prior working experiences as schoolteacher or academic is entering the university as a teacher educator is a major step that requires socialisation and learning, and hence the term 'second-phase induction' for novice teacher educators.

Second-phase induction is a socialisation process, through which the beginning teacher educator becomes a member of the teaching staff and accepts the knowledge, skills, qualities, norms and manners valued in the university. In this socialisation process, the opinions and attitudes of experienced teacher educators are of great importance to the beginning teacher educators.

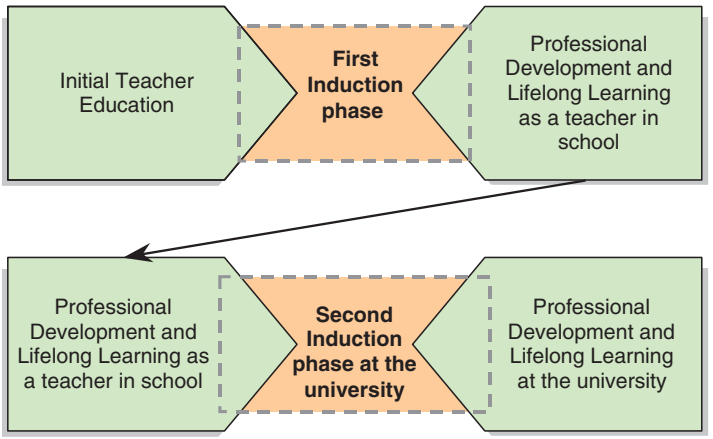

Fig. 7.1 First and second induction phase

During the second-phase induction, two processes take place simultaneously. In the first place, novice teacher educators develop within the organisation and it is, therefore, important to support novice teacher educators to understand the university culture and the aims of the university and one's colleagues. This process is known as socialisation within an organisation (Lortie, 1975; Lacey, 1987; Lauriala, 1997). In the second place, second-phase induction is a matter of professional socialisation. The prerequisite for continuous professional development of teacher educators is the willingness to develop and analyse their own work. During the first years in teacher education, the beginning teacher educators develop basic teacher educators' competences. They develop their own teaching styles and professional self-concepts. The ability of personal reflection is one of the most important abilities for professional growth (Schön, 1983, Calderhead, 1988; Korthagen, 1999; Harrison, Lawson, & Wortley, 2005).

Second-phase induction is a *learning process about teaching.* During this process, new teacher educators learn how their students learn and this provides opportunities to develop their teaching and their own professional identities as well. Mezirow (1991) supports the idea of professional development as a learning process by identifying three dimensions of learning:

- Instrumental learning to develop professional knowledge and skills.
- Dialogical learning to become a group member of the staff and to develop mutual, shared visions on teaching and learning.
- Self-reflective learning to develop personal identity in connection with other members of the organisation.

We argue that the conditions at a university differ significantly from the conditions at school. First, teacher educators are teachers of teachers and as such they serve as a model for student teachers. Teacher educators cannot just talk about how to teach, but must be able to model excellent teaching and should, therefore,

be excellent teachers. Second, teacher educators teach beginning teachers who are (young) adults, and teaching adults requires different knowledge and skills than teaching children or aolescents. Adult learners have strong personal practices and beliefs based on experiences, which have impact on their learning processes. Third, working in an academic environment differs from working in schools as the university is a complex social and political context requiring another set of competences, for instance, research competences. Formal induction or professional development opportunities for teacher educators are scarce (Smith, 2003), and even when induction opportunities are present, they may not always meet the needs of the beginning teacher educators (Murray & Male, 2005).

Examples from Estonia and Sweden

In this section, we will discuss two specific examples, one from Estonia and one from Sweden. The needs of beginning teacher educators are discussed, in relation to getting to know the world of higher education and coming to terms with the workplace, developing professional competences as teacher educators and developing personal and professional identities as teacher educators. Finally, some possibilities for an induction period in the career of a teacher educator, as well as some induction support activities, are explored. We also present good practices of emerging induction programmes for beginning teacher educators.

Our aim is to answer two specific questions: what are the needs of beginning teacher educators? And what kinds of support are possible, available and effective for them? We will focus on the specific problems and needs beginning teacher educators encounter as well as on activities to support them.

Second-Phase Induction in Estonia

Teacher education in Estonia is situated at the universities, and, therefore, teacher educators are university lecturers or senior lecturers. Teacher educators in Estonia, like those in other countries (see also Chapters 2 and 6), have many responsibilities as the level of the preparation of future teachers affects how well new generations will manage their lives. It thus influences the sustainable development of the education system and the whole society. A university lecturer in Estonia is expected to be able to teach and undertake research equally well; to be a supervisor and a counsellor; to be aware of the latest scientific researches and innovations in the educational field; to cooperate with employers and colleagues; to take care of professional development; and, if needed, also to do different kinds of administrative work. Although being successful in research is considered to be very important for university lecturers, it is still through teaching that teacher educators directly or indirectly influence hundreds (if not thousands) of students. In this section we will present some developing thoughts about the induction of teacher educators.

According to the national development plan for teacher education 2006–2010 (Õpetajakoolituse riiklik arengukava, 2003), university teachers often miss educational preparation and according to national evaluations, this is one of the reasons why most teacher education programmes are too theoretical. One course about university pedagogy is provided (6 ECTS) during the doctoral studies, but although this is not enough, a course like this helps future teacher educators. Here is a quote of a participant who attended and assessed the university pedagogy course:

> I learned a lot from lecturers. I was pleasantly surprised by how the studies were conducted on a couple of occasions. I learned to behave more freely among students and acquired new good methods on how to involve students more actively in their learning process. I became more aware of different teaching methods and could systematize them. Until now I hadn't realized that teaching could be learned.

To improve the professional development of teacher educators, the national development plan defines that all general competence requirements for teachers also apply to teacher educators. University teacher educators need to posses teaching competences on a higher level and must be able to focus on teaching student teachers.

Official requirements for teacher educators in Estonia are described in the *Outline Requirements for Teacher Training* (Õpetajate koolituse raamnõuded, 2000). Teacher educators who provide didactical training need to have at least 3 years of relevant teaching experience in schools. Regular in-service training to improve teaching competences is not required.

To date, there is no formal second-phase induction in Estonia, but we are in the process of developing such an induction phase. Second-phase induction needs to be developed in order to guarantee professional development for the coming generations. The need for additional support is aptly expressed in the following quote of a newcomer as noted in the assessment forms:

> The process of becoming a university teacher is the same as the process of becoming an ordinary teacher; it is like teaching at school for the first year. I remember that feeling so well. Actually it is more complicated at a university than at school. The university's material basis is worse; the relations with colleagues are more superficial; the competition is higher – you feel more left alone and you have to manage on your own. A university as an organisation has a more complicated structure and is also much bigger.

This beginning teacher educator expresses the problem vividly and highlights the need for a second phase of induction. Uncertainty and loneliness may be experienced very strongly by individuals at the beginning of this learning process. At the university, there are higher and different teaching standards than in schools and a course outlining the pedagogy of teaching in universities would, therefore, be helpful.

In order to guarantee professional development for new generations of university teachers in Estonia, it is essential to create a support system for beginner lecturers and teacher educators. Ideally, second-phase induction should include formal mentor support, a course in how to teach in higher education and the compilation of an induction year portfolio. The universities ought to have means of assessing internal quality, which would include a system of conducting formal conversations

about the new educator's learning and giving constructive feedback. In particular, more attention should be paid to setting a value on teaching skills and the teaching process itself (Krabi, 2005).

Second-Phase Induction in Sweden

Teacher education programmes in Sweden are, as in Estonia, fully integrated in the Swedish universities. Universities in Sweden, like in other countries, have been very attractive employers, but since early 1990s, there have been changes in structure, in functioning and in financing of the university system. The student population at the university and in teacher education is larger and more diversified in terms of student ability, motivation and cultural backgrounds. Even experienced teacher educators report difficulties with coping with the new situation. Various factors such as class size, increased student intake, decrease of staff members and new courses demand more in terms of teaching skills. The working environment is still attractive, but the premises for university teachers in general and more specific for teacher educators have changed radically during the last few decades.

To be employed at the university as a former schoolteacher means a change in perspective and requires the development of new abilities and a new identity as a teacher educator in higher education (Biggs, 2006). The teacher educator needs to find her/his personal strengths and adapt to the new teaching context at the university.

In Sweden, teachers who become teacher eductors have to meet several requirements and they receive support to fulfil these requirements. This may be seen as part of their induction as teachers in higher education, but not necessarily as teacher educators. Teacher educators without a doctoral degree will need to become involved in research to receive this degree. A lecturer is allowed, according to local agreements, to some time, for instance 20% of the working hours, to finish a doctoral degree. Lecturers can also get other funding for research education, for instance, in projects.

In Sweden, there is a national agreement specifying that all new university teachers, including teacher educators, need to take a course of 10 weeks on teaching in higher education to get a permanent contract at the university. The content of these courses varies from one university to another due to the decentralised system, but the main focus of each course is lifelong learning and professional development. These 10 weeks are regarded as a starting point for further professional development. Unfortunately these courses are not necessarily offered in the very beginning of a teacher educator's career in higher education and novice teacher educators might have to wait for the courses to start, and that affects the possibilities to develop as a university teacher.

There is no formal second-phase induction in higher education in Sweden on a national level, but there are certain support activities for university teachers and some developmental work activities much like second-phase induction. The university organises different kinds of workplace support on faculty level, institutional level and

even subject level. New teacher educators are 'taught' in their own subject group about how to become a professional teacher educator. The initial support can vary from just a single conversation with the head of the department to a support programme that will last for several days.

An example of second-phase induction can be found at the department of education of the University of Gävle, there is an introduction for 6 days. The introduction is focussed on what the beginning teacher educators need to know to develop as a professional teacher in higher education and as a teacher of teachers. The introduction is based on the beginning teacher educator's most important needs as they are expressed in her/his own questions. The questions are personal and deal with a wide range of subjects. It is considered a good investment to spend time and other resources to organise a second-phase induction, which will support the teacher educators to feel confident in the workplace and the profession.

In Sweden, the system of mentorship in higher education is under construction. It is a common practice for newly appointed teacher educators to receive mentor support. For example, at the University in Gävle in the department of education, newly appointed teachers receive mentor support during their first year. It is only an offer and participation is voluntarily, but all novice teacher educators have agreed to have a mentor. The mentor and the mentee plan their meetings according to the mentee's needs and possibilities. They meet often at the start of the first year, about once a week, while they might meet about once a month towards the end. In addition, new teacher educators are invited to observe more experienced colleagues during their lectures, seminars or supervising tasks. To avoid the danger that the beginning teacher educator adopts the more experienced colleague's behaviour without proper reflection on its appropriateness, each observation has a follow-up to stimulate discussion and reflection. Newly employed teachers might get reduced teaching time during their first year – about 10% less than a full-time job, to be able to participate in support activities and prepare more carefully their teaching tasks.

To conclude, changes have been implemented in Swedish universities to enable better introductions to the workplace and the profession. It is considered as an important condition that has raised the quality of higher education.

Some Reflections

There are two types of introduction needed during the second induction phase of university teacher educators. To get an introduction to the *workplace* is important to all teachers in higher education, not only for teacher educators. The workplace introduction focuses on the organisational context for academic work, particularly for teaching, research and management. Introduction to the new workplace has to do with providing technical assistance for teaching and presenting local policies, local culture and local procedures. To introduce a new teacher educator to a workplace is a matter of making working conditions more visible, more accessible and understandable.

The introduction to the profession encompasses, among other things, effective subject-matter teaching at university level, understanding and meeting student teachers' needs, assessing student teachers' work and learning, reflective and inquiry-oriented teaching in the teacher education programme, understanding university's organisational aspects and participation options in the university community. The professional socialisation dimensions are more problematical. New teacher educators feel lonely and isolated, because of the size of the organisation and the competitive nature of the university, but mainly because there are too few possibilities to have professional conversations and moments for self-reflection about teaching and developing a professional identity as teacher educator. This means that organisational contexts do not always support professional development of beginning teacher educators in all dimensions.

Effective second-phase induction assumes a supporting culture that allows raising questions, to ask for advice or to ask experienced colleagues to talk about their own lecturing or tutoring. In some universities, this is a very common practice and attitudes towards new colleagues are open-minded, but not all universities have this kind of supportive culture. It might be possible to change the culture by asking questions, but it takes some courage (Gustafsson, Fransson, Morberg, & Nordquist, 2006).

If there are more new teacher educators in one department, it is very useful to stimulate them to make contact with each other. A good way of supporting new teacher educators during their second-phase induction is to organise regular meetings for them. It is wise to share one's problems with others in the same situation, like for example, difficulties in planning a working day, lack of peace and quiet, dealing with the competitive atmosphere at the university, being a colleague in a new working environment (Gustafsson et al., 2006). These meetings my also be important to organise more formal professional development activities that support the beginning teacher educators to develop the competences needed in their new and complex profession as teacher educators.

Recommendations and Conclusions

Schoolteachers who start a career as teacher educators have to learn the ropes of their new profession, which can be a very frustrating process. Experiences with mentor programmes in both our countries show good results. Therefore, we recommend the implementation of mentoring as a standard policy of induction programmes. However, new teacher educators cannot be forced to accept the support of a mentor. Mentoring has to be built on willingness to learn and develop. An experienced teacher educator should consider the task of mentoring as taking responsibilities for the teacher education programme, as well as for the professional development of teacher educators. It is important for all participants in the mentor programme to be explicit about their expectations. The mentor and the mentee should also be aware that they both have their own responsibilities in making the relationship work (Lindgren, 2003). Some aims

for mentoring, according to our two cases, are to improve teaching at the university level; to increase the retention of good teacher educators; to promote personal and professional well-being; to support teacher educators' attitudes towards themselves and the new profession; as well as to transmit the culture of the university to the teacher educator. To improve teaching, and especially the teaching of teachers, is the most important aim, but it is also the most challenging.

Besides the necessity of mentor programmes, we would like to emphasis the need to pay sufficient attention to career development, even in the early stages of a teacher educator's career, when beginning teacher educators still consider themselves as novices. Universities are known to be very elite systems and competition is always present. The assistance of a senior colleague might be helpful in this respect (Gustafsson et al., 2006). Questions to be asked are Will I go into research? Will I be a professor? What competences do I want to develop? What are my possibilities? What are my strengths? What are my weaknesses? What is the head of department expecting of me? What are my colleagues expecting? Which tasks suit me best? Which tasks do not suit me at all? What are my goals? How do I reach them? Who can give me advice and support me during my career? It is almost impossible to answer all these questions at once, but we would like to stress the necessity of planning and thinking ahead. The thoughts and understanding we have of ourselves and our possibilities are very important. With wrong thoughts and lack of understanding, we might take wrong turns in our career paths.

Here we will list our ten major recommendations to improve current induction practices of beginning teacher educators. We recommend new teacher educators to

1. Try to understand that being a beginning teacher educator in higher education is difficult.
2. Accept that it is all right 'not to know' and to be inexperienced, but accept the professional learning process.
3. Find out about activities related to induction and ask for at least 10% of work time to be able to participate in support activities.
4. Convince your head of the department that engaging in second-phase induction is a good investment.
5. Express your needs so that your needs can be used as a guide to planning the support during your induction.
6. Ask for the two types of support – a workplace introduction and a professional introduction.
7. Ask for an experienced colleague to serve as your mentor for your professional introduction.
8. Ask questions, ask for advice, ask experienced colleagues to inform you about their lecturing and tutoring experiences. Attend courses, seminars and conferences. Look for invitations to observe experienced colleagues performing various (teaching) tasks.
9. Think about your personal professional identity – what kind of educator do you want to become.
10. Think about your future – be active and design your own career at the university.

These ten recommendations are important to create possibilities for professional development. We know from our own experiences and research that teacher educators are key people in creating good and stimulating learning environments for student teachers. The pressure on teacher educators is high, and there is an increasing interest internationally in supporting teacher educators, as well as all kinds of university teachers. Educators in higher education around the world are realising that helping new teachers in higher education to learn more about teaching and student learning is a very important investment for the future. It is an investment for the university, for society, and also for the profession itself. It is the authors' intention that this chapter inspires new teacher educators in many countries to consider their own needs and support. In addition, the authors hope that this chapter will support boards of universities to review and improve current second-phase induction practices and to guarantee this kind of induction as a formal right of all new teacher educators!

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Part III
Aspects of the Work of Teacher Educators

Chapter 8
Teacher Education for Diversity

Paul Bartolo and Geri Smyth

Introduction

Welcome to the world of teacher education, a world inhabited by the writers of this chapter for almost 20 years. Both of us entered the teacher education profession from the school classroom where, in the 1980s in inner city Scotland, Geri taught a linguistically and ethnically diverse range of students and Paul taught a range of students from very low socio-economic to middle class backgrounds in a bilingual situation in both primary and secondary schools in Malta. At that time, the norm in the teaching profession in both our countries was that classrooms were populated by pupils from monolingual, monoethnic backgrounds and children with additional support needs were frequently educated outside of the mainstream classroom.

Classrooms are changing and in this first decade of the 21st century, teachers need to be prepared for ensuring a high-quality education for an increasingly diverse school population coming from different racial, ethnic, linguistic and religious backgrounds, and differing abilities. Student diversity incorporates a number of dimensions including social class/socio-economic status, ethnicity, language, religion, disability, sexuality and special educational needs. It is important to recognise that these categories frequently overlap and when added together, it is clear that this is not a minority issue but is the reality of experience for all teachers and all potential teachers who will teach pupils from across this diverse spectrum. Nevertheless, it is equally important to recognise that each of the dimensions does have a different 'history', with some having been classroom reality for many years and, therefore, being the subject of considerable research and literature, while other dimensions are relatively newly being recognised in mainstream classrooms and consequently much less has been written about them. Some dimensions are the subject of national legislation (e.g. in the United Kingdom, race and disability). Others are the subject of recent or imminent directives from the European Union (e.g. religion, sexual orientation, age).

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Other dimensions are not yet subject to legislation as such (social class, language), although there may be national policy initiatives concerning underachievement, for example, which influence educational responses to children who are in lower achieving groups as a result of social class or language. Three main factors which appear to have highlighted diversity issues in education in recent years are demography, mainstreaming and underachievement. There has been a demographic and associated cultural shift due to the impact of an increasing number of immigrants in Europe and increasing mobility within and across countries (Eurydice, 2002; EC, 2003). At the same time, there has been a wide policy of mainstreaming of students with impairments or special needs, which calls 'for the acquisition by teachers of specific skills, such as the ability to offer teaching geared to individual needs and adapt the curriculum accordingly' (Eurydice, 2002, p. 47). One may add to this the wider democratic concerns on the entitlement of each student to reach his/her potential, whether they are gifted or have a different learning style from the majority of the class (see, e.g., Tomlinson, 2001; Meijer, 2003). Further, there is a new concern about the difficulties that are faced in modern society by youths who fail to achieve adequate levels of literacy or drop out of school, together with an awareness of the multiplicity and complexity of competences required in today's society (see, e.g., Gregory & Kuzmich, 2005; CEC, 2007).

It is not surprising then to find that three of the eight questions raised by the EU Commission consultation on 'Schools for the 21st century' address diversity issues. These are worthwhile questions for all teacher educators to consider.

- How can school systems best respond to the need to promote equity, to respond to cultural diversity and to reduce early school leaving?
- If schools are to respond to each pupil's individual learning needs, what can be done as regards curricula, school organisation and the roles of teachers?
- How can school communities help to prepare young people to be responsible citizens, in line with fundamental values such as peace and tolerance of diversity? (CEC, 2007).

All teacher educators, whether engaged in theoretical approaches such as psychology, philosophy, or sociology of education, or as general or subject-specific pedagogy experts, have to consider how to respond to diversity in their teacher education. Teacher educators also have to consider the diverse needs of an increasingly diverse student teacher population.

At this point, the authors wish to declare some concerns about raising the issues of diversity in a separate chapter, as these issues should truly permeate all areas of teacher education, be it our own teaching approaches, assessment issues, the content of our input, support for students on placement in the field or any other area of our professional practice. While being a separate chapter, it is intended to make diversity issues familiar to all teacher educators who may sometimes tend to consider the issues as belonging only to a few colleagues. It is also hoped that the chapter will reduce the distance from diversity issues that sometimes arises from the fact that most teacher educators come from a background of success at school and belong to dominant groups in society.

In so doing, the authors of this chapter would like to first say that as teacher educators we consider ourselves to be in a privileged occupation. We work directly with those who will be involved in the education of future generations and also, through our research, with children in classrooms. To an extent, our pairing is diverse – Paul is a male from Malta and Geri is a female from Scotland. However, what we have in common is perhaps far more significant – we are around the same age with a similar class and religious upbringing and similar family situations. We share values as to what education is and can be and are passionate believers in social justice. What this cannot mean is that we want all teachers to be clones of our value systems and beliefs. Indeed, both of us also feel a great need for contact and dialogue with teacher educators from other cultures and ethnic and other minority groups as an essential ingredient in our continuing professional development.

This chapter investigates two diversity challenges for teacher educators in succession: first, how teacher educators themselves can be increasingly open to the diverse needs and strengths of their own student teachers in all aspects of their pre-service development; and second, how teacher educators can help their student teachers to develop competences in responding to diversity in schools and classrooms.

The Challenges

Student Teacher Diversity

The first challenge is for teacher educators to be aware of and responsive to the diversity of their own student teachers. An audit by observation of your classes in terms of gender and visible ethnicities and abilities may not reveal a very diverse group. However, widening access initiatives have changed the social class and physical ability of entrants to higher education. Gradually, the teaching force is becoming more culturally and ethnically heterogeneous and this is to be welcomed (see, e.g., report of REMIT seminar, 2004). There are now increasingly diverse student teachers because of job and trans-European mobility and more heterogeneous societies, as well as an encouragement in some countries of diverse routes to teacher education to people working in business and industry, particularly for new subject areas. Moreover, we are recognising the fact that student teachers may have different learning styles (Ehle, 2007). This situation calls on teacher educators to acknowledge, respect and respond to the diversity of their students through understanding and developing the backgrounds, cultures, experiences and values that all students bring to teacher education.

Professional Self-Development of Teacher Educators

The development of openness towards diversity is primarily related to acknowledgement of one's own attitudes. As such, it calls for personal reflection and value

clarification as an essential learning tool. Teacher educators have included such reflection as an essential part of teachers' professional development for a long time, but most strongly since Schön's (1983) accounts of *The Reflective Practitioner*. This approach should also be an essential part of the professional self-development of the teacher educator in responding to diversity.

As teacher educators, we ourselves need to reflect on what backgrounds and cultural experiences we are bringing to our teaching. It is helpful to reflect on our implicit theories of education. For instance, ask yourself what do you think is the main aim of education. If you consider the main aim as being to pass on the prevailing culture and values to students, you are liable to consider student teachers as a group of educators whom you have to form into the ideal teachers according to your own understanding, values and criteria for the ideal educator.

On the other hand, if you consider the main aim of education as being to enable students to achieve autonomous thinking and skills that will lead them to use their capabilities and learning to make the world a better place for themselves and others, then you may see your task differently: you are likely to consider student teachers as individuals with particular characteristics and learning that can contribute towards a better understanding of the education system and with a potential for changing it into a more equitable and effective system for learners.

Another opportunity for reflective practice is to consider your responses to differences in the group of student teachers. You may be lucky in your student body to have a mixture of genders, ethnic and language groups, ideological orientations and other differences. How do you respond to such differences? Do you see it as a problem, for example, if you have student teachers who do not share the same first language as yourself or who require particular access arrangements to be made to class material? Do you plan your activities assuming a particular shared cultural knowledge base among the group? Or can you see student diversity as an opportunity to enable your student teachers to appreciate the richness of classroom diversity? Do you see yourself making use of the different contributions that each of your students can offer to their peers in opening up to new perspectives on education? Do you encourage debates about the nature of education and, for example, the teacher–pupil relationship, or do you assume that all your students share your views and experiences?

Prior to engaging with diverse groups, it is important to acknowledge how one positions oneself in terms of gender, ethnicity, culture, physical and intellectual ability, social class and so on. This can be initiated by reflection on how one's own reaction to difference has developed over time and experiences. Teacher educators can engage in a variety of strategies for understanding how their own background has influenced the development of their own identities and how this in turn shapes and influences their interaction with people from other cultures or minorities (see, e.g., Cushner, 2006; or internet resources such as http://www.edchange.org/multicultural/ activityarch.html).

Such reflection can make you more aware of possible barriers that you may set up when encountering different individuals and can enable you to be more prepared to open yourself up to the positive aspects of diversity.

A related area for growth in one's openness to diversity is offered by the opportunity to reflect on one's position in the constant debates that arise in contemporary societies. As demographies change and evolve, attitudes to difference are challenged among society at large. One such issue is immigration. The Eurobarometer and European Social Survey of *Majorities' attitudes towards minorities* (EUMC, 2006) showed that over the period 1997–2003, there continued to be substantial resistance to ethnic diversity among the populations of EU countries, with three particular areas of concern being that there should be a limit to the development of a multicultural society, an opposition to civil rights, even for legal migrants, and an increasing minority of respondents from the 15 EU Member States (about one in five) that were in favour of repatriation policies for legal migrants. Teacher educators need to be aware of trends in attitudes towards migration issues in order to be able to engage in meaningful discussions with their students on issues of diversity. It is also important to consider one's own value positions regarding such issues and how they have been developed.

Immigrant minorities are only one of the many types of minorities that are vulnerable to exclusion in the larger community. For instance, a European concern has been that of homophobic attitudes that can lead to bullying and exclusion of school students with a minority sexual orientation – gay, lesbian, bisexual or transgendered (Rivers, 2001). Although most studies concern students in secondary education, there is increasing concern over the impact of homophobic bullying on younger children (see, e.g., a recent report on homophobic incidents in Scottish schools available from http://www.lgbtyouth.org.uk/EducationResarchandResources.htm). In another area, studies show that overweight and obesity may interfere with children's social relations and, therefore, emotional development (Janssen, Craig, Boyce, & Pickett, 2004). These diversities are present in our lecture rooms.

We would recommend engaging with personal reflection on the above issues before attempting some of the activities we suggest for helping student teachers to consider promoting positive attitudes to diversity in their classrooms.

Understanding the Impact of Discrimination

At this time, the majority of teacher educators as well as teachers come from a background of success at school and from majority groups in society in terms, for example, of ethnicity, language and physical ability. They may, therefore, have difficulty understanding the experience of those who feel that they are failures and unwelcome at school. Moreover, those who are failures often also belong to minority groups and have been the targets of discrimination from the agent majority groups to which we belong. Adams, Bell, & Griffin (1997) refer to the existence of dominant or agent groups and subordinate or target groups in each form of oppression. It is, therefore, important that all educators deeply consider issues of equal entitlement of all learners to a quality education and how such entitlement may be interfered through discrimination. The *Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union* has a long list of potential sources of discrimination that are prohibited:

> Any discrimination based on any ground such as sex, race, colour, ethnic or social origin, genetic features, language, religion or belief, political or any other opinion, membership of a national minority, property, birth, disability, age or sexual orientation shall be prohibited (EU, 2000, Article 21).

Discrimination against 'minority' groups can have a significant impact on educational opportunities at personal, cultural, institutional and structural levels. Ignoring difference can have a negative impact on children's academic achievement. Further discussion of these terms can be found in the section on ways of approaching discussions about diversity with student teachers.

Evidence may be obtained from reports such as the European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (EUMC) on the achievement gap between native and migrant pupils that is reported across Europe. Partial or even total segregation in education is still a common phenomenon in large parts of the EU. An analysis and overview of the Europe-wide PISA education performance study and others concluded firmly in 2005 that highly differentiated and segregationist school systems produce and reproduce inequality:

> A few Member States reported a narrowing of the gap in educational attainment between the majority population and some migrant/minority groups. In general, however, the attainment gap between different ethnic/national groups has remained at a significant level, with certain groups, such as Roma, particularly vulnerable to falling behind (EUMC, 2006, p. 14).

It is useful to access the data relevant to one's own national context. In Germany, for example:

> Foreign pupils are, on average, still less successful in the educational system than German pupils are. This disadvantaged position of non-Germans is particularly obvious in secondary education and, later on, at universities. The latest international OECD study (PISA) also concluded that children with a migration background and those from a lower social stratum achieve a significantly lower level of educational competence (Bosch & Peucker, 2006, p. 6).

In the United Kingdom, a recent report on Ethnicity and Education describes a similar situation: minority ethnic pupils are more likely to experience deprivation than white British pupils, especially Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black African and Black Caribbean pupils. For example, 70% of Bangladeshi pupils and almost 60% of Pakistani and Black African pupils live in the 20% most deprived postcode areas (as defined by the Index of Multiple Deprivation) compared to less than 20% of white British pupils. Gypsy/Roma, Travelers of Irish Heritage, Black, Pakistani and Bangladeshi pupils consistently have lower levels of attainment than other ethnic groups (DfES, 2006).

Teacher educators do not, of course, work in isolation and it is important to take account of how we may be influenced by the prevalent attitudes to diversity of the institution where we work. Guidelines exist to consider how institutions can be measured in terms of how they are promoting respect for diversity. For instance, Zeichner, Grants, Gay, Gillette, Valli, & Villegas (1998, cited in Ryan, 2003) proposed 14 indicators for assessing how far a teacher education programme promotes multicultural education. These include the statement of respect for diversity in the

institution's mission statement and policies; that 'multicultural perspectives permeate the entire teacher education curriculum, including general education courses and those in academic subject areas'; that 'the program helps prospective teachers develop the commitment to be change agents who work to promote greater equity and social justice in schooling and society'; and that 'the program teaches prospective teachers how to learn about students, families, and communities, and how to use knowledge of culturally diverse students' backgrounds in planning, delivering, and evaluating instruction' (Ryan, 2003, pp. 163–169).

If the institution where you are engaged as a teacher educator is not yet open to diversity, it may be difficult for you as an individual to promote the idea for staff development on this issue. However, legislative requirements can be a powerful influence for change. The Race Relations (Amendment) Act in the United Kingdom has required institutions to give much more consideration to how policies and practice influence racial equality and has resulted in the publication in Scotland of The Race Equality Toolkit, a resource for mainstreaming race equality into learning and teaching in higher education (Universities Scotland, 2006).

As a new teacher educator concerned with equality and social justice for your student teachers, you will need to find out about recruitment and admission policies in your institution. Investigate which committees make these policies, how decisions are made in these committees and what organisational strategies are in place for encouraging a more heterogeneous student teacher population. Investigate the existence of local support schemes, which encourage a wider variety of student teachers to join programmes. For instance, the US state of Vermont introduced a 'Loan cancellation program to support students from diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds who wish to become teachers in the Vermont public school system' (http://templeton.vsc.edu/teacherdiversity/downloaded 28.05.06). In Scotland, the Refugees Into Teaching in Scotland (RITeS) project supports refugees who have been teachers in their country of origin into joining the teaching profession in their new country (see more information about this project at the website http://www.strath.ac.uk/cps/rites/).

Kelly & Grenfell (2004, p. 6) suggest the use of 'flexible and modular' teacher education programmes 'to attract a diverse range of trainees into language teaching, to adapt to different lifestyles and financial factors and to promote the use of new learning environments and life-long learning strategies'. These could include, for instance, courses available through distance learning or the possibility of studying part-time (available on http://www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/report/index.htm).

Preparation of Beginning Teachers for Classroom Diversity

Although there may still be some teacher education institutions with rather homogenous student teacher cohorts, teachers in almost all contemporary schools have to meet the needs of pupils from a diverse range of backgrounds and with a diverse range of needs. Policy makers and educators across Europe see issues of diversity

as being a core challenge of training for today's teachers (EC Directorate General for Education and Culture, 2003; Meijer, 2003; CEC, 2007).

In many European countries, the student teacher and indeed teaching population come from a largely homogeneous background with little prior experience of diverse contexts (see, e.g., Hagan & McGlynn, 2004; Menter, Hartshorn, Hextall, Howell, & Smyth, 2006). Rego Santos and Nieto (2000), based on their experience as pre-service and practicing teachers and their analysis of the situation in Spain and USA, suggest teacher education needs to be linked to a more critical understanding of diversity. This section will suggest the strategies that may be employed to ensure more effective preparation of beginning teachers for teaching in diverse classrooms.

Professional Self-Development of Teachers

As for the teacher educator, the first important factor for teachers in responding to diversity among pupils is self-reflection on the teacher's attitudes (Humphrey et al., 2006). Among the six main teacher competences that have been highlighted in culturally responsive education, the first three concern attitudes:

> Culturally responsive teachers (a) are socioculturally conscious, (b) have affirming views of students from diverse backgrounds, (c) see themselves as responsible for and capable of bringing about change to make schools more equitable, (d) understand how learners construct knowledge and are capable of promoting knowledge construction, (e) know about the lives of their students, and (f) design instruction that builds on what their students already know while stretching them beyond the familiar (Villegas & Lucas, 2002, p. 20).

A major group of studies on teacher education for diversity concern 'prejudice reduction' (Hollins & Guzman, 2005). Student teachers need to have the opportunity to develop openness to the diversity of pupils they are going to encounter in their classrooms. They need to recognise all pupils as being equally worthy of their attention and effort. One can start with opportunities for reflection on their experience of difference. Students can be asked to recall and possibly write their 'life story' with regard to education, highlighting their encounters with difference in the early years, primary and secondary education, and their ideals in teaching. They can then be asked to analyse in collaboration with a tutor or group of peers how this has influenced their approach to diversity. Alternatively, one can ask student teachers to recall particular encounters with difference, such as the first encounter with a different person (in class, race, religion, etc.). Questions to be asked would include: How did you react? Did you experience fear/challenge, engagement/disengagement, disgust/pleasure, learn new insights/reinforce your previous understandings? Several types of such value clarification exercises were developed in a Comenius 2.1 project titled APT (available on https://www.ltu.se/pol/d209/d223/2.1498/d1509/1.4754?l=sv).

Student teachers can also be provided with opportunities for reflecting on how they are responding to the diversity of pupils during their teaching practice. They may be asked to keep a journal of incidents related to issues of diversity that would

then be used in tutorial sessions. In a meta-analysis of such endeavours, Jacobs (2006) found that researchers reported challenging supervision as more effective than engaging in discussion about social justice in society or schools in general. Supervision sessions should raise challenges for students as to how they ignored or responded positively or negatively to the diverse pupils in their class. For instance, Abt-Perkins, Hauschildt, & Dale (2000) reported that they found little impact on students through critical reflection about injustice, but reported significant impact when supervisors engaged the students in critical reflection on their challenges during teaching in the classroom. For example:

- The student teacher raised difficulties with student engagement and the supervisor brought up questions about the student's race, gender, ethnicity, class and other identity issues or beliefs and assumptions.
- The supervisor brought up an issue related to the pre-service teacher's authority in the classroom or relationships with students (highlighted by Jacobs, 2006).

One can also use dilemmas in teaching a diverse class for discussion among student teachers or present dilemmas in the form of case studies or role play. Case studies can be derived around experiences with which the tutor and/or students are familiar. The following examples have been used by Geri for problem-based learning exercises in teacher education in Scotland (see similar examples in Sheets, 2005).

Case 1

You are a teacher in a mainstream primary school class of 8-year-old children. One pupil in your class is involved in an accident and has to use a wheel chair for at least a few months. What adaptations will you need to make to your classroom environment and curriculum in order to ensure that this child is not disadvantaged?

Case 2

You are a teacher of geography in an English medium secondary school for 11- to 18-year-old pupils. Wladek from Poland is a new arrival in your fourth year (15–16 year olds) class. He has very little English and you speak no Polish. What first steps would you take to ensure Wladek's rapid integration into your class? How could you use Wladek's background to enhance your curriculum delivery?

Activities to enhance student understanding of diversity should preferably include examples or discussions that draw from the actual lived experiences of the participants. This is an essential strategy in helping student teachers to develop attitudes that are culturally responsive.

Reflection on the content of student journals can also provide sources of 'teachable moments': an incident raising a dilemma about discrimination or social justice that arises either in class or in society and engages your students deeply. They are then more receptive to reflection on those issues (Reuben, 1997).

We are constantly experiencing situations of conflict regarding inclusion and diversity issues in society and education. These can be used in a variety of ways to develop attitudes and skills towards using diversity for our own and our learners' enrichment. For instance, in one school in Malta in which there were the first black children attending from a nearby refugee camp, a challenge was created for the school as parents were urging their children not to sit near these refugee children who they considered might have AIDS. The school administration addressed this problem by organising activities on democracy and respect for others, including a very successful day of celebration of children's games from different cultures, which was enriched by the variety of games from the refugee children's cultures in the presence of the parents of both Maltese children and children from the refugee families (Bartolo et al., 2007). Such situations relevant to teacher education are common in contemporary European societies. All teacher educators must keep informed about contemporary issues and consider how discussion in class can raise student understanding and respect for diversity. As mentioned earlier, facilitating such discussions fruitfully requires the teacher educator to have engaged in self-reflection about the issues as well as being skilful in respecting, and at the same time challenging, the expression of different views.

Understanding the Potential for Discrimination

Sociocultural consciousness can also be raised through highlighting the evidence of the discrimination that can be suffered by minority groups. This is important particularly because teachers coming from the dominant groups in society and achievers in the education system may have difficulty understanding the impact of discrimination. Moreover, education has often been seen as a central tool for preparing citizens to fit into the norms of society. A result of this is the application of one-size-fits-all standards and curricula to all schools and children. Within that framework, those who do not meet the standards and norms set by the dominant majority are regarded as failures and misfits and are pushed out of the system (Barton & Slee, 1999). Moreover, they are also blamed for their own failure and are labelled 'drop outs' rather than 'pushed out'.

Teachers and student teachers, therefore, need to become more aware of the potential discrimination against minority groups and the different levels at which this may operate. It is important not to refer to minorities as far off and exotic phenomena, but to understand those that are within one's own community. The framework given in Fig. 8.1 can provide a basis for a reflective exercise on the impact of discrimination at four levels. These four levels of discrimination interact and overlap (Adams et al., 1997).

Dimension of diversity*	Structural	Institutional	Cultural	Personal
Social class	Access to certain (private) schools based on family's economic status	Access to higher education based on attendance at certain schools	Stereotypes of working class/unemployed as being low achievers in e.g. television comedy shows	Jokes about not having appropriate school uniform or kit for physical education
Ethnicity	Few black teachers so teaching not seen as a profession for black students	More black pupils suspended proportionately than white pupils	Stereotypes of black pupils being 'good' at sport	Comments to pupils about being terrorists based on the colour of their skin
Language	English as the dominant language in all matters of education	School forbidding or discouraging child's use of the mother tongue	Low status of non-European languages in school	Joking about 'monkey' languages or 'gobbledegook' when child's language unfamiliar
Disability	Lack of access to school facilities for pupils with limited mobility	Disabled pupils required to 'sit out' during physical activities	Lack of resources depicting people with disabilities	Use of discriminatory and derogatory language to describe pupils with mental or physical disabilities
Religion	Banning of wearing the hijab in schools in certain countries	Religious observation in school for only one faith	Use in teaching 'Other world religions' of the terms 'us' and 'them' suggesting a school norm	Derogatory comments about religious practices in hairstyles, dress etc
Sexual orientation	Access to promotion for gay teachers can be difficult in Catholic schools in some countries	Assumptions of heterosexuality at school functions	Teachers using language such as 'are you a sissy'?	Playground 'jokes' questioning sexuality
Special educational needs (SEN)	Difficulty of access to mainstream education for many pupils with SEN	Limited training for teachers to effectively work with SEN assistants	SEN viewed as a 'problem' to be addressed after meeting mainstream needs	Teacher comments to whole class about need to wait for pupil x to finish work
*Note that any one person may belong to many categories				

Fig. 8.1 Discrimination at structural, institutional, cultural and personal levels. Examples by G. Smyth using Adams et al. (1997) model as developed by University of Strathclyde Faculty of Education Social Justice team

- *Structural* – the ways in which different statuses and access to benefits in society are structured into society physically, politically and legally.
- *Institutional* – normal institutional procedures and practices, which work against the interests of certain groups even though there may be no conscious decision to discriminate.
- *Cultural* – shared assumptions about normality and unquestioned ideas.
- *Personal* – individual acts of stereotyping, discrimination, abuse, harassment and physical assault.

Examples of discrimination operating at the different levels across the dimensions have been inserted and the authors would encourage readers to complete the table with examples from their own contexts and a reminder that one person may belong to many categories. When Geri and Paul conducted this exercise in an international workshop for teacher educators, a number of other dimensions were suggested including size as a potential area for discrimination.

Overcoming Deficit Thinking

Educators who are genuinely concerned with diversity need to be aware of the biased view of success and failure in education, which results from standardised curricula and assessment. This application of the norms of the majority to all diverse others as misfits has been challenged particularly within disability studies, and from sociologists who were themselves disabled (e.g. Oliver, 1990). It is from such sources that the term 'medical model' of disability has come to be used to describe the ways in which presumed deficits in the individual are seen as being the paramount issue. Instead, they proposed what has been termed as 'social model' of disability whereby disabled people are only handicapped as a result of society failing to accommodate their needs. Teacher educators who are concerned about the need to prepare teachers for responding to diversity would see the adoption of the social rather than the deficit model of education as a major issue to be addressed with their students in regard to all aspects of diversity.

Discrimination operates in a number of ways for minority groups as has been demonstrated in Fig. 8.1. However, in day-to-day terms in school, the issues need to be considered for individuals. It is important to help our student teachers not to view individual pupils who have a physical impairment or disability or special educational needs or a different home language from the majority of their peers as having a low ability. A person with sensory or physical impairment may be as fast a learner as any non-disabled peer. In such a situation, as for gender and minority groups, persons with impairment must be provided with equal access to learning and assessment in order that they have the same opportunities as their peers to achieve. Moreover, equal access has to mean a respect for multiple intelligences and learning styles. Such respect applies to all pupils and implies that one-size-fits-all curricula and assessments are unfair for those who themselves do not fit that size, e.g. one who has strong practical intelligence will be unfairly treated on an assessment that only

measures verbal intelligence or achievement. Therefore as teacher educators, we need to help our student teachers understand the complexities of abilities, learning styles and intelligences and urge them to consider a wide range of approaches to teaching and assessing.

Notwithstanding what we have written, competitive situations in education will always be unfair for slower learners or those with intellectual impairment. Such pupils will never have an opportunity to compete successfully with their faster learning peers. Indeed, where the competitive norms of the school are standard achievement tests, these students will always show up as failures. So, in order to include all students as equal learners, the school teaching, learning and assessment systems must measure the progress of each student as an individual rather than against the absolute levels achieved. Only in this way can school and, indeed, lifelong learning apply to all students without exception. All children want to learn, and all children can learn if we provide the appropriate curricula and opportunities and measure their individual progress. This is not, of course, a change that can be made overnight or by one teacher alone, but our student teachers need to be empowered to see the possibilities, for they will be after all the educational leaders of tomorrow.

We want our student teachers to provide high expectations and challenges for all pupils. Their first goal must be to adapt the level and type of support so that all may engage with the core curriculum. But this must also allow for each student to feel encouraged through a sense of success and progress rather than be labelled and stigmatised as stupid or inadequate in being always compared to those who learn faster.

They must also consider the technical challenges that responding to a diverse classroom brings to the teacher (Smyth, 2003; Bartolo et al., 2007). Class- and subject-teaching methodology must address the issue of mixed ability teaching, and explore related strategies such as use of multilevel curricula, cooperative learning, and peer tutoring.

Experiencing Diversity

Not all of our student teachers will have the opportunity on placement to engage with pupils in rich and diverse classrooms. Many will not encounter linguistic, cultural, ethnic or religious diversity in their pre-service experience and may have only limited involvement with students from diverse class and ability backgrounds. Another strategy for enabling teachers to respond to learner diversity is to enable them to experience the enrichment of intercultural experiences by participating in EU projects such as Socrates and Leonardo. With the ever increasing diversity of student teachers, not all will be able to take such opportunities for many reasons and so teacher education institutions, and individual teacher educators, need to widen their own networks and offer opportunities to student teachers for placements and connections with local community groups, which engage with diverse populations.

Conclusion

This chapter challenges the teacher educator to consider addressing the issues of inequitable opportunities in all sectors of education as a major concern of educators. It suggests that the teacher educator is challenged to develop his/her appreciation of diversity as an enrichment and then pass this on also to his/her student teachers. This is presented as a challenge for self-development as well as for understanding the impact of discrimination and the value of making use of the opportunities for learning that diversity offers the teacher educator and student teacher.

There is a clear need across Europe for teacher educators to take the lead in enabling pre- and in-service teachers to address the growing demand for responding to the diversity of learners everywhere and at all levels. Teacher education institutions reaching towards excellence in their endeavours have to consider as one of their main criteria the promotion of responding to diversity. This needs to be addressed both in the procedures within their own programme as well as in the impact of their training on the student teachers' competence in responding to learner diversity. We hope that after reading this chapter, the readers will be stimulated to act to promote social justice for and with their student teachers.

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Chapter 9
Linking Learning Styles and Teaching Styles

Tatjana Tubić and Kamile Hamiloğlu

Introduction

Most European countries attempt to develop policies to increase the quality of teachers and teacher educators at national and European level. Žogla comments on these developments by declaring 'among many complex changes taking place in European society, three major trends are pointed out: the internationalisation of the processes, the impact of the first appearances of the information society and the growing impact of scientific and technical development.' Implying that teacher educators could be the agents of these reforms and changes, she states that 'teacher educators comprise the most important group of specialists in the complicated sets of reform in education' (Žogla, 2006, p. 1). The importance of teacher educators is also outlined by Reimers and Reimers, who stated that 'the role of teacher educators is crucial in understanding and promoting effective programmes for the professional development of teachers, as they are the first to introduce prospective students to the profession, and also the ones who support teachers in their development from novice to experts' (Reimers & Reimers, 2000, pp. 66–67). Teacher educators' education and proficiency level seem to have a significant impact on the quality of student teacher education.

This chapter examines how to achieve a better match between students' learning styles and the teaching styles of teacher educators. It is widely accepted that the concept of learning styles is important in teacher education and coping with various learning styles of student teachers can be perceived as a major and difficult task for teacher educators. Teacher educators have a double responsibility as they have to relate their own teaching style to that of their student teachers and teach student teachers to adapt to the learning styles of their future pupils. There is little research on the relation between the learning styles of student teachers and the teaching of teacher educator, let alone about teacher educators as role models who show student teachers that it is possible and crucial to adapt to the learning styles of pupils.

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In this chapter, we describe our own research about learning and teaching styles in Serbia and Turkey. The chapter starts with a discussion on learning and teaching styles in which we draw from insights from relevant literature, in particular from research of our own parts of the world. To illustrate ways to examine the learning and teaching styles, we present two studies – a study about the individual learning styles of students of the Faculty of Education in Sombor, Serbia, and a study into the preferred teaching styles of student teachers of the Marmara University in Istanbul, Turkey. The chapter concludes with comments and recommendations about ways to link learning and teaching styles to improve the learning of student teachers.

Learning Styles of Student Teachers

Learning is a complex process influenced by many different factors, such as the individual traits of a learner, the ability of the teacher, the teaching material and the quality of interaction between the teachers and the learners. Figure 9.1 illustrates some of the different factors that influence the process of learning in schools. All these factors contribute to the learning process and have an impact on school achievement. In this range of factors, learning style is a factor of paramount importance for the learning process and, therefore, can not be neglected.

It is widely accepted that individuals differ in their approach to learning and problem solving. Some individuals develop mental images during the learning process, while others only remember what they experienced, that is, what they feel or touch. Some people prefer to read the instructions before they use a new machine, while

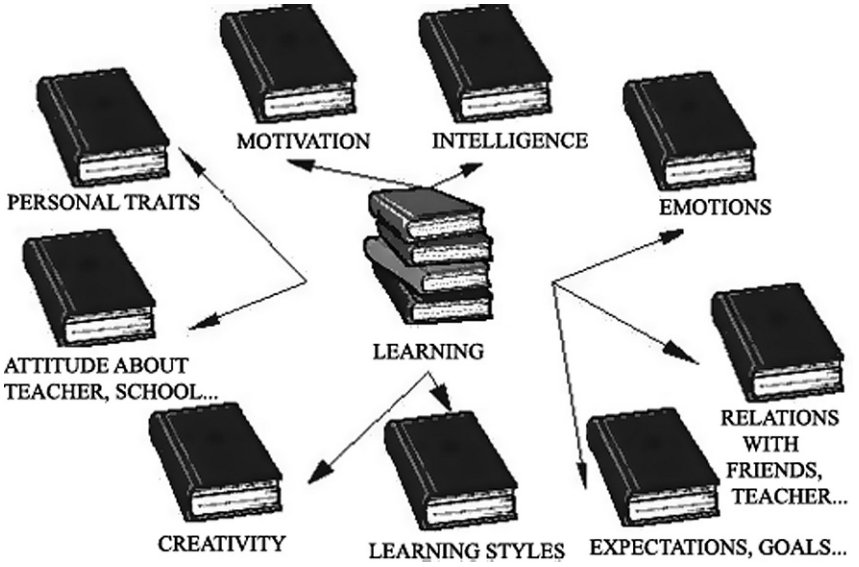

Fig. 9.1 Factors affecting learning (Tubić, 2005a)

others use a trial-and-error approach and read instructions only if their approach is not successful. All these examples fit into the concept of learning styles.

The concepts of cognitive style and learning strategy are sometimes used as synonyms for learning style, but learning style is a more general concept. As indicated by the name itself, cognitive style refers to the cognitive aspects of problem solving, like thinking, perception and remembering. Learning strategies are the methods, which the learner applies to improve understanding, integration and retention of new information (Weinstein & Meyer, 1991). The fact that learning strategies refer to elaboration, organisation, understanding, meta-cognition and control of sources of knowledge assumes that they include a wide range of cognitive processes and abilities. In contrast to learning styles, which are characterised by a relative permanence, learning strategies are susceptible to control and change during the process of learning (Pintrich & Johnson, 1990). Therefore, learners are relatively consistent in the learning style they apply. The definition of learning styles that will be used in this chapter is that of Keefe (1987, p. 4):

> Learning styles are cognitive, affective and physiological personality traits, which represent a relatively permanent indicator of how learners perceive and how they deal with the environment, which serves as a source of knowledge.

This definition assumes that a learning style is the product of personality traits and various strategies, which learners select depending on the type of task and the various contextual circumstances of learning. The *cognitive* aspect of functioning governs the way in which perception and information are processed; the *affective* aspect includes factors such as attention, emotion and evaluation, which affect the selection of the approaches to different kinds of contents, expectations, anxiety and frustration, etc. The *physiological* aspect refers to the reactions of an organism to the physical and social environment, as well as to the health condition of a person such as fatigue, eating habits, daily rhythm of activities, difficulties in reading caused by insufficient lighting, difficulties of concentration due to noise or crowd, etc. The combination of cognitive, affective and physicalogical aspects provides a unique approach to learning that can be defined as learning style. A person's learning style represents the product of interaction with the environment, in which social interaction with other persons (e.g. teachers, parents and peers) is a very important influence.

There are various theoretical views on the concept of learning style. This chapter limits the opportunity to discuss these opinions in detail, and we restrict ourselves to three criteria for the classification of learning styles:

Perceptive modality as a criterion for classification of learning styles refers to biological reactions of an organism to the physical environment. The basic typology of learning styles according to the perceptive modality is made up of visual, audio and tactile/kinetic ways of learning.

Method of information processing as a criterion of learning style classification emphasises the differences between persons in terms of organisation and retention of information, which is reflected on the way of thinking and problem solving. This criterion is essentially based on an idea of different functioning of the left

and right hemisphere of the brain. This idea is reflected, for example, in Herman's typology of learning styles and Kolb's typology (Hermann, 1990; Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

Personality traits as a criterion of learning style classification are based on theories about psychological types. This is, in our view, the most thorough approach to understanding differences in learning styles. The most significant typology in this stream of inquiry is Myers-Briggs's typology of learning styles. This typology is developed by consistent application of Jung's theory on psychological types in research related to learning styles (Myers & McCaulley, 1986).

Learning Styles of Student Teachers in Serbia

In this section, we present the findings of a study among student teachers in Serbia. First, we provide some theoretical backgrounds and then the empirical data will be discussed.

Krause developed a two-dimensional model of learning styles that is appropriate to apply in school settings. Krause's model is a shortened version of the Myers-Briggs's instrument (Krause, 1996, 2003). Figure 9.2 presents Krause's model.

The horizontal axis represents the dimension, which describes the way of decision making of particular personalities. Thinkers decide on the basis of facts and information, which differs from the emotional personalities who base their decisions on feelings, personal values and interpersonal relations. The vertical axis represents the dimension referring to the type of information, which is given priority by a person in the learning process. At one end of this dimension, there are sensory learners and on the other there are intuitive learners. Sensory learners give priority to concrete information in learning through senses. They solve problems by means of well-known procedures and they do not like complicated tasks or to pay attention to

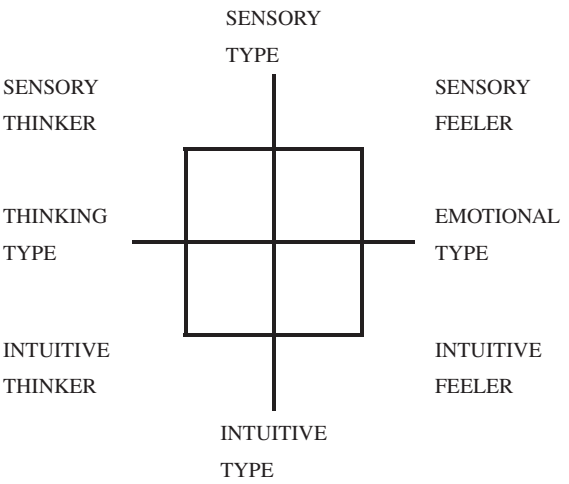

Fig. 9.2 Two-dimensional model of learning styles (Krause, 1996)

details. Intuitive learners are different as they give priority to information resulting from thinking, memory and imagination; they are oriented to abstract concepts, theories and formulae, and they tend to imagine things. They like versatility in work and get bored when there are too many details and repetitions.

Intersection of the two ends of the presented dimension results in indicators of individual differences in the process of learning, the learning styles (Krause, 2003):

- The *sensory thinker* makes progress in the process of learning from details towards concepts and theories. The sensory thinker works in an organised and gradual manner and learns best by repetition and exercises.
- The *sensory feeler*, similar to the sensory thinker, is oriented towards concrete understanding of given learning content. Sensory feelers learn best when talking about the content they learn, for which reason these learners are most productive when they learn with others. They learn most easily when there is a possibility to establish relations with their own experiences.
- The *intuitive thinker* learns best when he/she has an insight into the whole matter. Intuitive thinkers are characterised by logical thinking, as well as by the ability to perceive order and regularity. Intuitive thinkers are ideal for careers of researchers and scientists. However, they do not always achieve academic success due to resistance to repetition and memorising.
- The *intuitive feeler* is a creative learner. For the most part, intuitive feelers compensate the lack of logical thinking and memorising by seeking perfection. These learners learn best by means of metaphors, acquiring new knowledge by means of comparison with well-known knowledge and beliefs, no matter how vague they are.

In order to gain insight into the learning styles of student teachers, a study was carried out among 138 student teachers of the Faculty of Education in Sombor, Serbia (Tubić, 2005b). The research instrument was a learning style test based on Krause (1996) that consisted of 30 items with multiple choice answering possibilities. Respondents were asked to mark one of the two answers of the 30 items. Fifteen items refer to the dimension of decision-making (emotional-thinking dimension) and the other 15 items to the perception of information (sensory-intuitive dimension).

The results of the study showed that most students belong to sensory emotional type (83%). 32% of the students was characterised as sensory thinker and 51% belong to the sensory feeler. Just 17% of the students belong to the intuitive types. It is likely that the predominance of sensory type students over intuitive types is a result of the selected test sample (direct work with people, orientation towards students' needs, etc.). Research with the same test instrument in other faculties showed that significant differences were found in relation to frequency of learning styles between students in the pedagogy faculty and those of other faculties (Tubić, 2003). However, it is still debatable whether the difference in learning style of student teachers compared to students from other faculties is a cause or an effect of the study of the work of the student teachers and the preparation for their future work with pupils.

Whatever the reason for the differences between the students are, it seems crucial that teacher educators have knowledge of the specific learning styles of the student teachers and are able, and willing, to adapt their teaching style to the preferred learning styles of their student teachers. This is not an easy task as the teaching style of teachers, and teacher educators, is largely intuitive and can only be changed when teacher educators become aware of their own teaching style and have the knowledge and skills to expand their teaching style in order to stimulate the learning and teaching of the student teachers.

Results also indicate that only few students belong to the intuitive type. This may result in neglecting intuitive students with the danger that they are left to themselves. Intuitive thinkers may be less successful, because they cannot memorise easily or use uncommon ways of problem solving. It is an obligation of teacher educators to adapt to all differences between their students, even if the number of students with a specific learning style is limited.

Teaching Styles of Teacher Educators

Teacher's awareness and ability to adapt to students learning styles contribute significantly to student achievement. Research findings indicate that teacher's attention to different learning styles results in better student performance of all students, regardless of age, intellectual abilities and other individual characteristics (Montgomery & Groat, 2000). If teaching methods are in accordance with learning styles, students' appreciation, retention and application of the learning content increase significantly (Felder, 1993). In most cases, however, teachers unconsciously favour those students whose learning styles coincide with their own study methods.

Calderhead & Shorrock (1997) propose a list of orientations of teaching styles of educators:

- The *academic orientation* emphasises educators' subject expertise and sees the quality of educators' own education as his/her professional strength.
- The *practical orientation* emphasises the artistry and classroom techniques of the educator with practical experiences in the classroom, and the apprenticeship model of preparation.
- The *technical orientation* emphasises the knowledge and behavioural skills that educators require including micro-teaching and competency-based approaches.
- The *personal orientation* emphasises the importance of interpersonal relationships in the classroom and, therefore, based on experimentation and discovery of personal strength.
- The *critical inquiry orientation* views schooling as a process of social reform to promote democratic values and reduce social inequities by developing educator's critical and reflective practices so that they can become social change agents.

Whatever be their orientation, all educators have their own preferences for the way they teach. These preferences are based on their own training, academic background

and experiences as a human being and as an educator. Stitt-Gohdes (2003, p. 136) supports this idea by implying that 'Most teachers teach the way they learn.' The approaches and methods they exploit for teaching, the educational trends they follow, the strategies they implement and the practices they apply in their classes reveal their own educational background and convey how they are educated and trained. Teacher educators inherit the vision on their profession from the educators who trained them. Thus, inevitably, they transfer their own vision to their student teachers.

Pedagogical preferences and teaching styles of teacher educators can be classified into three terms that are used quite commonly and interchangeably: teaching approaches, teaching methods and teaching styles (Hoyt & Lee, 2002). The teaching approach refers to the combination of teaching methods that are related either because they describe similar behaviours or have similar instructional purposes. The teaching method is defined as the specific instructional techniques or behaviours and teaching style refers to the way various teaching approaches are combined. Educators who are aware of their own teaching styles adopt and adapt many teaching methods and techniques according to their needs, beliefs, backgrounds and philosophy.

Based on the work of Axelrod, Grasha (1996) created a useful model of teaching styles of teachers in higher education.

Formal authority sets standards and defines acceptable ways of doing things. These teaching styles are content-based and generally teacher-centred. Building relationships with students is not considered to be necessary. Student participation is not desired.

Personal model teaches by illustration and direct example. This teaching style is teacher-centred and the emphasis is on demonstration and modelling. Educators are role models and encourage student participation. They adapt their presentation to include various learning styles and expect students to take responsibility.

Facilitator guides and directs by asking questions, exploring options, suggesting alternatives. The focus of this teaching style is on activities and tasks. It is student-centred and students will be involved in a variety of tasks. This teaching style is best for students with an independent learning style who can actively participate and collaborate with other students. Group activities are designed in which a learning, student collaboration and problem-solving are important.

Delegator develops students' ability to function autonomously. There is much control and responsibility for learning on individuals or groups of students in this teaching style. Students are given a choice in designing and implementing their own complex learning projects.

Although the teaching styles of educators should match the learning styles of their students, most of the educators prefer to ignore the learning styles or worse, are not aware of them. As Miller & Rose (1975) state, two truths must be recognised in classrooms: all students differ and the teacher is often unaware of how they differ. For awareness, as Sutliff & Baldwin (2006, p. 22) say, 'The professional teacher should consistently observe, listen to, and try to understand each student. Personal

differences of students need to be considered and the instructional delivery system needs to correspond to the varying abilities of the students.'

Student Teacher's Preferred Teaching Styles in Turkey

In this section, we present a Turkish study on the student teachers' preferred teaching styles. In Turkey, teacher education is changing rapidly and the role of teachers is changing accordingly from being a controller, which is the most traditional role in class as an instructor, to being a facilitator, which means supporting the learning of student teachers. As a result, the teaching styles of teacher educators are bound to change accordingly. This change may occur by conscious and sophisticated decision-making, but also by haphazard, random and unconscious rationale. The personal orientation of the educator, being academic, practical, technical, personal or critical, plays a major role.

The study into the preferred teaching styles of student teachers was conducted in the Faculty of Education of Marmara University, Istanbul, with 105 grade four (senior) student teachers as respondents. They were asked how many courses they attended throughout the year and how many lecturers (teacher educators) taught them and they were also asked which teaching styles were applied in the lessons they attended. There were eight teaching methods to choose from: lectures, discussions, pair-work, student presentations only, power-point shows and a mixture of methods. The student teachers were also asked to write a paragraph to describe their preferred teaching style.

Findings showed that the preferred teaching style of student teachers is a combination of the personal model, the facilitator and the delegator. Only 12% of the respondents stated that they liked learning through lectures. Student teachers want their teacher educators to use the latest technology in the class (93%):

> I would like to take part in the activities and learn by doing so that I can teach more effectively in the future. It is better if our teachers use projectors, videos, etcetera. (Sinem)

The teaching methods most mentioned were discussion (91%) and group activities (86%):

> If I were a teacher educator, I would definitely try to let my students communicate and participate actively during lessons. My favourite technique would be discussions. (Meltem)

Most of the student teachers noted that they needed a mixture of different styles, especially mixture of presentations, discussion and group activities. In their writings the students mentioned they expected to have dynamic, cheerful, well informing, enthusiastic and practical lessons.

> Our teacher educators should use different methods and techniques in their classes. They should not give lectures all the time. It is very boring. (Melike)

Students also implied that their educators had to understand how they learned and what they wanted to learn.

> Our teacher educators should take into consideration our individual differences. (Duygu)

These results are not surprising given the changes in the educational context in Turkey, which influence the student teachers. The preferred teaching styles of student teachers may bring new perspectives into teacher education.

Unfortunately, as research points out, teacher educators do not always use the most appropriate teaching styles. Like other teachers, teacher educators tend to use a variation of a teacher-centred model of teaching where the emphasis is upon the presentation of a body of knowledge or a set of skills that students have to learn. Teacher educators tend to give lectures and presentations and these, inevitably, prevent student teachers from learning how to teach in an interactive, creative, innovative, interesting, lively and positive atmosphere.

There are, of course, some educators who teach in a more student-centred way, as Gibson (2001) reminds us. In these classrooms, 'Educators use a discovery approach to learning where the focus is on the process and the responsibility for learning is shared with the student. Collaborative, often team-based experiences in these classrooms help students become deeply involved in manipulating information and thinking about it through processes of inquiry, critical thinking, problem solving, discussion and communication' (Gibson, 2001, p. 42). For meaningful learning, students need the opportunity to use the same skill in different contexts (McDermott, 1993). Thus, in the ideal case, when there is a match between the teacher educators' teaching style and learners' learning style, a productive learning environment is created in the classrooms.

How Can We Match Teaching Styles and Learning Styles?

Grasha (1996) has developed a model based on four clusters in each of which teaching styles are recommended for specific learning styles (see Fig. 9.3).

Cluster 1	Cluster 2
Primary Teaching Styles Expert/Formal Authority Primary Learning Styles Dependent/Participant/Competitive	Primary teaching styles Personal Model/Expert/Formal Authority Primary Learning Styles Participant/Dependent/Competitive
Cluster 3	Cluster 4
Primary Teaching Styles Facilitator/Personal Model/Expert Primary Learning Styles Collaborative/Participative/Independent	Primary Teaching Styles Delegator/Facilitator/Expert Primary Learning Styles Independent/Collaborative/Participant

Fig. 9.3 Clusters for teaching and learning styles (Grasha, 1996)

Grasha also recommends activities within these clusters:

Cluster 1. Exams, grades emphasised, guest speakers, guest interviews, lectures, mini-lectures, triggers, teacher-centred questioning, teacher-centred discussions, term papers, tutorials, and technology-based presentations.

Cluster 2. Role modelling by illustration, discussing alternative approaches, sharing through processes involved in obtaining answers, sharing personal experiences, role modelling by direct action, demonstrating ways of thinking/doing things, having students emulate teacher, coaching-guiding students.

Cluster 3. Case studies, cognitive map discussions, critical thinking discussions, guided readings, key statement discussions, laboratory projects, problem-based learning (group inquiry, guided design, problem-based tutorials), role plays, simulations, roundtable discussions, student teacher of the day.

Cluster 4. Contract teaching, class symposium, debate formats, helping trios, independent study-research, jigsaw groups, laundry list discussions, modular instruction, panel discussion, learning pairs, position papers, practicum, round robin interviews, self-discovery activities, small group work teams, student journals.

Taking the model of Grasha as a basis, teacher educators could create their own clusters through action research with which they can discover their student teachers' learning styles and improve the learning of their student teachers.

Conclusion

The book *They're not Dumb, They're Different* (Tobias, 1990) is a picturesque description of the value of learning style studies: people differ from each other according to their learning styles, and so it takes different learning methods for all students to be successful. This does not mean that unsuccessful students, or those who believe they are unsuccessful, are lazy, stupid or incapable. Actually, it might mean that they are different and they do not apply the work method imposed by the teacher educator.

In this chapter, we presented examples of learning and teaching styles. We would like to stress that these examples do not represent the ultimate and generally accepted views. There exist very different theories on the subjects of learning and teaching styles. Our goal was primarily to make the readers sensible to the idea that learning and teaching styles may differ significantly from each other.

The value of understanding learning styles is viewed in terms of better interaction of student teacher and teacher educator. We are convinced that application of a better-suited learning style improves the process of learning and it is, therefore, important for student teachers and teacher educators to be aware of the fact that the learning styles can be developed by the use of different techniques. In addition, teacher educator who understand and use different teaching styles reach more student teachers than teacher educators who are restricted to one fixed teaching style and are unable to adapt to their students. Teacher educators need to examine whether

they expect students to adopt readymade knowledge in a given form, to understand what is taught or to apply and evaluate what has been taught.

Developing sensitivity to differences among students in terms of learning styles is not only a first step but also a crucial step towards adaptation of the teaching according to the student teachers' requirements. As students can develop their learning process by understanding their own learning styles, teacher educators can improve their teaching when they understand the learning style of their students, their own teaching style and the relation between these two. It is important that teacher educators as teachers of teachers realise that student teacher should not only understand their own learning style, but have to be introduced into theory of teaching styles, be able to practice various teaching styles and learn to reflect on their teaching style. In that respect, teacher educators who apply different teaching styles and are able to reflect on their teaching style are models to their student teachers.

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Chapter 10
Teacher Educators and Reflective Practice

Jennifer Harrison and Elka Yaffe

Introduction

In this chapter, we emphasise the importance of sustained conversations and activities between beginning and expert teacher educators, which can encourage a critical and investigative stance towards teaching and learning. This is based on an extensive international research literature on mentoring in general, and on our own research projects with beginning teachers, investigating what happens if we try to intervene in mentoring dialogues to promote deeper levels of reflective practice. We know of no reported empirical work in the literature that investigates the conditions that might support the acquisition of professional knowledge, the development of critical thinking and problem-solving (or problem-setting) skills, or other aspects of professional learning by beginning teacher educators. Thus our chapter attempts to focus and speculate on some of these conditions through the examination of the impact of two specific research projects, one in England and one in Israel, involving a range of mentoring practices with beginning teachers and their school mentors. Through these, we highlight the opportunities that structured support programmes in higher education institutions might offer to beginning teacher educators to meet their specific needs at the very beginning of their career. We emphasise the crucial part to be played by the particular mentoring arrangements (both formal and informal) and associated relationships that can be put in place in order to value, and to model, reflective thinking and promote critical reflection on practice. Throughout our writing in this chapter, we explore the extent to which our developing knowledge and ideas of effective mentoring with new teachers can also encapsulate a professional framework for beginning teacher educators. As teacher educators, how can we benefit from the pedagogical and educational discourses which we expose in these two studies?

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Modelling Experiential Learning, Reflective Thinking and Critical Reflection on Practice

For the last 25 years, reflection and reflective practice have been held, internationally, as important aspirations for student teachers and their mentors, and more experienced teachers in schools. There is now an extensive body of research and literature that focuses particularly on the needs of the beginning teacher and their mentors (see, e.g., Calderhead, 1996; Dymoke & Harrison, 2006; Gore & Zeichner, 1991; LaBoskey, 1994; Rodgers, 2002; Yaffe, 2003). There is much less research and writing about reflective practice and the beginning teacher educator. Korthagen, Loughran and Lunenberg (2005) write about the value of social interactions in their different settings between academics, student teachers and teachers and the part to be played by 'critical conversations' (p. 165). Our chapter attempts also to redress that balance in order to highlight the importance of understanding what reflective practice actually means, and how the process itself can be encouraged both in oneself, as a new beginning teacher educator, and in turn, with student teachers in their training.

Teachers' thinking during interactive teaching is determined by decisions made in their planning of these teaching sessions. We argue in this chapter that there must be a similarity and continuity between these two phases in beginning teacher educators' thinking as well. It is generally recognised that teachers' thinking is tacit – teachers tend to be fully engaged in their activities with their learners and that there is rarely the need or, indeed, the opportunity to articulate to themselves the thinking that is underpinning their actions.

The key question we pose in this chapter is 'How can we best support the beginning teacher educator to articulate to themselves (or to others with whom they work) their reflections in and on and about their past, current or future practices?' Schön (1987, 1991) has been particularly influential in our developing thinking about the importance and use of reflective practice. He likened reflection on practice to being situated in a hall of mirrors, in which we can both learn about ourselves and about others' teaching. An important aspect of reflective practice has to be in relation to the shared moral frameworks within which individual teachers (and, we argue, beginning teacher educators) gradually learn good practice. The particular professional community of practice in which a teacher learns good practice is, therefore, an important aspect of professional development too (see Calderhead, 1996; Loughran, 2006; Olson, 1992). A further characteristic of reflective practice is that it is very personal. Connolly and Clandinin's work showed how teachers' thinking and practice were given coherence by the images that informed them (see Connolly, Clandinin & He, 1997). Grant (1992), too, illustrates this aspect with teachers' use of metaphors. A third characteristic is the complexity of teachers' practical thinking. McIntyre and others refer to this as professional craft knowledge (see Brown & McIntyre, 1993) and argue that beginning teachers need to engage in practical theorising with others, as a particular form of reflective practice. There is a growing interest in the notion of reflection in order to research and better understand the complex nature of teaching and learning about teaching.

We now need to explore the meanings attached to some of the terminology we are using in this chapter. Reflection and reflective practice are both terms that are in danger of overuse and are open to a number of interpretations. Field (1997) described reflection as 'a means to self-development (that is) so embedded in professional development that being able to reflect has become an end in itself' (p. 27). Here, we consider the various meanings of reflection from 'learning to make sense so we better understand it' to 'the purposeful, deliberate act of inquiry into one's thoughts and actions through which a perceived problem is examined in order that a thoughtful, reasoned response might be tested out' (Loughran, 1996, p. 21). Kolb's (1984) cycle of reflection (see Fig. 10.1 below) provides the rationale for some of the interventions described in the next section. We, therefore, believe that beginning teacher educators, like beginning teachers in schools, develop into expert teacher educators by acquiring skills incrementally that depend on gaining concrete experiences, engaging in reflective observation, being able to reflect meaningfully upon them (i.e. abstract conceptualisation) and by taking part in further active experimentation. In this way, the experiential learning cycle (Kolb, 1984) bears similarities to a model of action research (Carr & Kemnis, 1986) with its focus on active problem-solving, implementation of new practice and reflective accounts of the outcomes of that practice.

It is during the period of pre-service education that most teacher educators expect the use of reflective practices by their student teachers. Thus we persuade, and advise, our student teachers to be reflective, to use associated critical thinking skills, and thus set them on a path of self-study (Loughran, 2006). But, in asking this, what exactly do we require of our student teachers and what exactly do we model ourselves in our own teaching practices with these student teachers and other teachers as our learners? Some further illumination of this range of reflective practices is now needed since it follows that beginning teacher educators have to be critically

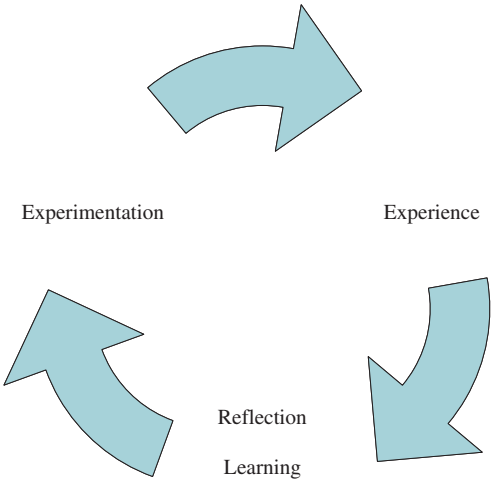

Fig. 10.1 The reflection circle

reflective practitioners themselves in order to demonstrate, or model, the practices to their student teachers (see Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007).

Beginning teacher educators acquire experiences very rapidly. Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) attempted to describe experience as an event with meaning. Here, we argue that beginning teacher educators need to be helped to apply the brakes in order to be self-aware and, after some time, also to be self-critical of their own practices and bring about a deliberative habitual reflection put forward by Eraut (1995). Thus a formal mentor or, alternatively, a more experienced teacher educator who can act as an informal mentor could provide some peer scrutiny and, through systematic processes of reflection, can help to move a beginning teacher educator from a position of dependency to one of greater independence and professional autonomy and professional development (see Dymoke & Harrison, 2006; Yaffe, 2003, for a further discussion of these two concepts in relation to newly qualified teachers in England and Israel).

Critical analysis, critical awareness, critical consciousness and critical reflection are all forms of critical thinking. All these processes lie also at the heart of critical reflective practice. They clearly involve some challenge to existing thoughts, internal schema or attributes, and imply some change with improvement. Brookfield (1995) argues that peer support underpins critical thinking since the process is person-specific, emotion-centred, and both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated, and often leads to unexpected critical insight. Maudsley and Scrivens (2000) pose an important question: 'How can educators ensure that reflective thinking is critical thinking?' In other words, is there critical reflection on practice? We can argue that a range of professional skills (ones of evaluation, problem-solving, analysis, judging and using inferences, use of inductive and deductive logic, judging the validity and reliability of assumptions, data or other information) are all part of this complex process. Pithers and Soden (2000) usefully summarise some necessary dispositions for critical thinking in education as being 'open-minded, drawing assumptions cautiously, and weighing up the credibility of evidence' (p. 239). We shall illustrate through our own research projects, in the sections below, some particular activities that can promote the use of the higher-level thinking skills that are part of critical reflection on practice. In the next sections of this chapter, we refer to a schema proposed by Van Manen (1977), which recognises three levels of reflective thinking – technical, practical and critical. We have found this framework useful for distinguishing improvements in critical reflection on practice.

In conclusion, reflective practice is defined as a process of learning by observing others and engaging in discussion of practice with others so as to expose tacit beliefs, to question decisions, and to gain insights, and has been central to the goal of developing reflective practitioners amongst beginning teachers. In so doing, teachers and, we argue, teacher educators need to bridge discrepancies that are caused by lack of experience (1) to make explicit the tacit knowledge that guides their perceptions, judgements and decision-making (2) to question the coherence between generally accepted theories of teaching and those employed in their own practices. By assuming the perspective of an external observer on events, we propose that the beginning teacher educator, together with a more experienced colleague acting as mentor, can

begin to identify the underlying assumptions and feelings and speculate how these can affect practice. It follows, too, that these more experienced teacher educators acting as mentors will also need to have a deep understanding of reflection and the skills to help others reflect.

Generally, we have tried to highlight the central importance of the interpersonal dimension of any mentor–mentee relationship and the person-centred ways of working that may be most effective for bringing about professional development. In particular, the nature and type of feedback given is a key feature that we shall explore in the following two sections. We recognise that reflective practice is a process that integrates thought and action with reflection. It involves thinking about, and critically analysing, one's own actions with the ultimate goal of further professional development.

Research Project 1: Using Reflective Practice Strategies to Enhance Professional Autonomy and Improve Critical Reflection on Practice

In this section, we describe a research project carried out in England which explored the effectiveness of designated mentors (who were experienced teachers working alongside beginning teachers in their first year of teaching after qualification). It was supported over the two-year period by funding from the Esmee Fairbairn Foundation. The project director wished to provide some strategies – or aids – which might (1) help bridge the gap between theories and practices; (2) could provide for more thorough systematic reflection on practice; and (3) could illustrate the potential for the scaffolding of work in which novice and experienced teacher educators can work alongside each other. In the course of the project, various models of mentoring were presented and explored (for further details see Harrison, Lawson & Wortley, 2005). We believe that the approaches used successfully in this project could be equally well applied to situations where beginning and more experienced teacher educators can develop the necessary skills of critical reflective practice and where the experienced teacher educator can model critical reflective practice processes during critical conversations with new beginning teacher educators.

We first need to draw distinctions between two particular types of reflection. Schön (1991) distinguished between reflection in action (the capacity for making predictions from particular actions and adapting practices as they arise) and reflection on action (looking at practice with the benefit of hindsight). The theoretical framework for the research project started with the recognition that looking back on practice is an important part of the process of critical reflection on practice. Loughran (1996), for example, refers to the concepts of retrospective reflection and anticipatory reflection. In this project we used these ideas to unpick the conversations between mentor and mentee in order to begin distinguishing between the teachers' attempts to de-construct and construct practice.

Thus, in de-constructing practice, we expect to find, in a critical conversation, a study of a situation, some personal insights, a development of one's own rationale (new theory or new conclusions) and a change in personal understandings. In constructing practice, we expect to find some deliberation of alternative course of future action, and planning and anticipating what might happen as a result of that planning. The notion is that through a combination of reflection followed by practical action, a teacher's practice can develop:

$$\text{Reflection} + \text{Action} \rightarrow \text{Developing Practice}$$

This formed the basis of provided strategies and interventions in the course of the project.

The researchers provided the target teacher mentors with three training meetings, designed as interventions, during the year. In the first training meeting at the start of the induction year for the new teachers, researchers provided the target teacher mentors with a booklet of several reflective practice strategies, which might also be described as critical incident exercises. Teacher mentors were asked to choose one of the selections of strategies and use this in their first professional review meeting with the new teacher (note that this was the first meeting of up to six in the course of the induction year). They were also asked to record, either on video- or on audio-tape, the content of each review meeting during the year. They would then return the recordings to the research team for transcription, and the transcripts were returned to the participants. A selection of these materials then formed the basis of a second training meeting at the start of the second term. The transcripts also provided an opportunity to consider the impact of the interventions on the professional practice of these teacher mentors in the series of the critical conversations. The two strategies most commonly used throughout the year are shown in Fig. 10.2.

Critical Incident Method	**Story-telling method**
Choose a significant event in the life of the new teacher. Ask him/her to: • Describe the incident to you. • Say *why* it was critical. • Identify some assumptions being made (e.g. about the pupils' prior learning). • Discuss these assumptions with the new teacher; draw up a new set of assumptions to allow, e.g., the next lesson to be planned with these in mind. • Cycle repeats next time.	Focus on a key event with the new teacher. Ask him/her to: • Construct a narrative (written or oral) to demonstrate *what* happened and *why*. • Ask what was expected to happen. • What did this event and its consequences mean to the narrator? • How will it affect their future teaching /learning?

Fig. 10.2 Examples of provided reflective practice strategies

One powerful impact of returning these personal transcripts of the early meetings to the teacher mentors was the revelation of the extent to which the teacher mentor monopolised the talking time in the meetings. This aspect was discussed at length with the mentors at the second training meeting. At that stage, relatively few of the target teachers had chosen to use a reflective practice strategy at their first professional review meeting. Evidence showed that they prefer the well-recognised route of providing feedback on a recently observed lesson taught by the new teacher. While recognising the importance of such feedback, it emerged in the subsequent analyses of the conversations that resulting critical reflection on practice by the new teacher was much more limited where the traditional lesson debriefing was adopted. This was a particularly striking aspect of the findings.

One teacher mentor was invited by the researchers to make a video recording of her use of the storytelling reflective practice strategy in her first professional review meeting with her new teacher. They then invited her to watch extracts of her recorded meeting with them and to respond to a series of open-ended questions from them. For the second training meeting, they assembled a training video that included her recorded responses following particular sequences recorded from the actual mentor–mentee meeting. This training tool allowed the project director to explore, in the training meeting with all the teacher mentors, aspects of what might constitute good mentoring practice and to stimulate further insights into the use of reflective practice strategies. The uptake of the use of reflective practice strategies increased in subsequent professional review meetings.

There were some pitfalls and unforeseen impacts of our chosen methods for participatory action research. As academic researchers, we had to deal with two aspects. One was maintaining the cohort of target teacher mentors throughout the lifetime of the project. The second was dealing with the reality that just a minority chose to adopt reflective practice strategies. Thus, in order to make sense of the processes of interaction within the professional review meetings, there had to be ways of negotiating and gaining access to the content of the review meetings. Our request to 'go public' with the products of the review meetings (i.e. by using the audio- and video-tapes in the training session) revealed an unanticipated tension for some in their willingness to cooperate in the recording process. Our conclusion was that the 'struggle to make sense' is the research process and that our own critical

A	Information-seeking. *E.g. Describe … What? Where? When?*
B	Clarifying. *E.g. Describe further … Add details to that … What instances? Whereabouts? How often?*
C	Probing for explanation. *E.g. Describe and comment … Tell me what you felt about that; How? Why?*
D	Probing for further insights. *E.g. Describe and judge (evaluate). What are the broader implications of … ? Would you do that again? Explain why (justify) …*

Fig. 10.3 Classification of prompts (questions) used by the teacher mentors

reflection on our research practice was a central part of the work (see Harrison, Lawson & Wortley, 2005).

The researchers developed various frameworks for analysing the professional review meeting transcripts. One framework involved looking at the type of questions posed (see Fig. 10.3) and another looked at the type of mentoring style(s) that appeared to be adopted in different meetings (see Fig. 10.4). Researchers were also able to demonstrate for those that used the reflective practice strategies, the increased use of type C and D prompts by the mentor and a greater use of constructing of new practice compared with deconstructing of practice by new teacher and teacher mentor. In other words, the overt use of reflective practice strategies appears to develop the teacher mentors' use of a wider range of types of questioning. This helped the new teachers open up themselves for scrutiny, and to create new ways of working in which the new teacher is enabled to become more autonomous in the de-constructing and constructing of practice. There were some similar changes for the teacher mentors as well.

The rationale for the mentoring framework was a recognition of a probable continuum of the four styles that can bring about a change in the relationship of mentor–mentee, extending from the professional dependency of the mentee towards professional interdependency and finally to full independency (professional

Telling	Teacher mentor is the 'expert' offering tips rather than drawing out ideas from the new teacher. Mentor suggests areas for further work. Mentor offers opinions and judgements rather than analysing and exploring the available evidence base.
Coaching	Teacher mentor allows new teacher to fully articulate their experiences. Mentor 'intervenes' frequently; makes planned, systematic, analytical and meaningful interventions on the new teacher's reflections on practice. Mentor sifts out the significant features and highlights the important values and assumptions being made by new teacher. Mentor *may challenge* the new teacher's version of events and present possible alternatives.
Guiding	Teacher mentor acts as a 'critical friend'. Focus for discussion tends to be on *pupils' learning* rather than on new teacher's teaching performance, so mentor questioning emphasises the 'Why?' rather than the 'How?' in relation to teaching performance. Mentor drives the process, though the planning and intentions are examined and challenged by both parties.
Enquiry	Teacher mentor and new teacher operate together through a process of co-enquiry. They investigate the causes or possible solutions and look for new situations in which to test ideas. Both draw on the available evidence base. Mentor allows the new teacher to take the lead in the evaluation on many occasions.
Reflecting	Teacher mentor operates as the 'experienced teacher', drawing on a wide range of relevant contextual knowledge and experiences. Mentor allows new teacher to engage in self reflection throughout. Mentor probes, questions and responds by drawing on and reflecting on own experiences as further material for 'learning about' a new situation.

Fig. 10.4 Framework of mentoring styles applied in the analyses of the transcripts

autonomy). Thus, mentoring styles such as *telling* and *coaching* involve 'talking to'; *guiding* involves 'talking with'; and *enquiry* and *critical reflection* involve 'talking about'.

We begin to understand that when mentors are encouraged to adopt different ways of thinking they may reach different levels of reflection. We learned that there are similarities between the intuitive ways of thinking of the mentors and the three levels of reflection that Van Manen distinguished. The researchers were able to produce evidence that it is the type of mentoring relationship, the particular functions of mentoring and, in turn, the mentoring activities themselves that appear to influence the extent and nature of critical reflection on practice (Harrison, Lawson & Wortley, 2005). Thus, the new teachers were assisted through the use of specific reflective strategies and types of questioning to move from the lower levels of reflective thinking (technical–practical) to more critical and forward-looking thinking and action. As we speculated in the first paragraph of this section, there is clearly considerable scope for the similar professional training and use of reflective practice strategies, for example, in developing critical conversations between beginning teacher educators and more experienced teacher educators.

Research Project 2: Using a 'Video-Taping Learning Strategy' to Enhance Critical Reflection on Practice

In this section, we illustrate some professional development ideas for encouraging critical conversations between beginning and more experienced teachers. The recommendations that follow, for the induction of beginning teacher educators as well as for new teachers, are derived from a study in Israel that explored the promotion of professional self-awareness of new teachers during their first year of teaching.

We refer to the theory of Vygotsky (1978, 1986) in order to emphasise the importance of practising and gaining self-awareness at an early stage of professional development. The researchers took a psychological approach to the notion of critical reflection, in which the psychological complexities of self-awareness and of professional development were considered to be very important. This contrasts with the views of others in which critical reflection has been taken to mean no more than the constructive self-criticism of one's actions with a view to improvement and understanding pedagogy (Calderhead, 1996; Van Manen, 1999; Berry & Loughran, 2005). The researchers promoted a professional development structure that allowed for facilitating reflection, deepening personal understanding and stimulating critical thinking and reflection.

The study took a qualitative approach, using an innovative videotaping learning strategy. The innovation involved the use of specially made video spectacles, which permitted a video recording of the lesson from the teacher's point of view without observers in the classroom (Yaffe, 2003). Thus, the video recording represented the classroom as the teacher would see it. This recording, in turn, provided a valuable focus for critical conversation about the classroom practice between the teacher and the mentor. Importantly, it also provided a focus for further critical conversation at

later stages (over a period of months) of the teacher's professional development, because it served as a stimulated recall of all that occurred in the recorded lesson.

The researchers based their work with the new teachers on the exploitation of a crucial stage in professional development (Vygotsky, 1986) and the use of a specially mediated dialogue (Feuerstein, 2000). The first year of teaching represents a professional stage of learning and development of thinking – referred to as zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). This means that there is a gap between what the new teacher and the new beginning teacher educator) can perform independently in practice and what he/she can achieve with support or mediation by another expert and experienced colleague. Vygotsky recognised the crucial role of communication, social interaction and instruction in (here, professional) development. Thus we can argue that it is a new professional's state of readiness for further self-study and professional development that reflects their existing knowledge and skills and also their capacity to reflect with additional help.

The structure of the Israeli study with beginning teachers recognised that there were three stages leading to critical reflection: micro-reflection, macro-reflection and meta-reflection. We suggest that this way of working might provide some constructive ideas for beginning teacher educators (see Fig. 10.5).

Micro-reflection

Following the video recording of the lesson, the new teacher wrote some reflections on the lesson without any mediation from another person. This first stage of the reflection cycle appeared very personal, and almost intuitive, as the following extracts shows:

> Nothing succeeded. I wanted them so much to be interested. I tried to activate the children, to move them out of their seats – that is to get them to be active and to try out all sorts of scientific experiments. I prepared lots of materials on trays. When I allowed them to get up and take the materials I saw that there was a big mess. That was what I felt when I conducted their learning, but now, in the video-tape, I also see that they worked quite well … at least some of them … so not everything was a catastrophe.

Thus, this teacher reflected technically on the group-work that she conducted. The researchers found that for most of these new teachers, in this first stage of reflection, these reflective monologues demonstrated just the first two of Van Manen's (1977) levels – the technical and the practical levels. Sometimes the monologue was only a description of the lesson, a report about what happened (rather than why or how).

Macro-reflection

The second stage of the reflection cycle took place after a specified period of time (usually 1 or 2 weeks) and was mediated (Feuerstein, 2000) by an experienced teacher educator. The teacher and the teacher educator watched the video recording

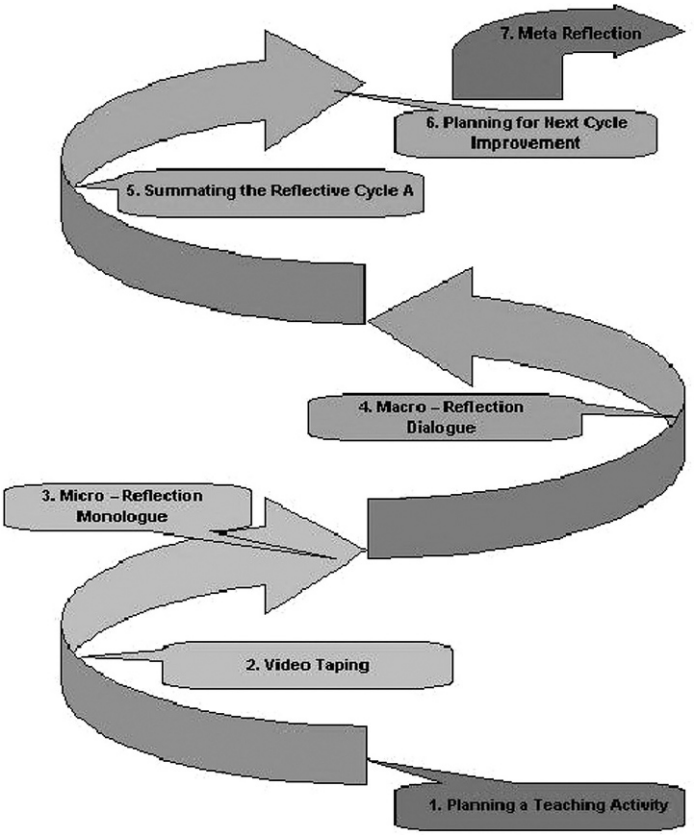

Fig. 10.5 Three stages of reflection – seven steps to meta-reflection

together, looked for patterns of strength and weakness in the teaching and considered alternative ways to respond to the situation. This was a pedagogical dialogue about teaching principles, educational dilemmas and alternative approaches. The session was recorded or the teacher educator took notes. The beginning teacher wrote a reflective monologue about the progress during these two stages and shared it with the teacher educator. The following is an extract from Rona's reflective monologue (stage 1). She writes:

> It was a terrible lesson; they didn't let me teach; it was noisy all the time; everybody talked and chattered; there really isn't anything to see here and nothing to think about.

The experienced teacher educator subsequently observed the recorded lesson with this new teacher (stage 2). The new teacher remained very frustrated with her performance but the mentor, who noticed that there were several quiet moments during the lesson, asked:

> Shall we talk about those moments when the class was quiet? You tell us what happened then – what caused them to be attentive?

So we stopped there and Rona said:

> During these moments of quiet I simply changed subjects and read them a short poem so that, afterwards they could read it by themselves and analyze the content in groups. During these moments they were curious about what was going to happen. Maybe my lessons really aren't interesting enough, not stimulating enough? Maybe I should devote more time to preparing and planning the way subjects flow from one thing to another? to try and make them more intrigued and motivated? From the videotape I can see that this is possible, and in fact, this is what I did for a few moments but I just didn't pay any attention to it.

Here we can see clearly evidence of the technical, practical and critical levels distinguished by Van Manen (1995). Mediation (Feuerstein, 2000), leading to self-awareness, enabled a raised level of critical thinking by the new teacher.

Meta-reflection

Only the mentors participating in the study and the researcher took part in this final stage of reflection. Together they observed clips from video recordings and examined new teachers' monologues from stages 1 and 2. The emphasis of the study was now placed on these mentors' reflections with their new teachers. In further critical conversations, these mentors began to pose new questions and identified particular observations for further discussion with the new teachers. The mentors, collectively, gained insights about the kinds of questions that have the power to facilitate reflective practice, such as: What are other alternatives? What do you think now, after examining (it) a second time? How can it be improved? Can you see it now from another point of view?

In conclusion, we argue that a wider recognition of these three stages of professional development in relation to critical reflection on practice must also be valuable to professional development programmes supporting beginning teacher educators. The study in Israel did not emphasise strongly enough the meta-reflection stage. For teacher educators, it is this stage particularly that could provide more insights into their professional development. Other limitations and problems of the study are due to the qualitative paradigm it adopted (only 14 participants were explored in depth) and it could have been improved and enhanced by combining data from some quantitative research. But, as is suggested here, we can see its overall potential for student teachers and, in turn, beginning teacher educators even in this first study. Beginning teacher educators can be helped to gain a range of insights into their own practice in a variety of professional settings. By concentrating on promoting the professional self-awareness of the beginning teacher educator, we could better emphasise the importance of their role as mentor in guiding critical reflection with their student teachers, and in the self-study of their own practice (see Berry & Loughran, 2005). This links to the importance of making tacit knowledge more explicit – whether it is knowledge of thought or deed. The reflective dialogue can help to acknowledge and make explicit many implicit understandings for beginning teachers and teacher educators as well. More research is now needed to explore the complexities of the

professional development of beginning teacher educators and the way they perceive and promote the use of critical reflection on practice.

Conclusion and Some Recommendations

While we have to recognise that the pedagogy of teacher educators working with student teachers (adult learners) in a range of contexts is different from the pedagogy of teachers in schools working with pupils (young learners), there are a number of important commonalities. All sectors of education are aiming to prepare individuals to be able to think well and think for themselves. The notions of good thinking and thinking well seem to be closely connected with the concept of critical thinking in the literature (see, e.g., Entwistle, 1994; Laurillard, 1993; Ramsden, 1992; Loughran, 1996).

The traditional view of reflective practice is premised on an assumption that reflection succeeds when the reflector (the mirror) and the reflected (the reflection) are both held still. A more modern view of reflective practice opens out the possibility for on-going change and interaction. Reflective practice becomes more a matter of flexibility and, importantly, of the interdependence of one's movements with those of others on and beyond the reflected scene (Van Manen, 1995; Lesnick, 2005). This view of reflective practice begins to take more account of the dynamic aspect of communication between generations of teachers and teacher educators in particular communities of practice in which reflective practice is taking place. As Palmer (1998) wrote: 'Mentoring is the dance of spiralling generations, in which the old empower the young with their experience and the young empower the old with new life' (p. 25).

Both research projects described in this chapter indicate to us that, within their communities of practice, teacher educators must initiate work with others in order to develop a common understanding about what we mean by critical reflection on practice. Mueller (2003) has noted that 'Many teacher educators have no script for nurturing reflective practices' (p. 68). Thus we need to develop our own understanding and strategies to promote critical reflection on practice with our own community of teacher educators in higher education, with our student teachers and with other teacher mentors in schools. It is clear to us that facilitating sequential stages and levels of reflection by beginning teacher educators in specific pedagogical settings can empower their career development.

We have noted, too, that the body of research on the professional development of beginning teacher educators is rather limited and professional development is not yet grounded in practice or personal experience. Importantly, and in terms of promoting the use of self-study, Mueller (2003) concludes 'When teacher educators engage in dialogue with their colleagues about critical learning experiences future teacher and teacher educators are enriched personally and professionally. We are then always becoming teacher educators' (p. 82). The dispositions and attitudes associated with critical thinking skills as well as the ability to think well are clearly the key to successful self-study: those who are willing to be problem-solvers, who

believe they have a lot to learn from their students, who are quick to learn and are flexible will contribute most to the community of practice in which they work (Berry & Loughran, 2005; Murray & Male, 2005).

We have suggested various frameworks for supporting and enhancing professional development of new teacher educators. We have pointed to the kind of questions that can promote self-awareness and critical reflection and can facilitate powerful mentoring. Our main conclusion is that all teacher educators who support models of professional development that are rooted in critical conversations need also to create programmes that reflect their vision of teaching and learning. They themselves must adjust their role as well as their pedagogical approaches and test them every day. This is the basis of self-study. Self-study (Chapter 14 of this book) should be helpful in all the different and new roles that beginning teacher educators take on: supporting the student teachers in schools, teaching in different areas of the teacher education curriculum, teaching in different types of grouping (seminars, tutor groups, one-to-one, and so on) and providing different types of personal support and mediation for adult learners.

We have not been able to focus in this chapter on all the variety of reflective practices that teacher educators might adopt, such as journal or diary keeping, maintaining professional portfolios, peer group meetings, etc. However, we have been able to illustrate the importance of the reflective dialogue (i.e. critical conversations) and the levels of reflective thinking using recorded periods of teaching that can also help a new learner to think more deeply and critically. The two research projects presented in this chapter, therefore, go some way to providing possible ways and tools forward for the professional development of beginning teacher educators. We recommend the following four actions for the support of beginning teacher educators:

1. Professional development programmes for groups of beginning teacher educators.
   These might use scenarios and recordings of teaching sessions within higher education institutions in order to model strategies that promote critical reflection on practice by student teachers and in turn stimulate discussion, deeper levels of thinking and action by beginning teacher educators.
2. Structured formal support for a beginning teacher educator by a more experienced teacher educator with skills in critical reflective practice.
   We realise that in many settings, formal mentors are not routinely allocated to a new beginning teacher educator. We advocate strongly, if the beginning teacher educator is not assigned an appropriate mentor, that he/she might find one! Ideally a more experienced teacher educator should be formally attached to the new beginning teacher educator for at least the period of probation. At one author's own higher education institution in England, this period is 3 years. In Israel, the probation period is also 3 years but with the first year treated as an induction year involving close support by a mentor who is more experienced in the field plus an expert from the college or university who is in charge of the induction programme. Beginning teacher educators will soon, of course, also establish other collegial relationships with experienced academic staff. All are potential assets

to the newcomer as they help steer him/her through unknown, as well as charted, waters.

3. The explicit use with student teachers of audio- or video recordings of parts of student teacher's teaching sessions.
   Audio- or video recordings of student teachers teaching sessions can be used for student teachers to provide written reflective monologues; input for reflective and critical dialogues about episodes of teaching; and input for examination of critical incidents and decisions on possible subsequent actions.
   Such work can take place one-to-one, or in groups. Recordings can also be used with new teacher educators to assist in organising their professional portfolios where these are appropriate for staged professional development.
4. Promotion of problem-based learning and critical inquiry.
   The examples of questions, or prompts, that we provide in Fig. 10.3 include 'looking back' with the help of a stimulated recall, 'looking at' fully recorded actions during practice and 'looking ahead' to future practice with the use of critical thinking. In addition, although we have concentrated in this chapter on the particular role of critical conversations, we should recognise the potential in critical reflective practice for systematic inquiry and practical theorising. For many teacher educators, it can serve as a catalyst for self-study (Berry & Loughran, 2005). The beginning teacher educator can facilitate this process in their student teachers by encouraging the student to pose the problem and think how to solve it. In so doing, the student teacher is developing his or her meta-cognitive knowledge and skills – that is, weighing evidence, looking for interrelatedness or interrelationships and developing stable hypotheses. The beginning teacher educator can also model ways of thinking, scaffold students' attempts to understand and use concepts, and encourage students to reflect on the strengths and weaknesses of the thinking processes that they are using.

Throughout this chapter, we have tried to draw attention to the important link between the induction of teachers and the first years of becoming a teacher educator. We now recommend adopting an open-mind to situations and searching alternative ways to facilitate reflection. These may be new approaches to the professional development of beginning teacher educators in relation to reflective practice and create many challenges for institutions and professional communities of practice. Time is an important commodity for reflective practice, but not the only aspect. Pedagogical approaches and a recognition that people learn at different rates and in different ways with the use of scaffolding of learning are key factors in the promotion and use of reflective practice. The role of the lecturer – here, the beginning teacher educator – and their professional duty to develop their own abilities in reflective practice also plays a crucial part. Thus teacher educators, who have grown in confidence about the value of learning from self-study and through reflective practices, can contribute to the enhancement of wider institutional and professional practices. We hope this chapter goes some way to meeting some of these challenges.

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Chapter 11
Preparing Student Teachers for Teaching Practicum

Christopher Bezzina and Joanna Michalak

Introduction

Teachers play various roles in a typical classroom. They are expected to express competence in and across various domains including lesson planning, implementation skills, classroom management and nurturing professional and personal qualities. Furthermore, as one of the latest European Commission communications states, teachers express 'a lack of competence to deal with new developments in education, including individualised learning, preparing pupils for autonomous learning, dealing with heterogeneous classrooms, preparing learners to make the most of ICT' (European Commission, 2007, p. 5). The culmination of any teacher education programme is when student teachers manage to bring to the test what they have been exposed to during their course. Whilst different countries operate different teaching practice systems (see Chapter 1), the ultimate goal or objective is the same for all – beginning teachers have to show that they have mastered specific competences expected of them at different stages in their pre-service stage.

Most teacher education institutes would consider these components as extremely important for the beginning teacher and provide various opportunities to cover topics that would support, facilitate and encourage such learning. The culmination of such studies would be through the teaching practicum during which student teachers would put into practice what has been learned during their course of studies. It is also an opportunity for members within teacher education institutes to work closely with student teachers and the schools. Establishing partnerships with schools (see Chapter 4) has in fact been identified as one of the common principles and challenges faced by the teaching profession across the European Union (European Commission, 2003; 2004). Therefore, establishing partnerships with schools entails organising their work collaboratively with them.

This chapter aims to address one of the most recent initiatives undertaken by two teacher education institutes, one in Malta and one in Poland with the aim of improving the way we prepare ourselves as teacher educators in relation to the critical area

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of teaching practice. This, in turn, will help us better prepare the beginning teachers. Given concerns raised by various studies (e.g. C. Bezzina & Michalak, 2005) that teacher education courses may not be addressing the realities in schools, this initiative is timely in at least three ways. First, we can establish strong partnerships with schools, which can serve as an ideal platform for addressing various aspects of the teacher education programme. Second, it helps us to improve the way we prepare ourselves as teacher educators in relation to critical areas essential for the teacher. Third, it will help us to better prepare beginning teachers within a context where theory and practice are put to the test.

The rest of the chapter will focus on presenting the way the Faculty of Education at the University of Malta is engaging with the issue of the professional development of beginning teacher educators in the field of the teaching practicum. It does so by recognising developments both locally and internationally and how these affect our internal discourse. It then moves to present the rationale and implementation process behind a strategy that we have introduced in order to address this challenge. We do feel that such a strategy can be of relevance and applicability across other teacher education institutes.

Professional Development Within the Faculty of Education

The educational climate within teacher education institutes is often characterised by those same skills, attitudes, values and beliefs that we expect student teachers to possess. This resonates the point made by Hargreaves who stated ‘what we want for children we should want for their teachers: that schools be places of learning for both of them, and that such learning be suffused with excitement, engagement, passion, challenge, creativity and joy’ (Hargreaves, 1995, p. 3). Teacher education institutes often work round principles that education systems tend to uphold and do their utmost to nurture within schools. These include seeing the profession as lifelong and that teachers are lifelong learners who in turn help pupils become lifelong learners; being capable of working with others in partnership; able to support and help young people develop the skills, competences necessary to live in today’s world (see also Michalak, 2004).

Teacher education institutes are constantly reviewing their programmes in line with educational reforms taking place in their respective countries and schools in particular, in line with developments taking place in higher education and reforms taking place across the European Union and other practices in other parts of the globe. Naturally, it is not only essential but imperative for teacher educators to conduct research work, be at the forefront in pedagogical developments and so forth. The Faculty of Education within the University of Malta has undertaken various initiatives at improving the initial teacher education programme, including seminal work in the areas of assessment and portfolios, an improved academic programme linking theory with practice, improved relationships with schools through

stronger and better links with the education authorities and schools, reviewed student teacher evaluation sheets including formative forms of assessment (one which is based on the accumulation of competences in identified domains and focussed suggestions for improvement), mentoring courses for heads and envisaged ones for teachers.

Various studies (C. Bezzina, N. R. Bezzina, & Stanyer, 2004; Bezzina & Portelli, 2005) indicate that teacher education courses may not be addressing the realities in schools. The notion that teacher education should reflect reality was also discussed in various other studies. The general findings emphasise that since teaching practice provides the student teacher with hands-on experience in schools, it is often the most valued experience by students during their course. Respondents argue that during teaching practice, the student teachers are often under undue pressure since they have to develop competences, which are often not practised in the schools themselves. On the other hand, some studies show that newly qualified teachers see the teaching practice phase as somewhat artificial and it did not provide realistic training to gain control in the classroom. Findings in international studies (Grudnoff & Tuck, 2001; Humphrey, 2000) note that beginning teachers experience difficulties in discipline, classroom control and work overload. The transition also involves stress, uncertainty, frustration and sometimes despair. Teachers feel that they do not have enough support, and sometimes they feel embarrassed to ask for help.

Respondents in recent studies (C. Bezzina, Stanyer, & N. R. Bezzina, 2005; C. Bezzina & Portelli, 2005, 2006) believe that the teacher education programme was too idealistic, especially by those with more years of experience. This reflects the need for a symbiotic relationship between expectations and school realities. Therefore, the teacher education programme needs to get closer to schools.

The most popular suggestion made by various studies was to extend the period of teaching practice. The need for more field practice was also felt by teachers in other European countries (Grudnoff & Tuck, 2001; Michalak, 2005; Salitra, 2003). This recommendation was followed by the wish for less theory and more practice. Respondents want to cover work that is directly related to school life and ideally tackle problems in concrete ways. The various studies reported here show that teachers want more exposure and experiences through engagement in schools. They feel the need for more practice and need more help to see how pedagogies, concepts and theories may be applied in different school situations. Exploring the qualities and skills that teachers should possess, C. Bezzina et al. (2004) report that teachers need to be able to motivate, be well-organised, be a person who establishes good relationships, needs to have good voice projection and is able to manage a classroom efficiently.

Within such a context, teachers speak of ‘survival’, and hence this relates to the importance that beginners give to establishing relationships as this will help them to be accepted by the pupils. Teaching comes later. Note that even teachers with 2 and 3 years of experience still felt the same. This goes to show on the one hand the difficulty of settling down in challenging schools, and more so that later on as the years go by, other factors come into play in determining how teachers relate to students.

Strategies to Support Beginning Teachers to Manage Their Classes

Given such feedback, the questions beckons: what can teacher education institutes do in order to appreciate the challenges that beginning teachers are facing and how can they improve current programmes? Naturally, teacher education institutes develop various strategies in order to address research findings and, therefore, to remain relevant and contribute to the preparation of teachers who can address the various challenges that the schools of today present us with. They want to develop teachers that have the knowledge, skills and attitudes to prepare pupils to take their place in society as proposed by the European Commission. Here, we will explore the work that the Faculty of Education has undertaken in order to address these challenges. It is being presented as an example, as one possible strategy that teacher education institutes can consider. We also hope that it encourages readers to reflect on this strategy and potentially create their own strategies, which will help them address this field.

As already noted, the Faculty of Education of the university of Malta has embarked on a system of ongoing review. Part of this review process involves encouraging and conducting research at both graduate and postgraduate level, and addressing various aspects of teacher education. Given this feedback, the Faculty has embarked on the identification of various strategies that would help us to address the areas identified as critical for beginning teachers. It is clearly understood that teaching practice in general and the area of classroom management in particular is the responsibility of all faculty members but especially of those who have to support and assess prospective teachers.

At the same time, having been approached to write this chapter has encouraged us to reflect on what learning and teaching issues are at the forefront of our mind at present. In doing so, we are struck by how easy it is to be lured into a frame of mind that is at worst faculty-centric or at best discipline-constrained. What we have come to realise over time is that this is too limiting and there is a rich diversity of approaches, views and activities not only from across the disciplines, but more excitingly, from across departments within the faculty, across faculties in our institutes and across institutes in various countries.

The key question is how do we go about sharing ideas and learning how to improve our practice. We have chosen this focal point since quite a lot of the research work shows that we need to improve the way we prepare student teachers in areas related to their work in schools. And, we need to define ways of doing this. If we are to be credible then we need to model good practices. We can only model good practices if we are ready to appreciate that pedagogical practices are central to our role as teacher educators. From our initial discussions, we have drawn three main conclusions:

1. Identifying those areas that are critical to all teacher educators when it comes to improving our own knowledge, expertise and skills in the area of teaching practice in general.

2. Providing each other the support to grow professionally.
3. Creating a platform which allows us to engage with good and innovative practices.

We also accepted the premise that we may need to learn new rules and work practices whilst, at the same time, unlearn 'old' ones. We also agreed that we need to establish links with colleagues from abroad who would serve both as critical friends and provide the necessary professional and technical support that we may need as we embark on this journey. This stage, and this chapter, shows the link that the first author has established over the past few years with a colleague from Poland who is serving as a critical friend who provides professional rapport (Bezzina & Michalak, 2004). From our various internal discussions and sharing of ideas with other institutes, we have realised that one way of addressing the ongoing professional development of teacher educators in general and beginning teacher educators, in particular, is by providing varied teaching and learning opportunities. These, in turn, would provide a stimulus and a resource for student teachers as well.

From the varied sources of learning, whilst focusing on the multi-dimensional area of classroom management, we have identified the need to focus on two main areas, what we have described as *learning issues* and *teaching methods*. The main topics that need to be tackled and developed within these two areas include so far the areas discussed next.

Learning Issues

The role of the teacher
Creating the learning environment
Participation – involvement
Independence – independent learning
Diversity in the classroom

Teaching Methods

Practical work
Small group work
Large group/whole class work
Support and mentoring
Problem-based learning
Assessment

We are confident that the reader will see in these some of the main areas that the beginning teacher needs to master during the pre-service stage, consolidated during induction and reinforced and developed during one's career. However, within the context of a beginning teacher educator, we have realised the need to adopt a much more pragmatic approach, which involves varied approaches to learning about these areas.

We have to think outside the box. We definitely need to move beyond mere lectures and create learning opportunities that reflect our own varied styles of

learning and teaching. On the basis of our internal discourse, our own practices with undergraduate and postgraduate students, together with discussions with colleagues from abroad, we have identified the need to start creating a data bank with written case studies, provide reading material to extend our awareness and knowledge base, take video recordings of lecturers and master teachers talking about the topics highlighted above, conduct video recordings of teaching situations in school environments and the use of micro-teaching sessions. These have been identified as the main approaches to take so far. We are also considering establishing a mentor approach, which involves allocating beginning teacher educators a more experienced teacher educator who would be there to address challenges, concerns as they arise (e.g. Daresh, 2003; Scherer, 1999). It is envisaged that with such varied resources, which will accumulate over the years, we will provide ourselves with opportunities for reflection, growth and renewal (see also Chapter 7).

The strategy presented here has three main stages. Stage one entails the internal review process. The second stage sees to the implementation of the proposed action plans. The third stage entails sharing developments with other institutes. What the initial stage has shown us is that teacher education institutes, like other institutes for that matter, need to institutionalise internal review systems that also encourage and allow for research to take place. Only in this way can we make our courses more relevant. The university, as an institute of higher education, often runs the risk of working from an ivory tower, detached from the realities of life, and often seen as dictating to others what needs to be done and how. We believe the discourse that we are engaging in has allowed us to critically challenge such a stance, to start nurturing those values we uphold and believe all learning communities need to have and to create a learning environment that brings lecturers from within our respective teacher education institutes to work with school practitioners.

The second stage that we now need to embark on is that of developing a plan of action that will help us to start addressing the two main areas. A strategic three-pronged approach needs to be adopted that would see the beginning teacher educator working at a number of levels (see Fig. 11.1). This is a critical and most exciting stage. It aims to (1) contextualise the research findings of the studies cited. Within this context research has meaning and can shape both further research studies and identify new strategies and practices that we could introduce, and (2) provide a context for learning for beginning teacher educators, more experienced teacher educators and school-based teacher educators.

This will be a unique learning experience, as, for the first time, educators at different levels interact and relate on the same issues. It will be a context that will provide opportunities for dialogue, for exploring different aspects of teaching (starting with class management issues) and learning from these varied experiences.

On the one hand, we need to start identifying the roles and responsibilities that key members from within each department will need to take on. This will help us to:

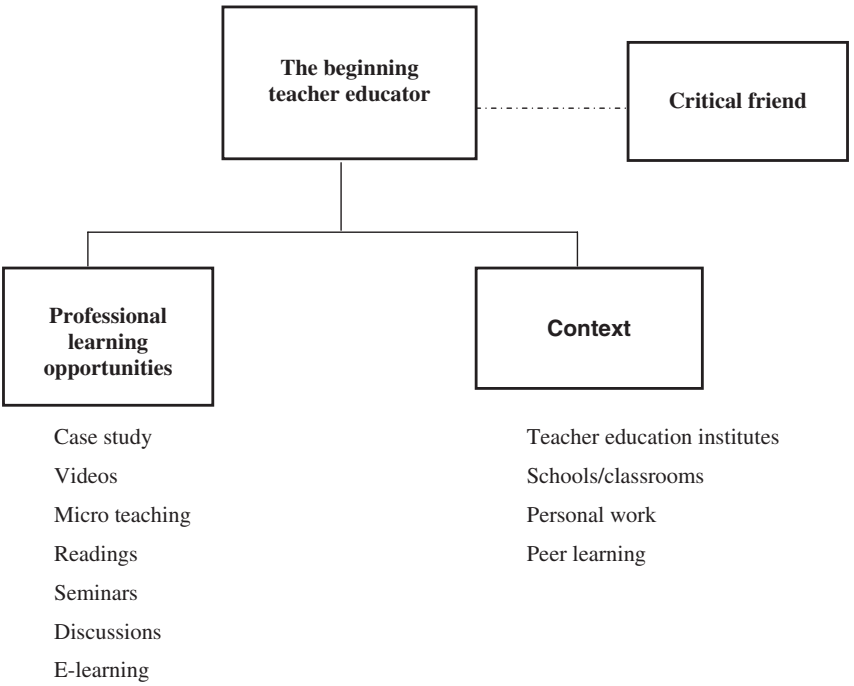

Fig. 11.1 The professional development of beginning teacher educators

1. Establish a mentoring system, linking a beginning teacher educator or educators with a more experienced teacher educator and/or master teacher.
2. Introduce a literature/research database, which would take on readings that different staff members have and can share.
3. Start video recordings involving teacher educators and schoolteachers.
4. Conduct micro-teaching sessions involving teacher educators, master teachers, teachers and beginning teacher educators.
5. Initiate talks, discussions and other fora for which identified personnel can make brief presentations, which serve as a platform for discussions.

In the third stage, we would like to share our initial developments amongst the two institutes from Poland and Malta. This may be potentially addressed through an e-learning approach. This will facilitate the dissemination of ideas and practices. At the same time, it is necessary to reserve resources for quality time in the respective institutes, thus becoming more sensitive to each other's cultural and contextual variables. In this direct way, we can influence each other. Whilst at this stage, our focus will be to consolidate the engagement and experiences between the two institutes we will always retain and include the quality assurance component by including the external review conducted by external examiners from other teacher education institutes.

What Have We Learned So Far?

It is evidently clear that there is still a long way to go for us to create an appropriate learning base and more appropriately a learning environment which will help us enhance our own practices. What we have learned so far is that as teacher educators we need to constantly review our practices, and doing so within a collegial and collaborative environment that allows for critical discourse to take place. This, in turn, will allow topics to be shared, debated and addressed. We have also learnt that we need to nurture a positive attitude, one that sets the tone for learning to take place. It is this attitude that, in turn, is helping us to accept challenges that arise within the profession. We have started identifying areas that need to be critically discussed, at the same time identifying approaches and strategies that will promote learning.

We have placed the beginning teacher educator as our focal point for development with a focus on the area of teaching practice. It is hoped that this dual approach will help us to institutionalise a system that will help beginning teacher educators address one of their critical roles as teacher educators. The aim is also to create a different learning environment, one that brings lecturers/teacher educators and teachers in schools together utilising different strategies to address the identified topics.

We believe that strong partnerships with schools can serve as an ideal platform for addressing various aspects of the teacher education programme and help us as teacher educators to improve the way we prepare ourselves. This is an engaging period and one we hope will leave an impact on us personally and collectively in our search to improve our practices.

This chapter has proposed an initiative and a particular strategic approach to help teacher educators enhance their role in preparing and assessing student teachers in their practicum. This chapter should serve as an ideal platform for discussions in other teacher education institutes. This is so because the strategies proposed here are based not only on local research findings but also on what the international literature highlights, what the various documents and communications made by organisations such as the European Commission and the OECD state regarding the quality of teacher education and our own internal and external reviews. Naturally, such strategies can be used for internal discussion as each teacher education institution needs to find their own way forward.

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Chapter 12
The Power of Assessment in Teacher Education

Judith Gulikers, Dominique Sluijsmans, Liesbeth Baartman and Paul Bartolo

Introduction

This chapter addresses three main assessment challenges faced in innovative assessment practices and aims to encourage teacher educators to take up these challenges in their assessment practices.

The *first challenge* is to establish a shift from de-contextualised tests to more authentic assessments. This requires the development of assessments that observe student teachers' performance in situations that resemble the current and future teaching practice as much as possible.

A *second challenge* is to increase student teachers' involvement in assessment by handing over the responsibilities of assessor from teacher educator to student teacher. After all, one of the main responsibilities of teachers is to assess their pupils in schools. For teacher educators, this means that they need to equip student teachers with assessor skills, like developing appropriate assessment criteria and giving adequate feedback on student performance.

Because assessment is a delicate issue and many important educational decisions are based on assessment outcomes, it is important to assure the quality of assessment. A *third challenge* is, therefore, that teacher educators critically evaluate the quality of their own assessments and equip student teachers with the skills to do so in their own future practice as well. This chapter addresses these three challenges and offers practical guidelines for dealing with them in daily assessment practices.

Power of Assessment in Teacher Education

It is widely recognised that the main goal of professional higher education is to help students to become 'reflective practitioners' who are able to reflect critically upon their own professional roles (Schön, 1987). Teacher educators have the responsibility to educate student teachers to be competent teachers, who reflect on their own practices and improve, develop and change constantly. To measure to what extent a

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student teacher is a competent teacher and to help student teachers to reflect on their own practice and support their development, high-quality assessment is crucial. This chapter addresses new models of assessment that give rise to innovative assessment practices.

In the last few decades, educational testing practices changed from what is referred to as 'the testing culture' to the 'assessment culture'. The testing culture is characterised by standardised tests, mostly of a multiple-choice format, that mainly address factual knowledge or routine-based skills. Tests had a *summative* function, meaning that they were conducted at the end of an instructional period to test and judge if the students had learned what was presented in lectures or books, for the purpose of certifying or grading students. A main quality criterion for tests was that they needed to give a reliable score of the 'true' knowledge level of the student. Birenbaum (1996) characterised educational practices during the testing culture by (1) knowledge transmission as the main instructional method, (2) rote learning and (3) summative and standardised testing.

These educational practices, however, did not stimulate students to develop competences required for the changing labour market demands. Students were not equipped with the necessary competences to be flexible in the changing world and to continuously adapt and develop their own (teaching) practices. It was expected that assessment could play a crucial role in preparing student teachers to become flexible and reflective teachers, as a growing body of empirical evidence showed that assessment is one of the main driving forces behind student learning and competence development (e.g. Gibbs, 1992). This implies changing ideas about the function of assessment in teacher education. Next to summative assessment of learning, assessment should also be used during the learning process as assessment for learning. This means that assessment is used to diagnose the current level of competence and to give feedback on this current performance in order to stimulate further development towards becoming a professional teacher (Elwood & Klenowski, 2002). When assessment is used for this purpose, it is called *formative assessment.*

Educational practices in the assessment culture are characterised by (1) instruction that aims at stimulating student learning; (2) learning based on active knowledge construction and (3) both formative and summative assessment in the form of contextualised, performance-based assessments that address professional competence development (Birenbaum, 1996, 2003). This shows that 'assessment' means much more than only measuring and judging; it should play a crucial role in the whole learning process. More emphasis is placed on congruence between instruction and assessment, which should both focus on stimulating the development of competences needed to flexibly perform various professional roles and on stimulating reflection and lifelong learning skills by involving students as active participants in the learning process.

In response to the assessment culture, portfolio assessment was introduced in teacher education as a powerful tool to promote and support continuous monitoring of students' competence development (Klenowski, 2002). In fact, the use of electronic portfolios has become a new trend in teacher education. In a portfolio, student teachers collect evidence of their learning process and/or competence levels, during

several time intervals and through different kinds of assessment tasks. The evidence is often organised around specific competences and may be supplemented with reflections on educational achievement and on personal and professional development. Portfolios were primarily introduced to collect and assess performances in authentic contexts and to encourage learners to reflect on their performances (Järvinen & Kohonen, 1995). This chapter does not elaborate on portfolio assessment, however, the assessments described here can all be part of a portfolio assessment. The first challenge, for example, deals with developing assessments to assess authentic performance often incorporated in portfolios.

Challenge I: Towards Authentic Assessments

The need to change assessments in interesting, authentic and contextualised tasks is described as one of the main challenges in education (Birenbaum, 1996). Authentic assessments are based in professional practice as much as possible and confront students with situations that require them to demonstrate the competences professionals would use in the same situation in their daily practice (Gulikers, Bastiaens, & Kirschner, 2004).

In teacher education, the importance of authentic assessment has been recognised for quite some time (e.g. Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000). This resulted, for example, in an increase of assessments conducted at the workplace, the schools. However, these assessments require thoughtful planning. Teacher educators tend to develop authentic assessments based on their own ideas of what professional practice entails, instead of on thorough knowledge of authentic assessment. Cooper (1994) describes an example in which mathematics teachers thought they developed a very realistic mathematics assessment, while students perceived the assessments as artificial and fake and they experienced the assessment as confusing. As a result, the assessment hampered their learning. In other words, an authentic assessment must not only be more realistic in the eyes of the teacher educator, but the student teachers must experience the assessments to be relevant and representative of their future professional work (Gulikers, Bastiaens & Kirschner, 2004; McDowell, 1995). What makes this even more complicated is that the perception of student teachers about what is, or is not, an authentic assessment depends on the extent and nature of their practical work experience. This implies that some kinds of authentic assessments might be more useful in particular stages of the teacher education programme than others.

The following section describes a framework for the development or evaluation of assessments with different degrees of authenticity and offers guidelines for the way in which this framework can be applied in teacher education.

Five-Dimensional Framework for Assessment Authenticity, 5DF

Gulikers et al. (2004) and Gulikers, Bastiaens and Kirschner (2006) developed a five-dimensional framework (5DF) that describes five main assessment qualities that influence assessment authenticity, namely:

1. *Task.* The assessment assignment that defines the content of the assessment, e.g. using active teaching methods in your teaching that stimulates pupils to actively participate in class.
2. *Physical context*. The environment in which student teachers have to perform the assessment task, e.g. an assessment conducted in the teacher education institute, in a simulated setting, or during their internship in a classroom with 30 pupils.
3. *Social context*. The interaction (im)possibilities during the assessment, e.g. (im)possibilities to ask for assistance when a pupil gets really aggressive.
4. *Form*. The assessment method, independent of the content, e.g. assessing the task 'using active teaching methods in your teaching' with a written multiple-choice or open-answer test compared to a performance assessment in which students have to demonstrate their use of an active teaching method.
5. *Criteria*. The characteristics of the performance product/process that are valued, e.g. are the pupils paying attention? Did the pupils show signs of learning? Did the student teacher use more than one active teaching method successfully?

Changing from traditional tests to assessments that resemble teaching practice in all possible ways is a major challenge. The rationale behind this framework is that there is a range of possibilities between 'completely authentic' and 'completely inauthentic' assessment and that there are several ways to increase the authenticity of an assessment. The five dimensions of the framework reflect a realistic teaching situation to a more or lesser degree. From an inauthentic perspective, the task 'using active teaching methods in your teaching' can be assessed through an open-ended answer test (form) conducted individually (social context) in the teacher education institute (physical context) asking students to describe three concrete examples of their use of active teaching methods that are evaluated against criteria developed by the lecturer (criteria). From a more authentic perspective, this same task can be assessed through a performance assessment (form) conducted during their internship (the teaching practice of student teachers) in the classroom (physical context) in which student teachers have to actively involve the pupils (social context) by their teaching method and are assessed by criteria developed by their mentor at school (criteria).

Thinking about authentic assessment as a means of assessment that has several dimensions gives teacher educators tools to develop various kinds of authentic assessments, both for assessing student teachers' learning in teaching practice and at the teacher education institute, for example through realistic case-based assignments or project work based on professional problem situations. The 5DF legitimises authentic assessments for both internal and external quality assurance, without arguing that all assessments should strive for maximum authenticity.

Besides giving tools to develop and evaluate authentic assessments, this framework also supports the development of various authentic learning situations. As argued at the beginning of this chapter, the assessment culture places more emphasis on integrating teaching and assessment. A framework like 5DF supports the development of authentic assessments and helps to increase the congruence between assessment and instruction.

Practical Implications: How to Use Authentic Assessments?

Based on research that examined student perceptions of the five dimensions of the 5DF, several guidelines were developed for using the 5DF to construct authentic assessments during different phases of a learning trajectory.

General guidelines

- Confront students with authentic assessment early in their educational trajectory.
- Explicitly communicate the authenticity of a certain assessment and create mutual understanding between involved stakeholders, like teacher educators, student teachers and mentors.
- Use the 5DF in teams of teacher educators to explicate and discuss ideas concerning authentic assessments, as well as to develop and evaluate authentic assessments.

Rules of thumb concerning several authenticity dimensions

- Integrate instruction and assessment by offering opportunities to perform authentic, integrated tasks (i.e. learning tasks/formative assessments) in and out of school to prepare student teachers for summative authentic assessment.
- Stimulate teacher educators to keep up-to-date with developments and requirements in professional practice.
- Allow student teachers to tailor the assessment task and criteria to their own situations, like work context, interest and learning goals.

Rules of thumb concerning specific authenticity dimensions

- Do not make the assessment *task* completely authentic *for* student teachers, but help them to make the task authentic for themselves.
- Increase the authenticity of the *physical context* as student teachers gain more experience with working or assessing in practice.
- Developing an authentic social context is less important than the other four dimensions.
- When considering an authentic *social context*, first deal with traditional beliefs about individualistic or collaborative assessment.
- An authentic assessment *form* should involve multiple assessment methods and moments for different aspects of job performance.
- Consider incorporating knowledge testing directed at *knowing why* as part of the authentic assessment *form.*
- Involve teaching practice in the development and interpretation of authentic assessment *criteria*.
- Authentic assessment *criteria* should deal with *what* is done in teaching practice, as well as with *how* this is done. Criteria should change from being specific and step-by-step to being more open and allowing more student interpretation as students gain more experience with performing in practice.

Challenge II: Towards Student Teachers as Assessors

Besides a shift from more knowledge-based and de-contextualised tests towards more authentic assessments, a shift also occurred from teacher-directed assessment to a perspective in which students are given more responsibility in their assessment process. This shift fits with the need for student teachers to become self-directed professionals, who are able to continuously self-assess their performance (Boud, 1995). This self-directed assessment can be stimulated through the use of portfolio assessment in which student teachers often have the primary responsibility in the selection of the appropriate evidence and in reflecting on its relevance for their professional development (Klenowski, 2002).

Another tool for the development of self-directed assessment skills is peer assessment, which is the process whereby individuals evaluate the performances of their peer(s) and provide feedback on these performances (Freeman, 1995). Peer assessment can be introduced as a valuable tool to stimulate student teachers to critically evaluate their own performances as well as those of colleagues and their future pupils. Peer assessment is mainly used as a formative assessment tool, aimed at stimulating professional development and giving constructive feedback in order to stimulate further improvement.

There are various reasons why peer assessment is important for teacher education. First, the importance of communication between teachers in schools has been endorsed by many researchers. Teachers have to collaborate, learn from each other and become a member of a learning organisation (Verloop & Wubbels, 2000). Second, it is advisable to support student teachers to learn how to critically assess the performance of peers, as they will have to play the role of assessor in their future classrooms as well. A third reason is that after graduation, student teachers are likely to rely on the judgement of their colleagues in the school to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching performance.

Thus, being able to interpret the work of colleagues and giving constructive feedback on these performances are necessary prerequisites for teachers' professional development and for improving their own functioning (Verloop & Wubbels, 2000). However, assessing the work of peers is a skill that needs to be developed (Birenbaum, 1996; Sluijsmans, Moerkerke, Dochy & Merriënboer, 2001). To understand the use of peer assessment and ways to teach this type of skills, the peer assessment skill was unravelled in several constituent skills (Sluijsmans, Brand-Gruwel, Merriënboer & Martens, 2004).

As shown in Fig. 12.1, the three main skills for peer assessment are (1) defining assessment criteria, (2) judging the performance of a peer and (3) providing feedback for future learning, for example giving constructive feedback about the product of a peer. A training programme for peer assessment should be based on these skills. The design of such a training programme results in a number of peer assessment exercises, which should be embedded in an existing course. The peer assessment exercises have a formative function in that they are aiming at helping student teachers develop the skill of assessing each other's performances to give feedback about how the development of these skills can be supported.

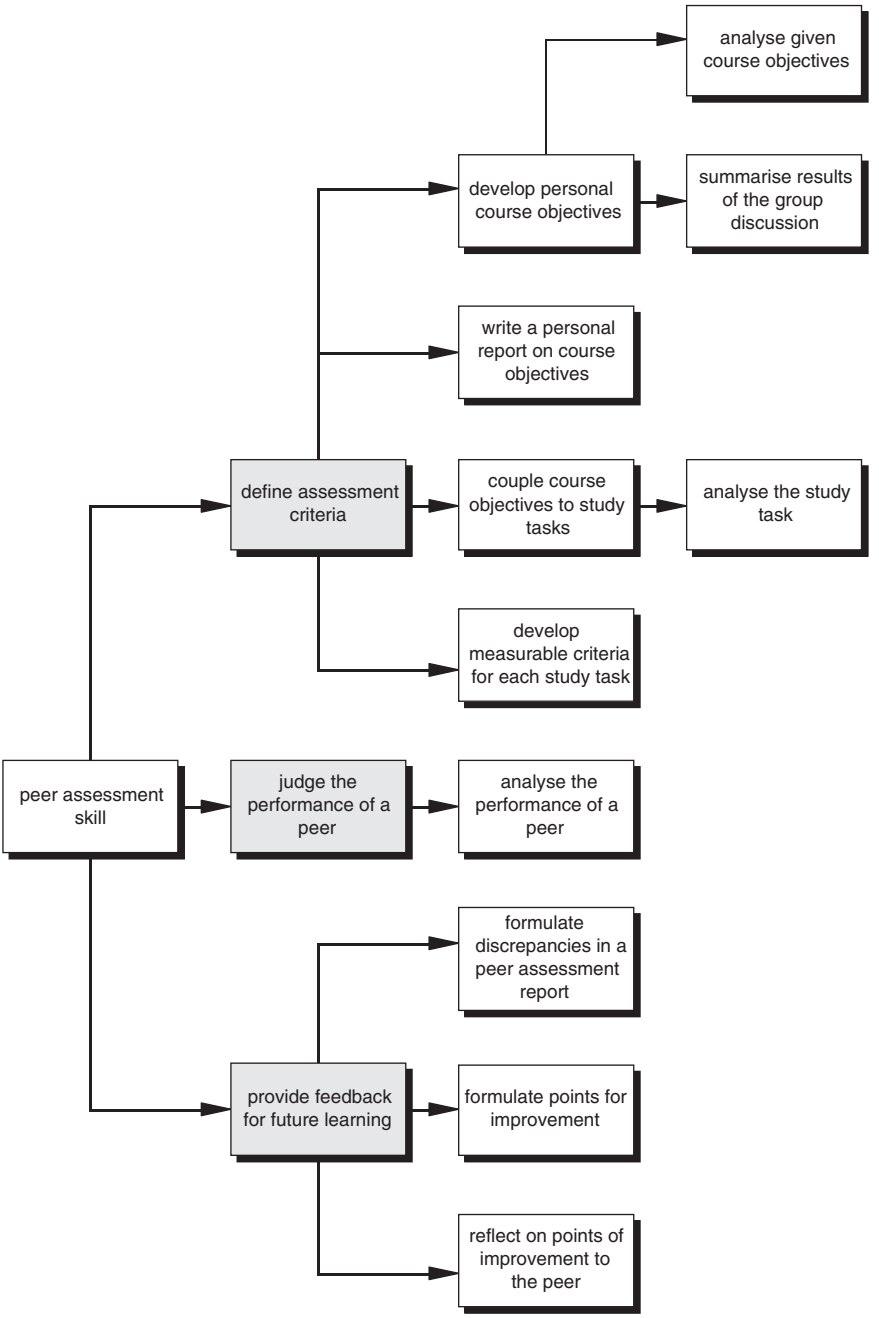

Fig. 12.1 The skills for peer assessment

Figure 12.2 gives an example of authentic assessment about ‘using active teaching methods in your teaching to stimulate participation of pupils’.

Research shows that activities as presented in Fig. 12.2 positively affect the development of professional competences as well as the development of the skills to assess peers. For example, discussing assessment criteria about ‘using active teaching methods in the classroom’ with peers has a positive impact on the skill to use these criteria to assess the performance of peers, but it also improves the student teachers’ own performance in the use of active teaching methods in the classroom. Thus, training in peer assessment skills improves at least two skills: the skill to assess work of peers and a domain-specific skill.

Different Modes of Peer Assessment

Depending on the goals of the curriculum, different forms of peer assessments can be introduced. Four considerations are central in deciding what kind of peer assessment should be used.

The first consideration concerns the decision for assessing products or processes of peers. When students assess their peers, the object of assessment is a certain product or a process. A process-oriented peer assessment is useful when the free-rider effect – students who do not participate well in groups – occurs. In process assessment, students can evaluate the contribution of their peers to the collaborative process. However, teacher educators should not use peer assessment as a tool for sanctioning, but as a tool for learning. Discussing assessment criteria with student teachers, focuses them on group roles and group functioning and require students to use the same criteria several times during the collaboration process instead of only at the end, might make the peer assessment more of a learning experience. Also for product-oriented peer assessment, negotiating clear criteria and using multiple peer assessment during one course will improve the positive effects of peer assessment.

A second consideration is whether the peer assessment should be qualitative or quantitative. Quantitative nominations, rankings and ratings, which mostly only contain a mark without additional feedback, have been found to create quite strong adverse reactions (Hanrahan & Isaacs, 2001). For learning, it is more beneficial to choose a qualitative approach. In line with the peer assessment model, students write an assessment report or orally give their feedback to the peer instead of just giving marks that contain little information. Subsequently, the teacher educator could assess the quality of the peer feedback of each student. Thus, qualitative peer assessment seems more valuable for student learning and development of the peer assessment skills than quantitative peer assessment.

Thirdly, peer assessment can be communicated orally or in writing. Research shows that student teachers initially find it difficult to express their feedback in writing (Sluijsmans et al., 2004). However, reporting feedback face to face in a group also entails insecure feelings. The advantage of an oral assessment is the interaction with the peers so that the evaluation of the performance is a joint product

First level	Description
Define assessment criteria	The students actively participate in a group discussion to reach a common understanding about the assessment criteria for a lesson in which the appropriate active teaching methods are applied.
Judge the performance of a peer	The students individually assess a video of a peer by first analysing the lesson (= performance) and then formulating the discrepancies between the observation and the predefined criteria. The formulated discrepancies are written down in a peer assessment report or orally expressed to the peer.
Provide (anonymous) feedback for future learning	The students write a feedback report that provides feedback for future learning. This feedback: • Confirms that the peer's understanding of what was required in the observed performance was correct. • Helps students to add information to their own knowledge when they experience an information gap. • Encourages the peer to replace the erroneous information with more accurate information.

Second level	Description
Develop 'personal' objectives on the basis of given objectives and group discussion	The students present their personal interpretations of what active teaching methods are and in which class situation these are appropriate and share this with the peers in a group session.
Describe a personal report on the objectives	The students individually write a report that reflects their interpretation of the objectives related to active teaching methods.
Relate objectives to assessment tasks	In collaboration with their peers, the students relate the defined objectives to the lessons they have to carry out to reach the objectives and formulate which part of the lesson contributes to certain course objective.
Develop measurable criteria for each assessment task	In collaboration with their peers, the students list the criteria for the performance assessment in which the students have to demonstrate their understanding and use of active teaching methods in the classroom.
Analyse the performance of a peer	The students individually apply the assessment criteria to the product of a peer and they mark pieces of evidence, within this product, that match an assessment criterion.
Formulate discrepancies in a peer assessment report	The students write an assessment report about the quality of the performance in the classroom which reflects evidence for reaching the desired criteria at a certain level.
Formulate points for improvement	The students write individually a number of points for improvement based on the assessment criteria and the group discussions in which the assessment criteria were decided.
Reflect on points of improvement for the peer	Based on the assessed performance, the students individually present ideas for improvement to the peer.

Third level	Description
Analyse given objectives	The students interpret given course objectives based on prior knowledge and personal values by asking questions as 'What do I know about active teaching methods?' and 'What are my experiences with these methods?'
Summarise results of the group discussion	The students take an active role in the group discussion and write a report which represents the outcomes of the discussion.
Analyse the assessment task	The students discuss the upcoming performance assessment with the peers and formulate common criteria that they have to meet to carry out the performance assessment in a proper way.

Fig. 12.2 Description of the constituent peer assessment skills in the context of 'active teaching methods'

of the student and the peers. This is particularly stimulated in peer assessment tasks in which students discuss criteria and feedback rules.

A final consideration is whether the peer assessment should be anonymous or not. In teacher education, it is important to shift from an anonymous to a non-anonymous peer assessment, because teachers who work together have to learn from each other (Verloop & Wubbels, 2000). Student teachers have to get used to an open discussion about criteria and to giving constructive feedback face-to-face. On the other hand, non-anonymous peer assessment might affect the objectivity of the assessment and hinder students from being completely honest, give good argumentations and develop their feedback skills. In teacher education, a non-anonymous peer assessment seems desirable, but novices in peer assessment benefit more from an anonymous setting, until they are used to giving and receiving feedback.

Guidelines for Peer Assessment

For those teacher educators who want to implement peer assessment, we present some practical guidelines for implementing peer assessment:

- Develop student teachers, skills in peer assessment.
- Determine performance criteria before the course.
- Think backwards starting with analysing the desired performance to define assessment criteria, instead of starting with instructional aims and treating the assessment as an afterthought.
- Stimulate collaborative learning and discussion among peers.
- Create interdependency in which peers feel shared responsibility for the group product, process or assessment.
- Start training students' peer assessment skills in their first year of teacher education.

- Prevent illegitimate use of peer assessment, for example, as a sanction tool or to decrease teacher load.
- Provide training for teacher educators in topics like performance assessment, peer assessment and instructional design to increase the successful use of new assessments.
- Create favourable conditions for implementation, both top-down and bottom-up.
- Aim at using peer assessment also as a tool for summative (certifying) assessment.
- Support students to include peer assessments in their portfolio.

Challenge III: Towards Quality in Assessment

During the transition from a testing culture to an assessment culture, ideas of what constitutes 'good' assessment have changed. The use of new modes of assessment requires teacher educators to re-think how the quality of such assessments should be determined and it is argued that a new system for evaluating assessment quality is needed.

Assessment Programmes

We want to start this section with a word of warning. During the transition from a test culture to an assessment culture, a large number of new and different assessment methods have emerged, a few of which were discussed in this chapter. However, it is unwise to assume that new modes of assessment are the panacea for all assessment problems (Maclellan, 2004). New modes of assessment have their problems, too, and some authors note that the claim that new modes of assessment are more valid and suitable still needs empirical confirmation (e.g. Glaser & Silver, 1994). Moreover, it would be unwise to ignore all knowledge of and experience with traditional tests. Instead, we have to combine the virtues of both traditional tests and new modes of assessment. Competences are such complex entities of knowledge, skills and attitudes that it is often argued that one single assessment method cannot adequately cover all aspects of a competence and a mix of methods should be used instead (e.g. Van der Vleuten & Schuwirth, 2005). Therefore, the use of programmes of assessment, instead of single methods, may be a valuable approach in the assessment culture. Within such a programme, new modes of assessment (both formative and summative assessments) can be combined with more traditional knowledge tests. As such, new modes of assessment and traditional tests are not viewed as alternatives to each other, but they rather play complementary roles (Baartman, Bastiaens, Kirschner, & Vleuten, 2006).

New Assessments, New Quality Criteria?

The quality of traditional tests is generally determined by quality criteria such as validity and reliability, but the question arises as to whether these criteria are sufficient

for new modes of assessment. Because new and other modes of assessment are added to the already existing ones, it is critical to also expand the quality criteria we use to judge the adequacy of these different assessments.

Previous studies have described some problems with regard to the use of reliability and validity to evaluate new modes of assessment (Baartman et al., 2007a). Reliability is the degree to which the same results are obtained at a different time, in a different context or by a different assessor. From a traditional point of view, reliability is defined as test–retest accuracy or inter-rater reliability and is often achieved by standardisation. New assessments are not standardised and do not have one correct answer, which makes 'objective' assessment impossible. Moreover, assessment is used to demonstrate development instead of measuring a stable trait. In new modes of assessment, reliability has to be defined in a different way. Reliable assessments require multiple occasions, multiple contexts, multiple methods and multiple assessors.

When it comes to validity, the main problem is that many different definitions of validity exist, like internal validity, construct validity, face validity. The breadth and complexity of the concept make it difficult to work with it in practice (Crooks & Kane, 1996). A new system for assessment quality should clarify and further operationalise the concept of validity for practical use.

Twelve Quality Criteria for New Modes of Assessment

Based on literature research, an expert consultation and a consultation of teachers (Baartman et al., 2006; 2007a; 2007b), 12 quality criteria for competence assessment programmes were formulated. These quality criteria are put together in a wheel, called the wheel of competence assessment (see Fig. 12.3).

In the wheel of competence assessment, the quality criteria are displayed in circles. Fitness for purpose forms the basic quality criterion for all assessments and is related to the previously mentioned importance of congruence between learning, teaching and assessment (Biggs, 1996). The quality criteria in the inner layer are the more basic quality criteria for all modes of assessment. Comparability and reproducibility are derived from the traditional notion of reliability, but they are defined in a different way. The outer layer of the wheel represents the new quality criteria originating in the new assessment culture. The wheel itself is placed in a broader educational context including the criteria of costs and efficiency and educational consequences, which represent the connection of assessment with other aspects of education as a whole.

1. Fitness for purpose relates to the congruence of learning, teaching and assessment as discussed previously in this chapter. It is crucial that the assessment goals and the assessment methods are consistent with the instructional goals and competences strived for.
2. Comparability addresses the fact that assessments should be conducted in a consistent and responsible way for all students. Even though new modes of assessment are less standardised and may differ between students, key features

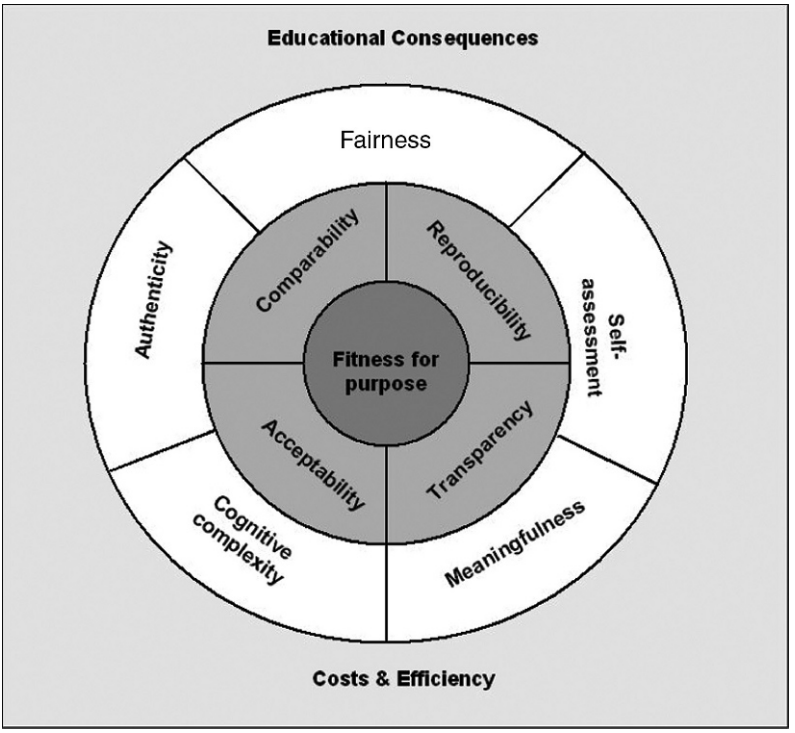

Fig. 12.3 The wheel of competence assessment

have to be consistent for all students. In addition, assessment conditions, procedures and criteria have to be similar for all students.

3. Reproducibility of decisions means that decisions made about students' competence should not depend on coincidence but be based on multiple assessments, multiple assessors and multiple occasions. In new modes of assessment, multiple assessors judge the performance of learners and reach their final decision in an open discussion. It is useful to use assessors with different backgrounds, as these assessors perceive a student's competences from a different point of view and together they can give a balanced decision about the competences of the student.
4. Acceptability means that teacher educators, student teachers and school principals, as future employers, should approve the assessment criteria and the way the assessments are carried out. They have to have confidence in the quality of the assessment methods used. A possible way to increase the acceptability of an assessment is to involve students in the development process of, for example, the assessment criteria, by asking them what they think constitutes a good performance.
5. Transparency relates to the fact that assessments must be clear and understandable to all participants. Assessors and students need to know and understand the

assessment procedures and criteria to be able to prepare for the role of assessor or to adjust their learning process.

6. Fairness means that all students get a fair and equal chance to demonstrate their competences. All students need to be given the opportunity to demonstrate their abilities and to maximise their potential. Therefore, a variety of methods should be used to address the various learning styles or cultural backgrounds of students.
7. Fitness for self-assessment means that assessment should stimulate the development of self-regulated learning skills. Assessment can contribute to these skills by using forms of self-assessment and peer assessment and by allowing students to formulate new learning goals based on their own assessment results.
8. Meaningfulness implies that assessment should have a significant value for educators, student teachers and school principals as future employers and provide a challenging educational experience. Possibilities to increase meaningfulness for students is to involve them in the assessment process (e.g. as described in the section on peer assessment), to let them adjust the assessment to their own personal interests (McDowell, 1995) or to give them an opportunity to decide when they are ready to take the assessment.
9. Authenticity as a quality criterion for assessment has already been addressed earlier in this chapter. It is generally described as the degree in which the assessment reflects the competences needed in the future workplace.
10. Cognitive complexity resembles authenticity in that it also relates to the future professional life, but it focuses on the fact that assessments should elicit the cognitions of practitioners, in this case teachers, to solve problems related to working in education. The use of performance assessments, however, is no guarantee that higher cognitive skills are being measured. To gain insight into the thinking processes of students, Maclellan (2004) suggests to encourage students to clarify the rationale for their answer or action chosen.
11. Educational consequences pertain to the effects the assessments have on learning and instruction (Dierick & Dochy, 2001). A collection of evidence is needed about the intended and unintended effects of the assessment on how teachers and learners adjust their teaching and learning based on their expectations of the assessment. For summative purposes, unintended factors and adverse impact are especially important.
12. Costs and efficiency as a quality criterion is especially important when innovating towards new, more complex assessments. Assessment choices are not only influenced by educational, didactical factors, but also by financial, managerial and institutional factors. This criterion relates to the time and resources needed to carry out the assessment, compared to its benefits.

What Do These Quality Criteria Mean for Teacher Education?

An important new insight in quality evaluation of new assessment is that quality is to a great extent determined by how teacher educators use the assessment instruments.

This implies that teacher educators should be able to critically review (their own) assessment practices and teach about new assessment practices. This can be done by, for example, using a self-evaluation procedure in which all those involved in assessing student teaches, like teacher educators and mentors and school principals, evaluate their own assessments. Self-evaluation seems to improve a critical attitude towards one's own practice, which is crucial for ongoing change and improvement of high-quality assessment in teacher education (see Baartman et al., 2007b).

Conclusion

This chapter discussed three main challenges teacher educators face when developing high-quality assessments in the assessment culture. The goal of this chapter was to encourage teacher educators to reflect on their current or intended assessment practices. We tried to offer practical guidelines to develop more authentic assessments for assessing learning in teaching practice as well as in the teacher education institute, to get student teachers involved in the assessment process through using different kinds of peer assessments and to critically evaluate and improve the quality of assessment programmes. However, assuring authenticity, student involvement and quality is easier said than done. It will require professional development opportunities for teacher educators to enhance their assessment competences. Only then, will they be able to teach as they preach.

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Part IV
Teacher Educators as Researchers

Chapter 13
Teacher Educators as Researchers

Kay Livingston, Jim McCall and Margarida Morgado

Introduction

This chapter is divided into four main sections. In the first the growing demands for teacher educators to become research active are considered. In the second the focus is on the possible areas of research in which teacher educators might engage. In the third section the implications of being or becoming a research active teacher educator are explored and in the fourth and final section some conclusions are drawn and future issues outlined.

Why Teacher Educators as Researchers?

In many countries increasing emphasis is being placed on the development of research or evidence-based practice and this is occurring not only in education but also in other professions, particularly in medicine. This change in emphasis has been accompanied in many cases by a more rigorous approach to the rating or ranking of the research quality and quantity of those who work in universities or other sectors of higher education. In many countries, including the United Kingdom, these regular assessments not only affect (and some would argue distort) the activities of those who work in higher education and their publication and dissemination strategies; but the publication of the results of such Research Assessment Exercises also has a marked impact on the public and peer perceptions of the status of the institutions involved. In addition, in some countries the ranking of the institution directly affects the future income provided from the funding councils since it is determined by taking account of the number of 'research active' staff and the ranking or rating associated with them. Success in the Research Assessment Exercises therefore gives not only perceived academic standing to an institution but also considerable financial rewards. The converse applies to those institutions ranked more lowly and they may face cut backs in funding, redundancy of staff or in some cases even closure

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of departments or faculties. A consequence of these procedures may be that certain staff members are identified as being 'research active'. This means that they have a teaching and research role whereas others are deemed to have a teaching only role. This is not a satisfactory outcome since arguably all staff in higher education should be engaged in both teaching and research.

The second main driver for the involvement of teacher educators in research is built around the importance of continuous learning and the desire of teacher educators to reflect on and improve learning and teaching based around the following key concepts:

- *Dynamic view of knowledge*: accepting that knowledge is not a static quantum to be passed on from one generation to the next but rather that it is subject to continuous growth and change to fit the temporal context in which it is to be used.
- *Societal change*: an acceptance that developments in society e.g. with regard to the nature of work available or the development of a more knowledge-based employment require educational provision to be more flexible and not only reactive to current needs but also pro-active in attempting to prepare learners for the future.
- *Changing educational landscape*: taking account of current developments such as the provision of universal education at school level and the growth in the proportion of the population entering into higher education in universities and colleges.
- *Inter-professional working*: an acceptance that future developments are likely to be the outcome of working with a range of other professionals and that the flow of information from one professional to another is necessarily going to increase. Indeed that the most likely areas for advance in education are likely to be those that draw on a range of contributory and complementary disciplines.
- *Lifelong learning* (*ourselves as learners*): accepting that we all, teachers and teacher educators, have to commit ourselves to ongoing personal and professional development since what was acquired in undergraduate or graduate studies is unlikely to be entirely relevant for a career spanning 40 years or so!
- *Collaborative model for the development of teaching and learning*: underlining the requirement that all who wish to improve the quality of learning whether in schools or teacher education institutions will require to be involved in attempting to achieve a better understanding of the processes of learning and teaching. In particular this will not be achieved solely by those working in academe but require an acceptance of critical roles to be played in the process by teachers in school.

The approach outlined above is based on the premise that all of us as teacher educators believe in the value of continuous research and enquiry to understand and improve learning and teaching in relation to ourselves and others. This does not mean a few active researchers within a department or teacher education institution, rather this is about the involvement of all teacher educators as researchers including, as an essential element, the re-conceptualisation of teachers in schools who support student teachers as teacher educators who also engage in the process of research and enquiry.

In a recent article Arreman (2005, 230) explored the demands being placed on teacher educators in Sweden to become research active. 'The underlying assumption is that teacher educators (and teachers) need research as a means of providing theoretical underpinnings for improved professional development and practice'. Arreman concluded that although many of these efforts were concerned with the enhancement of the academic standing of teacher educators within the higher education system others were, indeed, related to genuine educational concerns.

In Portugal, claims Sá-Chaves (2005), educational research that is reflexive, based on teachers' activities in schools and which aims at competence development through the analysis of teaching practices runs against lack of recognition on the part of teachers and their ingrained traditional practices and methodologies.

The EU working group chaired by Sean Feerick (2004) on Improving the Education of Teachers and Trainers included the following important activities in terms of its recommendations for teacher educators:

- acting in a research-oriented investigative way
- enquiry, critical reflection, and action
- informed practice
- evidence-led development

These recommendations are in line with the views outlined earlier in this section and emphasise that a research-oriented investigative approach should become a way of working for all teacher educators. In providing an answer to the question 'Why become a researcher?' teacher educators are likely to give a range of responses. Some of these will to have to do with personal interests and others to institutional demands or expectations and yet others to national or regional imperatives. You may wish to reflect on your own responses to the question and how these are or are not affected by the context in which you work.

Teachers as Researchers of What?

The section above suggests that ongoing systematic critical enquiry should become a 'habit of mind' for every teacher educator. This section considers the question 'What might be the focus or topic of the research?' Typical answers might include:

- A concern to add to and improve our knowledge and understanding of the complex processes underlying learning and teaching in either or both schools and higher education.
- A desire to critique, improve and develop the existing programmes of teacher education either in one's own institution or in others.
- A wish to respond to demands to improve the quality of the educational process in schools. This might involve joint work with teachers in devising new curricula, teaching strategies, evaluation systems.

- Requests from governments or other agencies for 'expert' advice on possible developments.
- Career advancement and promotion.

Implicit in each of these answers, or possible areas of research, is the belief that teacher education, indeed education in general, is not simply about passing facts on from one generation to another in an accepting and uncritical fashion but rather it is about exploration, discovery and the application of evidence-based studies to the act and content of the teaching process. Such a strategy also accepts that teaching and learning need to be able to adapt and adjust to new and changing circumstances and that this is likely to best achieved through involvement in an open and flexible research environment. As Hagger and McIntyre (2000, p. 483) argue: 'From research into the processes of teaching and learning we have learned a great deal about the complex nature of teacher's expertise and the extent to which it is determined by highly specific contexts (. . .) we have come to recognise the strength of the personal agendas that beginning teachers bring with them and the active role they play in negotiating their own learning'. It is acknowledged that Hagger and McIntyre are talking specifically about teaching in a school context but the issues they raise are similar to those faced by teacher educators who bring with them their own complex of education and experience. Assumptions about learners, learning and teaching are often deeply embedded and can be made visible through collaborative critical enquiry.

While we would agree with the emphasis placed by Hagger and McIntyre on starting from the context in which the teacher educators find themselves it has to be stressed that the context also includes factors external to the individuals. There may therefore be constraints placed on the type of research by the institutional context or by funding agencies in terms of what they will support or in terms of national policies. Writing about the developments in Sweden Arreman (2005) explores not only the growth in the quantity of research carried out by teacher educators but also the emphasis which government policies have placed on the nature of the research undertaken in terms both of topic or theme and of the research paradigms employed. Arreman argues that initially the traditional research paradigm drawn from research in the sciences or social sciences was adopted but later more cross-disciplinary approaches were adopted and, in particular, 'The introduction of *didaktik*, as a new practice-related research area in the late 1980s opened up among teacher educators a questioning about the right to discourse and 'truth' about knowledge and research in teacher education' (Arreman, 2005, p. 230).

The approach that might be adopted in attempting to identify areas for research might fruitfully be based on the following brief statements and assertions about the interplay between teaching and research and it is argued that teacher educators may wish to address the following statements:

- Teaching that is continually informed, reviewed and developed by research.
- Using research to deepen knowledge and understanding of the why, what, how (and with whom) of teaching and learning.
- Teaching that is continually informed, reviewed and developed through enquiry.

In Portugal, Oliveira, Pereira, and Santiago, (2004) also feel that it is important for teacher educators to address research in schools with teachers as a strategy for the latter's professional development and as a means to solve concrete identified problem areas of their teaching.

A recent review paper by Pollard has attempted to define and clarify the distinction between three terms: education research; educational research and professional enquiry. Thus according to Pollard (2006, p. 255) *education research* 'Rests on the major contributory disciplines of education (e.g. psychology, philosophy, sociology) and on the significance of the production of new forms of knowledge for their own sake'. *Educational research* is 'More applied seeking to use disciplinary insights, theories and tools in illuminating issues of policy and practice'. Finally *professional enquiry* (or practitioner research) of which there is a great deal is 'Of great value in the improvement of practice'.

Thus following on from Pollard we consider it entirely appropriate that teacher educators engage in professional enquiry i.e. that they engage in processes of critical reflection and enquiry. For example, such activity could include the following aims: to develop and refine knowledge about learning and teaching, to develop and refine practice of teaching and to develop and refine practice of teaching about teaching.

It is important to note that enquiry is seldom enough on its own. For maximum impact it normally has to be accompanied by reflection which can be defined as 'An intentional act of the mind, engaging a person alone (or in collaboration with others) in interrogating one's teaching to construct some understanding of it' (Lyons, 2006, p. 156). This implies application of research to practice. There is a growing number of texts that highlight the centrality of research to the development of practice (Campbell, McNamara, & Gilroy, 2004; Cowan, 2006). An example of the development of applied research in teacher education was set up in Scotland in 2004. An Applied Educational Research Scheme was funded by the Scottish Executive Education Department and the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council. The five year programme aims to not only enhance educational research capability in Scottish higher education institutions but to use that capability to conduct high-quality research which will benefit school education in Scotland. The framework for the research is linked to investigating issues relating to Scotland's National Priorities in Education.

The Programme is organised into three Thematic Networks, which will carry out capacity-building activities and research projects on, respectively: learners, learning and teaching; school management and governance; and schools and social capital. In addition a Capacity-Building Network is taking responsibility for more generic research capacity-building activities. Led by a consortium of Edinburgh, Stirling and Strathclyde Universities, it includes as partners and beneficiaries all Scottish higher education institutions with a research interest in school education and is collaborating with practitioners and policy-makers. The core principle underpinning the scheme is that the best way to enhance the infrastructure of educational research is through collaboration and a spirit of inclusiveness. Each Network, therefore, invites the widest possible participation of all relevant stakeholders with an interest in the application of research to the relevant practice explored by each thematic network.

This collaborative approach offers the opportunity to explore different world views and alternative ideas about the relationship between educational research, policy and practice. Teacher educators new to research may participate in the scheme at different levels. Some attend seminars or research presentation to access information about the ongoing work of the thematic networks, while others take up the opportunity to participate in the research activities as part-time research fellows for a short period. During this period they work alongside more experienced researchers in a variety of activities, such as, planning research methodologies, designing data gathering instruments, conducting interviews, analysing data, writing up reports and presenting joint papers at research conferences. Each research fellow has a designated mentor to support him/her during the activities to develop skills and confidence in undertaking applied research. This example describes developments in Scotland. However, other programmes have been developed in other countries. For example, in Finland there is a programme called, Life as Learning, a multi-scientific national research programme on learning. The themes studied in the programme include developing teaching and learning in the school system, new challenges of learning in the working life, new forms of learning, and new teachership and teacher education (www.aka.fi).

Let us return to the question posed at the beginning of this section – What might be the focus of research for teacher educators? When considering an area of research it is important to note that it is highly unlikely that any single piece of research will provide definitive outcomes or breakthrough results but rather that although cause-effect linkages may be difficult to establish, as Pollard (2006, p. 254) argues: 'Educational research nonetheless has the potential to provide information, analysis, and insight, and thus to significantly improve understanding and decision-making by users' and he continues: 'Educational problems, of practice or policy, are often complex and immediate- but are invariably grounded in more enduring issues which merit both practitioner enquiry and sustained, cumulative, multi-disciplinary social scientific research'.

Implications of Accepting that All Teacher Educators Should Be 'Researchers' – How Will This Be Achieved and with Whom?

The implications of accepting as a principle of policy and practice that all teacher educators should engage in some form of research activity will be dependent on a number of factors of which the following are arguably some of the most important.

In many countries appointment to a post as a teacher educator normally comes after the individual has demonstrated high levels of expertise as a teacher in one or more schools and has gained a lot of practical (chalk-face) experience. Such individuals are therefore highly skilled as teachers but may lack any experience in research and development of skills of professional enquiry. Indeed they may also have to develop skills of teaching adults in higher education to complement those they have demonstrated in their earlier work in schools. Such individuals may be

considered as experience rich but research impoverished and will need considerable support if they are to develop expertise as researchers.

In other countries newly appointed teacher educators may well have come from a research or academic environment and frequently have formal qualifications in research but often these are in subject specific areas and may have only tangential relevance to research in the field of teacher education. Such individuals may be considered to be potentially research rich but may lack the practical experience of the time-served teacher educator coming from the school context.

A third category of new teacher educator is that of the experienced teacher who has pursued further academic study, possibly on a part time basis, and has acquired at least a basic understanding of research and professional enquiry methodologies. These individuals have already demonstrated both their desire to be involved in further study and their ability to tackle it successfully.

It is evident that each of these new or beginning teacher educators has a different set of needs in terms of professional development although there will be areas of overlap among them. The inclusion of research as a requirement in the job description of teacher educators clearly has implications for the overall workload of the teacher educator and for the balance and range of activities in which the teacher educators is involved. It appears sensible therefore, wherever possible, to ensure that the research activity contributes in an integral way to the teacher educator's role and is not perceived as a separate or additional task.

The following outline of possible strategies is given as an indication of the range of activities which have been found to be of assistance in developing not only the research skills of the individual teacher educators but the research culture of the institution and of its contribution to the quality of learning and teaching.

Induction Courses

Given the very varying needs of beginning teacher educators many institutions organise formal induction courses for new staff (see Chapter 7). Among other activities, such as dealing with structural and management arrangements and aspects of teaching and learning in higher education, these courses invariably introduce the new entrants to teacher education to the aspirations and demands of the research culture of the organisation. Some institutions require a period of probation for beginning teacher educators that gives them an opportunity to develop new knowledge, skills and understanding in teaching and research. Ability to demonstrate a certain level of expertise in teaching and research at the end of the probationary period is a requirement in some teacher education institutions. In dealing with research induction courses might include, among other things:

- An indication of the institution's expectations about staff research involvement and how such involvement is likely to be achieved.
- The relative emphasis placed on research and teaching in terms of career advancement.

- An outline of the main research interests of experienced staff.
- A description of the work of existing research groups.
- Specific courses on research methods and the arrangements for providing both quantitative and qualitative support to staff.
- Advice on the procedures for applying for financial support for research.
- Support in the preparation of research bids for both internal and external support.
- Consideration of ethical issues associated with conducting research.
- Support to attend conferences to network with member of the research community nationally or internationally and present research papers.

Reporting on the results of induction courses in the context of an institution in Israel Katz and Coleman (2001) highlight the importance of such courses for beginning teacher educators and remind us that such individuals are often looking for extrinsic rewards, such as additional pay, tenure and perhaps a higher degree at doctoral or Master's level. Even for the more mature but nonetheless beginning teacher educators such courses can provide opportunities to enhance their confidence in their new employment situation and may increase not only their self-esteem but their commitment to engage in new areas of exploration.

Mentoring

Although formal induction courses are important they tend to lack a direct link to individual needs since they almost invariably have to deal with issues of general relevance. A number of institutions in the United Kingdom have therefore developed a system of mentors in which newly appointed staff meet on a regular basis with a designated colleague in order to explore issues of concern identified by the new teacher educator. Such one to one discussions can greatly assist in meeting the development needs of the novice teacher educators and, through the expertise of the mentor the novice can be provided with appropriate support. It is clearly important that mentors are selected who can provide support and guidance and that a good working relationship is established between mentee and mentor. The study by Katz and Coleman (2001) mentioned earlier presents some indicators both for the operation of a mentoring system and of its positive impact on those being mentored.

Procedures for Identification of Individual Needs

As was stressed earlier a critical issue in the development of teacher educators as researchers is the identification of the needs, in research terms, of the new teacher educator. Many strategies exist for needs identification and one would be to have the mentors discuss these needs directly with their mentees, while another might involve using the induction course as a tool to assist in the process. A third strategy might

involve the beginning teacher educator in responding formally to a set of questions being posed by the institution. Such questions might include:

- Why do you wish to become involved in research?
- What is your current level of expertise?
- Are there research methodologies with which you are confident or which you find congenial?
- Are there research methodologies in which you lack confidence or find uncongenial?
- What areas or types of research do you think you would like to become involved with?

Whatever strategy is employed for the initial identification of needs and aspirations, they will require opportunities to be explored in discussions between the new teacher educator's manager and/or mentor in order that a plan can be agreed. Such plans almost invariably comprise not only a set of strategies to meet the agreed needs but indicators to mark the achievement of both interim and final goals.

It could be argued that this needs identification should be the first stage in the process and come prior to the induction course but our experience suggests that at least part of the general induction course should precede it since that can remove a lot of initial uncertainties and may even serve to clarify the institution's use of technical terms and of the existing support structures. In some institutions new teacher educators have a reduced workload during their probationary period to give them time to develop new knowledge and skills and to pursue an area of research.

Joining Existing Research Groups

In many institutions there will already be well-established research groups or new research initiatives which are being developed and are seeking inputs from staff members. Informal discussions with the members or potential members of such groups can often prove useful in clarifying the nature of the research being carried out by the group and of their willingness to have new members join their research team. In some institutions considerable encouragement is given to the inclusion of new members in such teams as it is seen as an efficient and cost-effective way of increasing the research expertise of the unit and of increasing the number of staff considered to be research active. In some countries, of which the United Kingdom is one, considerable funds have been provided at national level in order to enhance the depth and breadth of the research teams in teacher education and the new teacher educator should investigate whether such possibilities exist within their own institution or national arrangements. Critical issues for the new teacher educator to consider when deciding whether or not to seek to join such existing research groups is – does the area of work interest me, would I like to work with those already on the team, and what do I have to contribute and what to gain?

Consideration of Ethical Issues Associated with Conducting Research

When conducting research it is important to consider ethical issues. In society generally there is growing concern about human rights and about data protection. Research in education is often conducted in schools and data may be collected that is about children, teachers, parents and other professionals. Many research associations have 'Codes of Practice in Educational Research' (see Chapter 3). For example, SERA, the Scottish Educational Research Association (www.sera.ac.uk) has ethical guidance published on its website. It points out that as educational researchers we are involved in research and education and that it is 'Essential that we continually reflect on our research to be sure that it is not only rigorously conducted, but that it also makes a worthwhile contribution to the quality of education in our society' (SERA, 2005, p. 1).

For guidance about ethical issues new researchers should look at the guidelines of research associations in their own country. If this is not applicable other options offered here as examples are the British Educational Research Association Ethical Guidelines (www.bera.ac.uk) or the Economic and Social Research Council Research Ethics Framework (www.esrc.ac.uk).

Universities usually have their own Ethics Committees and guidelines for conducting research which must be adhered to. In most cases approval to conduct research in educational settings has to be sought from the university Ethics Committee prior to any research taking place. Information on how to seek approval should form part of the induction programme for new teacher educators. If not, it is important to find out what the university policy is before embarking on educational research.

Publication and Dissemination Issues

It is clearly not enough to do research, whether on an individual or team basis, if the outcomes are not reported in such a fashion that they can be considered and acted upon by others. Publication of research results is therefore likely to be regarded as an essential element of the research process by academic managers. Publications in high prestige peer-reviewed journals or in book form are seen as the pinnacle outcomes of the research activity. Achieving such an outcome may at first appear daunting to the new researcher but again many strategies for achieving this are available. These include:

1. Research writing groups which provide both formal input into the writing process and a supportive environment in which new researchers may test out their initial ideas prior to revising them for publication.
2. Writing as part of a team. If the research has been carried out on a group basis then often the publications are also written as a collective effort. Exactly how this is achieved should be agreed by members of the team and normally will involve the writing of the initial draft or sections of it by one or more people and then the draft being considered, reviewed and revised by the whole team. Often

the more experienced researchers will agree to provide the initial draft and the less experienced do the review process but at the end the final version should be acceptable to all those who are identified with its production.
3. Writing short reports for internal distribution or as conference papers (see below) can assist in breaking down the writer's block which may confront the beginning researcher if asked to produce a formal paper for publication.

Conference Attendance

A good way for new teacher educators to become aware of the current research being carried out in their areas of interest is to attend appropriate conferences held at regional, national or international levels. Often such conferences welcome short papers on current research by those relatively new to the field and this can be a good way of testing out your ideas and presenting your paper in less formal settings. The annual conferences of the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) can prove useful in at least two ways. Firstly, they allow you to meet with an international group of both experienced and relatively inexperienced teacher educators in both formal and informal contexts. Secondly, the operation of the numerous ATEE Research and Development Centres should enable you to meet with and discuss issues in your particular field of interest and expertise. These groups also frequently have ongoing research projects to which their members contribute throughout the period between conferences and some of this work has resulted in publication in peer reviewed journals or in book form. Indeed this book has it origins in discussions first held at an ATEE conference.

Continuing Professional Development

As teacher educator you will be required to continue your own professional development and part of this is undoubtedly going to be research related (Lunenberg and Willemse (2006) present examples of the potential for positive linkages between research and professional development issues). Teacher educators will therefore need to acquire skills for the ongoing identification of their research needs and to keep abreast of current developments in their field(s) of interest. As a minimum teacher educators should be aware of the research alerts services provided by the major publishing groups (most of them are free) and of online services provided at national and international levels by governments and other agencies.

Conclusions and Issues for the Future

If teaching is to become an evidence or research-based profession teacher educators have to become, if they are not already, engaged in an active way in individual research activities or as a member of a research group or team. Indeed as was outlined

earlier such involvement is likely to become an employment condition for many teacher educators as their institutions, particularly those based in universities, strive to improve their research standing. There will therefore be increasing demands on teacher educators not only to engage, as many have done over the years, in research and development work but also to ensure the eventual publication of their work in peer-refereed journals in order that its standing can be evaluated and accredited and attempts made to assess its impact through the use of citation indices, etc.

As was emphasised earlier in this chapter we consider it vital that all of those involved in teacher education, that is those in the teacher education institutions and those in the schools, have a commitment to continuous professional enquiry as defined above. This is essential in our view if we are to avoid differentiated roles being ascribed to groups of teacher educators and if we are to overcome the outcome identified by Gitlin who has argued that teacher education is stuck in a double bind since 'On the one hand, gaining distinction in the university setting requires that teacher educators spend more time on research. On the other hand, by doing so teacher educators distance themselves from teachers who largely reject research knowledge' (Gitlin, 2000, p. 25). The key to removing this bind is surely to create conditions for professional development which involve all of the players and not a chosen, select few and to engage in research which strives to improve practice.

In the past teacher educators may have become involved in research out of personal interest in a subject or a concern to improve the quality of teaching and learning either of their own students or of the pupils these students will eventually teach. Although for some teacher educators these are still important reasons, for others there will be more instrumental motivating factors such as a desire for greater job security or an effort to meet institutional demands to be seen to be 'research active' or to seek professional career advancement. Whatever your motivation research diligently and report it regularly.

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Chapter 14
Teacher Educators and the Self-Study of Teaching Practices

Mary Lynn Hamilton, John Loughran and Maria Inês Marcondes

Introduction

Among the global community that prepares teachers for teaching, there are many ways to become a teacher educator. For example, in Australia, the traditional route to being a teacher educator was that an experienced successful teacher moved into teacher education as a curriculum method lecturer from which part-time enrollment in a doctorate might follow in order to pursue an academic career. However, in recent times, this transition has become more difficult as a tenure track position usually requires a doctorate, meaning that many successful teachers who would make excellent teacher educators are not prepared to dramatically alter their income and professional status by moving from the top of one profession to the bottom of another.

In Brazil, the majority of teacher educators have Master's level degrees. However, when teacher educators teach at the university level they have doctorates in education or in related areas. In the United States most teacher educators have some experience in the public schools and most teacher educators have earned doctorates in education-related areas. In the Netherlands only a minority of Dutch teacher educators have research as an integral part of a job description that mainly relates to the preparation of teachers (Lunenberg & Hamilton, 2008). Only recently have expectations begun to shift to include research tasks for the Dutch teacher educators.

For many years the research lives of teacher educators received little notice and generated little interest. Recently, however, the work of teacher educators and their research practices have garnered more attention and have been examined in more detail. For instance, from ways to describe teacher educators' roles in the classroom and profession (Korthagen, Loughran, & Lunenberg, 2005) to ways to demonstrate pedagogical expertise (Loughran, 2006) to ways to understand the development of their professional knowledge, the roles and development of teacher educators have been depicted and described. While more traditional research practices have been surveyed with some specificity, one missing element has been discussion of the

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research teacher educators do on their own practice; often in their own classrooms. Self-study is attractive to many because teacher educators, it can well be argued, regardless of backgrounds, preparation or experience need to take a reflective look at their pedagogy and the complex nature of learning and teaching to prepare tomorrow's teachers.

Whether called self-study or by another name, many teacher educators engage in the self-study of their teaching practices. That is, they study their own teaching practice in their own classrooms, reflect upon their own actions, their students' actions and the ways that they, as teachers, bring their beliefs into action in their classrooms. In the simplest of terms, self-study differs from action research, reflection or inquiry by the nature of the rigour of the research of practice and the commitment to sharing the learning outcomes with others in the profession – most commonly through conference presentations and publication in journals and books. Explicitly engaging in self-study strengthens their practice and the study of their practice. The central issue of the chapter is the value of self-study in the work of teacher educators and their work with student teachers.

To facilitate a better understanding of self-study practices, we include excerpts from our work, along with the work of others, to identify issues we think matter for our practice, our professional knowledge and our ways of being scholars in the field. First we present the conceptual framework we used to organize this chapter. Our chapter considers: how teacher educators can derive professional satisfaction and still maintain that strong link to teaching; how they can develop beyond teaching while being conscious of, and sensitive to, the learning about teaching done by their student teachers as well as their own teaching in their own classrooms. Next we present a list of issues associated with becoming teacher educators, growing into the job and utilizing research in the form of self-study to strengthen the work. We probe the transitions from school teaching to teacher education as well as from teacher educator to teacher educator scholar. The use of self-study research while teaching and when preparing our students for teaching can be critical in this development.

Conceptual Frame for an Exploration of the Self-study of Teaching Practices

Teachers are more than technicians who mechanically move from one point to the next in a prescribed manner. The lack of certainty in the classroom as students, teachers, content and context collide eludes a formulaic approach to teaching and the teaching process. To their classrooms, teachers bring to bear their personal practical knowledge (for example, Elbaz, 1983; Connelly & Clandinin, 1985) as they reflect upon their experiences. Here self-study can be a tool for professional learning and the development of one's practice and understanding. The self-study of teaching and teacher education practices focuses on the development of professional knowledge and a deeper understanding of the processes of teaching and learning. As Hamilton and Pinnegar (1998) suggest, 'research on teaching practice by teachers

holds invaluable promise for developing new understandings and producing new knowledge about teaching and learning' (p. 243). Furthermore, formalizing 'such study of practice through self-study is imperative. The formalization of self-study then provides both kinds of living theory: the practice of the researchers and the accounts of their new understanding of and knowledge about their practice. The value of self-study depends on the researchers/teacher providing convincing evidence that they know what they claim to known' (Hamilton and Pinnegar, 1998, p. 243; see also Hamilton & Pinnegar, 2000).

For Loughran (2004), self-study supports teachers' desires for deeper knowledge of specific teaching contexts. Self-study also requires that evidence about claims to know and understand be made explicit. Self-study of teaching practices serves as a way to examine more fully the teaching of teacher educators and can develop the teaching practices of those interested in becoming teachers – student teachers.

To consider teacher educators, student teachers and the self-study of teaching practices we use Clarke and Erickson's (2004a, 2004b) adaptation of Schwab's (1978a, 1978b, 1978c) commonplaces as a way to talk about self-study and professional learning. Schwab, writing on practical perspectives to curriculum, identified four commonplaces within any curriculum as teachers, students, contents and context (milieu) as a way to address educational issues. As Clarke and Erickson (2004b) describe these commonplaces they suggest that, 'for teaching to occur, someone (a teacher) must be teaching someone (a student) about something (a curriculum) at some place and some time (a context)' (p. 209). This description comes as they argue for the importance of the development of professional practice. From their perspective, a fifth commonplace should be added. They assert that for, 'teaching to occur, there must be a 'somehow', a way for an educator to know, recognise, explore, and act upon his or her practice. For us, that *somehow* is self-study' (p. 209). Internationally there is a push for teacher educators and teachers to develop their knowledge and thoughtfulness about teaching through professional learning and inquiry. We believe, as Clarke and Erickson believe, that self-study provides a way to explore the *somehow* of teaching. In the next sections we present our perspective to encourage the consideration of the *somehow* of teaching by more teacher educators as a way to strengthen their professional learning and understandings.

Teacher Educators, Professional Satisfaction and Strong Links to Teaching

In this section we explore the ways that self-study enhances the work of teacher educators. It is here that we investigate how teacher educators can derive professional satisfaction in the exploration of their teaching practice, engage in research, and still maintain their strong link to teaching. First we offer two short excerpts from our own self-study work to illustrate how self-study empowers the development of the professional learning and knowledge of teacher educators.

Maria Inês

I teach a course entitled *Teaching Practice in Elementary School*, a mandatory course for those studying to be elementary schoolteachers. It is a course conceived as the appropriate occasion to analyze and reflect upon the work of teachers in public or private schools in the community. The course has as its objective the application of theoretical teacher knowledge in practical situations. When these student teachers present lessons in elementary school classes, they develop not only technical skills and plans as they transmit and evaluate school knowledge, they also develop their reflective thinking on the teaching and learning process as a whole (Liston & Zeichner, 1996). From this perspective, supervision plays an important role because the supervisor and the students, not only reflect on daily practices in schools, but also face difficulties and consider pedagogical alternatives to develop successful practices. Consideration of the moral and ethical implications of ideas and actions with the particular focus on issues of justice and equity becomes important for the teacher educator (me) and the student teachers. With this in mind, I view myself as a teacher educator who facilitates learning rather than transmits knowledge. To improve my course and my practice I review different texts and materials, look at case studies and organize teaching lessons.

I began my self-study with the idea that: 'Self-study can be considered as an extension of reflection on practice, with aspirations that go beyond professional development and move to wider communication and consideration of ideas, i.e. the generation and communication of new knowledge and understandings. Reflection is important in self-study but it alone is not self-study. Self-study involves reflection on practice' (Loughran & Northfield, 1998, p. 15). I began carefully to critique choices I made in the classroom in relation to student responses, student learning and depth of student understanding.

Among different possibilities for organizing this course, I realized that a favorable psychological climate fosters the development of a reflective practice. Feeling comfortable to give and receive constructive criticism supports the improvement of practice. I hoped to help student teachers learn 'to critique teaching rather than the person' (Berry & Loughran, 2002, p. 15). An atmosphere of confidence among my students helped them share their difficulties, explore their doubts, and face their limitations. Most of the times we, my students and I, successfully create a safe haven in our classroom, yet we support each other by attending to the ways we present our critiques and observations. The reflective elements of my work push me to use a critical eye in the examination of my ideas and actions used in the classroom. Before each class I ask myself, in what ways can I best support my students in my classroom to carefully reflect on their own teaching practices?

Mary Lynn

For me, self-study has become very important as a way to help me work towards a positive classroom climate. My self-study work helps me develop a greater

awareness of the difficulties I face and enables me to find ways of dealing with them especially as I model reflection on practice for my students. For me, thinking about my teaching has many layers – I always look to improve my own practice, I look to understand the learning-to-teach process in search of better ways to communicate that process to my students, and sometimes I prepare my work to share publicly with teachers, teacher educators and others. To provide an example of how I enact these ideas I offer one vignette:

> After teaching many years I had a semester where my students complained (what seemed to be) endlessly about my lack of organization and my lack of specificity. From my perspective I thought that I provided intricate detail and well organized information. For them, at least some of them, they felt in the dark about what I wanted, how I wanted it, and why I wanted it. As the semester progressed, tensions mounted. I provided what I thought was more detail; they heard a lack of specificity. I asked myself questions about my practices, sought different strategies, and yet still missed the mark. More worrisome was the interference this issue caused in the total performance (learning process) of students in the classroom. It seemed that they were not always learning what they needed to learn in the class. Although issues became more balanced over time, I never felt satisfied with my own practice and the quality of learning experiences I provided for my students. What to do became the central focus on my self-study.

In my journals I detailed my experiences over time – the ups and downs, the confusions, the wonderings, the revelations. For example, early in the semester when I wrote:

> . . . again, students seem uncertain. I wonder if this perceived doubt has to do with me and my presentation of information, with them and their level of experience as novices or with something else?

I expressed my developing curiosity about my teaching practice and the level of student learning. Once I outlined my wonderings, I began to delineate literature and theoretical perspectives that might contribute to my teaching framework. To do this, I asked myself questions like – what teaching models or strategies might work better in my classroom? How might I better reach my students? Would a more student-focused classroom better support the students? What might be causing the radical differences between the students' and the teacher's perceptions? Was the problem about me, them, or both? Engaging in the self-study of teaching practices allows me to explore my experience as a teacher educator in deeper and more substantial ways.

The Somehow of Teaching

The *somehow* of teaching seems apparent in each excerpt. In each entry the teacher educator examined her practice with the purpose of pushing her understandings of her own teaching to better facilitate learning for her students and for herself. Notice that the key focus of the excerpts centers on the teacher educator. While the student teachers and their learning have a central role, the teacher educators situated themselves at the heart of the work. Maria Inês focused on classroom climate. Not satisfied with her own course organization to facilitate student learning, she

sought changes to enhance her students' work and her own practice. Mary Lynn focused on teaching strategies and the ways in which *she* could present lessons to extend her students' learning. Our practice is the focus of our research. We find professional satisfaction in our exploration of our teaching and teacher education practices. In turn, our strong links to teaching and backgrounds in the research of teaching strengthen the research (self-study) we do that contributes to the knowledge base of teachers. While we each approach our classroom, our teaching, and our research from different perspectives, the heart of self-study – the focus on practice – seems vividly revealed on the page. In each case our research is our practice and we forge strong links to our teaching. For these reasons we need to write, collect evidence, to think, reflect about what we do, what our students do, analyze, share with other colleagues our experiences. In other words, we make our work object of our research.

Teacher Educators, Student Teachers and Developing Beyond Teaching

Above you read excerpts of writings that are a part of our *somehow* of teaching and the foundations of our own self-study work. In this next section we look at links between strong preparation as student teachers and the developmental process from teacher into teacher educator.

The way in which teacher educators work with student teachers and the manner in which they construct their teaching about teaching links to the nature of the identity of being a teacher educator and therefore draws attention to what it means to become a teacher educator. For example, recent studies have begun to uncover aspects of teacher educators' development in their shift from schoolteacher to neophyte teacher educator and on into a career in teacher education (see for example, Dinkelman, Margolis, & Sikkenga, 2006; Murray & Male, 2005; see also Chapter 7 of this book). Such work illustrates the importance of teacher educators coming to grips with shifting expectations associated with the singular focus of their former work as teachers in schools to the more expansive academic expectations as teacher educators for the development, communication and critique of the knowledge of practice in scholarly ways. At this point, teacher educators begin to attend seminars and conferences, read research reports, and develop their familiarity with the academic world.

This transition is not easy as in many cases there is little direct support or mentoring (see also Chapters 6 and 7 of this book). Therefore the expectations of the changing role (from teacher to teacher educator) are not commonly made explicit and so, for many, a sense of being caught between two worlds often prevails. This can easily lead to a situation in which beginning teacher educators struggle to envisage that which the role might fully entail. It stands to reason then, that as experienced and capable schoolteachers, one important focus for teaching about teaching inevitably revolves around the need to pass on to student teachers good advice about how to 'do teaching'. Such a focus may be evident in what might be described as a 'tips and tricks' approach to teaching about teaching.

Use of Tips and Tricks as Teaching About Teaching

In learning about teaching, student teachers inevitably find themselves in a position whereby their personal needs and concerns direct that which they think is crucial in helping them make the transition from student to teacher. Naturally then, gathering a strong repertoire of good teaching ideas and activities becomes a strong agenda for coping with the demands of teaching. Yet, although these needs and concerns are very real and, despite the fact that developing a diverse range of teaching procedures is important, for many beginning teacher educators, this agenda can too easily become the only agenda in teaching about teaching. Hence, a reliance on a tips and tricks approach to teacher education can emerge and dominate practice for all the right reasons, but persist to the detriment of possibilities for highlighting the problematic nature of teaching and the true complexity of the teaching role. Making such a statement is not meant to detract from the obvious need for student teachers to develop a repertoire of teaching procedures, but rather to highlight the point that if teacher educators only meet student teachers' needs, then there is little likelihood that possibilities for extending understandings of the role of teaching (and that of teacher educators' teaching) may be dramatically reduced.

Teacher educators rightly need to be sensitive to their student teachers' learning about teaching needs, but if a reliance on a tips and tricks approach to teaching about teaching dominates teacher education practices, then intentionally or not, student teachers may well interpret teaching solely through a 'what will work in my class tomorrow' lens of teaching. Such a lens is of course highly practical and serves a useful initial purpose, however, quality teacher education requires that teaching be understood (and practiced) as something much more sophisticated; something much more responsive and reactive, and indeed, inherently receptive to learning such that decisions about what to teach and how are shaped by thinking beyond the use of a good activity for doing teaching. Thus, student teachers need to understand that thoughtful practice is underpinned by pedagogical reasoning.

In order to develop an understanding of pedagogical reasoning student teachers need access to the ways in which experienced teachers think about their teaching and to better understand the factors that shape their thinking about how to structure their teaching in ways that enhance student understanding. Therefore, in order to move beyond a tips and tricks approach to teaching about teaching, teacher educators' teaching intentions need to be clear (to themselves and their students).

One way of making intentions clear is by being conscious of one's own teaching behaviours. Teaching behaviours offer windows into understandings of practice because that which teacher educators do in their practice with student teachers inevitably reflects the thinking and intentions that direct practice. By focusing on teacher educators' teaching behaviours, real possibilities for highlighting pedagogical reasoning begin to emerge. Simplistically, teaching about teaching behaviours can be viewed using a dichotomy such that at one extreme, there are *teacher educator directed* approaches to teaching about teaching, and at the other, there are *students of teaching focused* approaches (as is briefly outlined in Fig. 14.1).

Teacher educator directed approach	Students of teaching focused approach
Asks closed questions that elicit short predetermined answers.	Asks open questions that require thoughtful, reasoned responses.
Uses minimum wait time, moves quickly from student to student.	Uses extended wait time and encourages students to persevere with their thinking and responses.
Concerned that students know the correct answers, moving on quickly once that has been determined.	Illustrates an interest in students' views and thinking. Listens carefully to responses to appropriately challenge responses regardless of whether they are right or wrong.
Corrects students' answers and thinking and does not easily accept disagreement or challenge from students.	Withholds judgment and accepts a range of responses. Accepts (and praises) own ideas being questioned or challenged.
Conscious of completing the content of the session, adhering to a fixed routine.	Flexible about timing and approach responding appropriately to students' views and suggestions about how to deal with the topic.
Concentration on what to do rather than why it is worth doing.	Draws attention to purpose and reasons for doing learning tasks.

Fig. 14.1 Teaching about teaching behaviours: a consideration of changes in behaviour to influence learning about teaching (source: Loughran, 2006, p. 83)

By considering teaching about teaching in this way, the underlying intentions of practice begin to emerge more clearly and subsequent possibilities for understanding teaching in more sophisticated ways become increasingly apparent.

Figure 14.1 illustrates how the manner in which different conceptualizations of teaching about teaching influences how student teachers might interpret the nature of teaching itself. Therefore, the shift from a teacher educator directed approach to practice to a student teacher focused approach can lead to a reframing (Schön, 1983) of the underlying fundamentals of practice and help to highlight important features of teaching that are not so readily apparent when 'capturing good teaching activities' is the primary focus of teacher education practices. Clearly then, teaching about teaching requires a considered approach to making that which is often tacit in teaching explicit so that student teachers may come to and see (and appreciate), the value in developing more sophisticated approaches to their own professional learning about teaching.

Teaching About Teaching to Highlight Knowledge and Skills of Practice

> Being a teacher educator requires an understanding of teaching that goes beyond being a good teacher. There is a need to be able to theorize practice in such a way as to know and be able to articulate the what, how and why to teaching and to do so through the very experiences of teaching *and* learning about teaching. (. . .) Teacher educators [need] to be capable of challenging simplistic views of, and approaches to, teaching as telling or the transmission of information (. . .) Teacher education should be a place where challenging

> simplistic notions and practices should be normal for it is where the seeds of change for the profession surely reside. (…) Clearly then, teacher educators carry a heavy responsibility in what they do, how they do it and the manner which they come to know and develop their own professional knowledge and practice (Loughran, 2006, p. 14).

In order to highlight pedagogical reasoning for student teachers, and to do so by moving beyond a technicist's approach to teaching about teaching, there is a need to be sympathetic to the conflicting demands student teachers face in their learning about teaching. On the one hand, student teachers are immediately confronted by a pressing need to learn about the content that comprises the discipline of education (e.g. learning theory, curriculum development, classroom management). On the other hand, they must also learn about teaching (e.g. such things as teaching activities, procedures and strategies (Mitchell & Mitchell, 2005) as well as seeing into the relationship between teaching and learning) by critiquing the very teaching they experience as students of teaching in their teacher education classes. Therefore, at any given time, student teachers are confronted by the need to learn the content they are being taught while at the same time needing to pay careful attention to the way in which they are being taught; and to learn from those experiences. This is not an easy task, as it requires student teachers to maintain at the front of their consciousness, two different learning purposes.

For teacher educators, recognition of this dilemma is important. It is a crucial shaping factor to one underlying purpose that influences the manner in which teaching about teaching might be approached. This issue goes to the heart of what has often been described as the need for teacher educators to 'practice what they preach' or to 'walk the talk'. However, it means more than just teaching in ways commensurate with the expectations of that which teacher educators might have for their student teachers' teaching. It means that teaching *and* learning about teaching needs to be a serious site for inquiry into the nature of pedagogy. More so, it means that teacher educators' own classes and their student teachers' own experiences of learning in those classes must be a focus for making the teaching and learning about teaching real, meaningful and valuable. In so doing, unpacking learning from, and through experience, becomes an explicit feature of the curriculum of teacher education and matters if the implicit messages in Lortie's (1975) 'apprenticeship of observation' are to seriously be challenged.

Student teachers have spent a considerable period of time observing teaching from 'the other side of the desk'. Clearly, from that perspective, they have seen a lot of teaching. And, if what they have experienced has largely comprised the delivery of information through transmissive teaching approaches (Barnes, 1976), there exists a strong need for teacher educators to purposefully construct their teaching about teaching in ways that challenge that model of practice. As students of teaching, they need to be privy to the pedagogical reasoning that underpins exemplary practice lest it be misconstrued as the simple application of a range of good teaching procedures.

Clearly, how teacher educators work with their student teachers is crucial in shaping how those student teachers will begin to think about, plan for, and manage their own professional learning. Seeing beyond that which they have experienced (and most likely not questioned) in their own formative years is then central to creating an understanding of teaching as being problematic and complex; teaching

as professional practice. Conceiving of teacher education as a catalyst in such a conceptualization is critical to both teaching *and* learning about teaching and is an important aspect of being a teacher educator. Understanding practice in such a way is part of the experience of *becoming* a teacher educator.

The work with which teacher educators engage as they support their student teachers pushes them to look deeply into their practice and consider ways to improve or change not only their own work but the work their student teachers and beyond that – the work of other teacher educators. This work, this research into practice, is the heart of teacher education and in the heart of teacher educators.

Becoming a Teacher Educator, Growing into the Job, Utilizing Research

The transition from schoolteacher to teacher educator calls for a shift from a focus on teaching to a focus on the teaching of teaching. As teacher educators we ask broader questions. We look to balance our understanding of classrooms with our growing ideas about how to articulate our knowledge to our student teachers. From our experience as teacher educators although the practical elements of the work are important, going beyond the practical to consider those broader questions extends our understanding of the teaching process. Once the decision has been made to become a teacher educator, developing a plan for the work to be done builds a strong professional foundation. The self-study of teaching practices can be a part of that plan.

In the previous sections we offered examples of how to bring the *somehow* of teaching beyond the classroom. We discussed the ways that teacher educators can influence the practice of their student teachers, if the teacher educators carefully attend to their own practice. Engaging self-study can affect practice, but perhaps more importantly, can culminate in the generation of ideas that can contribute to the knowledge base of teaching.

How to engage in the self-study of teacher education practices appears to be the next point to address. If self-study seems attractive as a way to establish inquiry in your own classroom, there are some simple steps you might employ. Critical among those steps might be reading self-studies (see, for example, Berry, 2007; Freese, 2006; Hamilton, 2001; Pereira, 2005; Senese, 2002; Tidwell, 2002) and familiarizing yourself with strategies used in qualitative research (using on-line journals like Qualitative Report; or a journal like Qualitative Studies in Education, or texts like Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

More importantly, we encourage you to make explicit those thoughts, concerns, questions you have about your teaching in the form of journaling or a comparable strategy. The process of making the implicit explicit is not the simple recording of events and thoughts. It also involves making connections among the theories you have read, the perspectives you have developed, the interactions you observed in your own classrooms, and the actions you have taken. How these ideas fit, or do not fit, becomes a part of your inquiry process.

To undertake the self-study of your teaching practices you want to: (1) record your experiences as explicitly as you can, (2) connect your experiences with writings and/or research literature you have read, (3) focus your attention on elements of your practice that you wish to explore, (4) write up your work as you deepen your understanding of your practice, and (5) share your ideas publicly with colleagues. The self-study of teaching practices pivots on three elements – to improve practice, to enhance learning, and to contribute to knowledge about teaching. For Bullough and Pinnegar (2001), self-study work becomes research when 'it is connected through evidence and analysis to the issues and troubles of a time and place. . . . When biography and history are joined, when the issue confronted by the self is shown to have relationship to and bearing on the context and ethos of a time, then self-study moves to research. It is the balance between the way in which private experience can provide insight and solution for public issues and troubles and the way in which public theory can provide insight and solution for private trial that forms the nexus of self-study and simultaneously presents the central challenge to those who would work in this emerging area' (Bullough and Pinnegar, 2001, p. 14).

Attendance at conferences and seminars can facilitate the public sharing of your work. Presenting your work for critique and consideration can help develop your ideas and help you explore your teaching process and your research activity. Further, involvement in groups like the Self-Study of Teaching Practices Special Interest Group of the American Educational Research Association can provide support. There is also a journal, *Studying Teacher Education* that publishes the self-study research undertaken by teachers and teacher educators. Engagement in any of these possibilities can strengthen your work as a teacher educator.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter we have advocated for the self-study of teaching practices, the *somehow* of teaching, as a tool in the development as a teacher educator. Using personal examples of our own self-study work as well as an example of bringing self-study beyond personal scrutiny to contribute to the knowledge base of teacher educators, we brought together issues to underscore the value of self-study. As a personal tool or as a tool to publicly contribute to the work of teacher education scholars, we assert that self-study can be a valuable tool in the development of a teacher educator. Self-study of teaching practices can be research for the individual teacher or can be shared with others to expand the knowledge base of teaching and learning.

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Useful Websites

Qualitative Report, http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/
Qualitative Studies in Education, http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/tf/09518398.html

Introduction and Overview

Introduction

Teacher education has been the subject of intense political debate in many countries for many decades. At national and international levels, the pressure on teacher education to educate sufficient and highly qualified teachers is increasing. Being a teacher is regarded as a complex and demanding profession, and teacher education is seen as the key to better-qualified teachers who are able to educate pupils and students for the demands of the 21st century (OECD, 2005). However, policy makers do not give much attention to teacher educators as a distinct professional group and the induction and professional development of teacher educators are marginal topics on today's political agenda of most countries.

Compared to the amount of research on teachers and their work (see e.g., Day, Fernandez, Hauge, & Møller, 2000; Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996; Huberman 1993; Loughran & Kelchtermans, 2006), the studies about teacher educators are limited in number (see for exceptions, e.g., Ducharme, 1993; Loughran & Russell, 2002; Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007; Zeichner, 2005). Even less has been published about beginning teacher educators and their induction into the profession (Murray, 2008; Van Velzen, Van der Klink, Swennen, & Yaffe, 2008). As far as research findings are available, they all point to significant problems teachers and academics have to overcome in the process of becoming teacher educators (Murray & Male, 2005; Smith, 2005). Beginning teacher educators experience high levels of stress and insecurity during the first years in their new profession. The induction of teacher educators encompasses two levels – becoming a member of the teacher education institution (organisational induction) and becoming a member of the profession (professional induction). In this book, we focus mainly on the second level, the level of professional induction. As far as we know, there is no book that aims to introduce beginning teacher educators into the profession of teacher education. With this book, we intend to redress this omission.

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Introduction and Overview

Introduction

Teacher education has been the subject of intense political debate in many countries for many decades. At national and international levels, the pressure on teacher education to educate sufficient and highly qualified teachers is increasing. Being a teacher is regarded as a complex and demanding profession, and teacher education is seen as the key to better-qualified teachers who are able to educate pupils and students for the demands of the 21st century (OECD, 2005). However, policy makers do not give much attention to teacher educators as a distinct professional group and the induction and professional development of teacher educators are marginal topics on today's political agenda of most countries.

Compared to the amount of research on teachers and their work (see e.g., Day, Fernandez, Hauge, & Møller, 2000; Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996; Huberman 1993; Loughran & Kelchtermans, 2006), the studies about teacher educators are limited in number (see for exceptions, e.g., Ducharme, 1993; Loughran & Russell, 2002; Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007; Zeichner, 2005). Even less has been published about beginning teacher educators and their induction into the profession (Murray, 2008; Van Velzen, Van der Klink, Swennen, & Yaffe, 2008). As far as research findings are available, they all point to significant problems teachers and academics have to overcome in the process of becoming teacher educators (Murray & Male, 2005; Smith, 2005). Beginning teacher educators experience high levels of stress and insecurity during the first years in their new profession. The induction of teacher educators encompasses two levels – becoming a member of the teacher education institution (organisational induction) and becoming a member of the profession (professional induction). In this book, we focus mainly on the second level, the level of professional induction. As far as we know, there is no book that aims to introduce beginning teacher educators into the profession of teacher education. With this book, we intend to redress this omission.

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A Book for Beginning Teacher Educators

The main readers of *Becoming a Teacher Educator* are the beginning teacher educators. This book offers an introduction into various aspects of the work of teacher educators, and we hope that it will inspire teacher educators to reflect on a variety of theories and approaches and that it will encourage them to apply these in their own practice. This book may also be of interest to more experienced teacher educators who want to keep informed about the latest insights and relevant issues of the work of teacher educators. Especially those teacher educators who have responsibilities for the induction and mentoring of newly appointed colleagues will find this a useful and constructive book. *Becoming a Teacher Educator* may also be a source of information for researchers and consultants in the emerging field of professional development of teacher educators.

Many teacher educators have been former teachers, in primary or secondary schools, or academics. In both the cases, their induction can be regarded as second-phase induction (see Chapter 7) in which each group has its own specific needs. Academics have to be inducted in to the specific knowledge base and practice of education, while former teachers have to become acquainted with the demands of higher education, including doing research. This book aims at both experienced teachers and academics who become teacher educators.

A Book of Practitioners and Researchers in Teacher Education

This book is grounded in the Association of Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE). The ATEE was founded in 1975 and has developed into an active organisation with a clear mission: 'The ATEE aims to enhance the quality of Teacher Education in Europe through active dialogue and international exchange of research and practice in initial and in-service teacher education' (see www.atee1.org). Characteristics of the ATEE are the twenty so-called Research and Development Centres (RDCs). RDCs are permanent working groups, which together cover the most important aspects of teacher education, like curriculum development, in-service learning and diversity in teacher education.

At the ATEE 2004 annual conference in Agrigento, a new RDC 'Professional Development of Teacher Educators' (see http://pdte.macam.ac.il/) was founded by the editors of this book. During the first meetings, the members of this RDC investigated important issues concerning teacher educators, and one of the main problems that all participants recognised was the absence of formal support during the first years in teacher education and the lack of information for beginning teacher educators about their new and complex profession. A year later, after some initial research (see Van Velzen et al., 2008), it was decided to write a book for beginning teacher educators. We invited the members of ATEE, especially the chairs of the RDCs, to contribute to this book and as everybody acknowledged the importance of a book for their new colleagues, many members agreed to participate in this project.

Participating authors are distinguished practitioners and researchers who work as teacher educators in various teacher education institutions throughout Europe, Israel, USA and Australia. Like most teacher educators, the authors of the chapters combine various tasks: they teach and supervise student teachers, are involved in the professional development of teachers and teacher educators and many are involved in research and national and international projects.

From the very beginning, it was our aim to publish a book that acknowledges not only the West or North European views and practices on teacher education, as so often is the case, but also represents the views and practices commonly held in East and South Europe. To guarantee this broad representation, the team of authors of each chapter consists of at least one author from an Eastern or Southern European country. The collaboration between authors from different cultural and educational backgrounds was a challenge as their experiences with and ideas about teaching and teacher education sometimes differed significantly, but the combined efforts of these divers groups of authors created this book that has a true international scope.

Who Are the Teacher Educators?

Although the names 'teacher education' and 'teacher educator' are commonly used in the literature, it is not easy to give a meaningful description of these notions. In this book, we use a broad definition:

> Teacher educators are those teachers in higher education and in schools who are formally involved in pre-service and in-service teacher education.

This means that those who work (full-time or part-time) in teacher education institutes, whether these are colleges or faculties of education, or in schools and are involved in teaching and supervising student teachers are teacher educators. This also means that those who are involved in the professional development of teachers are regarded as teacher educators in this book, although their work may differ from teacher educators who work in initial teacher education (see for example, Chapter 5).

At the start of this project, we realised that ideas, traditions and meanings of educational concepts, like teacher education and teacher educator, differ significantly between the various European regions and we discussed extensively the notion of 'teacher educator'. In some countries, the name 'teacher educator' is not used and those working in teacher education are called 'lecturer' or 'teacher trainer'. In our view, 'teacher trainer' refers to more technical and instrumental aspects of learning and teaching and excludes essential aspects of the profession of teacher educators. Educating teachers is, as many chapters in this book show, a complex and demanding job and teacher educators need to be both academics and highly skilled practitioners. For this book, therefore, we choose to use the names 'teacher education' and 'teacher educator'. In some chapters, however, other names are used that are specific for a particular national context, which cannot be changed without losing its meaning in the context. These alternative names reflect the various views

and practices of teacher education in different countries, and as they offer no real problems in understanding the chapters, we have decided to leave them unaltered.

Many teacher educators have been teachers in primary and secondary education, and when they become teacher educators, they have to make the transition from teacher to teacher educator. Murray and Male make a useful distinction between first order and second-order teachers. First order teachers teach their subject to their pupils and students, while second-order teachers 'induct their students into the practices and discourses of the school and of teacher education' (Murray & Male, 2005, p. 126). Teacher educators are second-order teachers in the sense that they teach about teaching and being second-order practitioners is an important characteristic of teacher educators. As teachers of teacher, the teacher educators are always model for their student teachers as their views and theories are reflected in their own teaching practice.

Structure and Contents of the Book

This book consists of four sections and an epilogue in which we describe what we learned from the chapters of this book and the conversations with the authors. The first part consists of five chapters that give an introduction into the changing context of teacher education. The second part contains two contributions about the first years of beginning teacher educators in which they have to make the, sometimes difficult, transition from teacher or academic into teacher educator. The third part informs the readers about various aspects of the teacher educators' daily work with student teachers, like diversity, teaching and learning styles, reflection and assessment of student teachers. The final part of the book is dedicated to the teacher educators as researchers. In the two contributions, the authors emphasis the importance for teacher educators to engage in research that helps them to understand and improve their own work with student teachers, like action research and self-study research.

Changing Contexts of Teacher Education

Chapter 1 'Initial teacher education in Europe, main characteristics and developments' written by Marco Snoek and Irēna Žogla offers an introduction into the various systems, content and pedagogy of teacher education in Europe. They describe differences and similarities between European countries and pay attention to efforts of the European Committee to further develop a teacher education policy on a European level.

Chapter 2, 'Understanding teacher educators' work and identities', written by Jean Murray, Anja Swennen and Leah Shagrir, provides in-depth information on teacher education and the roles and positions of teacher educators. The chapter starts with addressing some contextual factors, followed by detailed descriptions of teacher educator's daily work in England, Israel and the Netherlands.

Michal Golan and Göran Fransson discuss the ethical aspects of becoming and being a teacher educator in Chapter 3. The authors provide examples of ethical

issues in teacher education and emphasise the need to raise teacher educators' awareness of ethical issues. Starting points for the development of ethical competency are provided.

In Chapter 4, Corinne van Velzen, Christopher Bezzina and Peter Lorist present examples of partnerships between schools and teacher education institutes. The authors emphasise the merits of school-based teacher education, such as the possibilities to diminish the gap between theory and practice.

Chapter 5 is written by experienced in-service educators or, as they prefer to call themselves, in-service learning facilitators. Göran Fransson, Jaap van Lakerveld and Valdek Rohtma elaborate on the issue of being a skilled and knowledgeable partners who support the professional development of teachers and schools. They describe the characteristics of the work of in-service learning facilitators, the competences that these facilitators need to acquire and the way to develop as in-service learning facilitators.

Induction of Teacher Educators

Chapter 6 concerns the transition process of teacher educators who have been former schoolteachers. Anja Swennen, Leah Shagrir and Maxine Cooper present stories of beginning teacher educators and describe the problems and joys teacher educators face during their first years in teacher education.

Åsa Morberg and Eve Eisenschmidt introduce the concept of 'second-phase induction' in Chapter 7. Most beginning teacher educators experienced a first induction phase when they started working as a schoolteacher or an academic. When they enter teacher education, they are again confronted with the problems of the beginner in a new context. The authors present the common second-phase induction practices in their own countries, Sweden and Estonia, and offer ideas and recommendations to improve current induction practices at universities.

Aspects of the Work of Teacher Educators

This section covers a number of aspects teacher educators are confronted with during their daily work.

Diversity is the theme of Chapter 8 written by Geri Smyth and Paul Bartolo. Their chapter clarifies the concept of diversity and addresses the issue of how teacher educators can help to prepare teachers to work effectively with a diverse pupil population and also how to respond appropriately to an increasingly diverse student teacher population.

In Chapter 9, Tatjana Tubić and Kamile Hamiloğlu examine students' learning styles, the teaching styles of teacher educators and the possible match between them. Their classifications based on their own research will increase readers' awareness of the necessity to respond adequately to student teachers' differences in learning styles.

In Chapter 10, Jennifer Harrison and Elka Yaffe discuss the need of reflective practices. They examine how teacher educators can support student teachers' reflection and how teacher educators themselves can become engaged in reflective practice. Drawing on their own research experiences, they discuss approaches that support high-quality reflection. The chapter concludes with some practical recommendations and actions to support beginning teacher educators.

How to prepare and support student teachers in their teaching practice at schools is the topic of Chapter 11. Christopher Bezzina and Joanna Michalak present a case and outline recommendations for a collegial and collaborative environment that allows participation of student teachers, teacher educators and schools.

Chapter 12 addresses new views on assessment. Judith Gulikers, Dominique Sluijsmans, Liesbeth Baartman and Paul Bartolo elaborate on three challenges teacher educators face when developing assessments. The authors advocate the use of authentic assessments, active participation of student teachers in assessments and the use of criteria to evaluate the quality of new forms of assessment.

Teacher Educators as Researchers

In Chapter 13, Kay Livingston, Jim McCall and Margarida Morgado offer views on research of teacher education that are both helpful to improve the work of teacher educators and grounded in the tradition of educational research.

Mary Lynn Hamilton, John Loughran and Maria Inês Marcondes are distinguished teacher educators and researchers who are involved in self-study of teacher educators. In Chapter 14, they present their theoretical insights about self-study as well as their extensive experience with this type of research. Their chapter will inspire teacher educators who want to investigate their own work to get involved in self-study with their colleagues and enter a community of teacher educators who are passionate about their profession.

Epilogue: Enhancing the Quality of Teacher Educators

Anja Swennen and Marcel van der Klink review the chapters of this book by reflecting on two themes: the induction of beginning teacher educators and the professional development of teacher educators. Their epilogue concludes with an outline of the major challenges teacher educators face to enhance their profession.

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Epilogue: Enhancing the Profession of Teacher Educators

Anja Swennen and Marcel van der Klink

Introduction

The main purpose of this book is to act as a source for beginning teacher educators in their first years of teacher education. Every book has its limitations, and we are well aware of the fact that we have not covered all of the issues that are important for beginning teacher educators in this text. Of course, we also realise that a book can never replace formal induction and the informal support of colleagues; a book is a resource, not a solution.

In this epilogue, we discuss what we have learned from the chapters as we have edited and assembled them and we reflect on the implications of this book for teacher educators. In so doing, we focus on the two main themes: the induction of beginning teacher educators and the professional development of teacher educators. We discuss three challenges for teacher educators, and we give examples of initiatives that might be useful for teacher educators. Finally, we offer some suggestions for future research.

Induction of Teacher Educators

If one message stands out for us as clear from the chapters about induction, it is that beginning teacher educators experience their induction as stressful, isolated and fragmented and that formal induction of teacher educators is scarce. This situation is unacceptable because the quality of teachers relies to a great extend on the quality of the education they receive and, therefore, on the quality of their teacher educators. If teachers and academics who start to work as teacher educators, have to expand their identity from teacher to teacher educator and become second-order teachers (Murray & Male, 2005; see also Chapters 6 and 7), then beginning teacher educators must be given the support to develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes they need to become second-order teachers. The shift from teacher to teacher educator is not just a shift from one educational workplace to another; being a teacher educator is

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a distinct educational profession that demands sufficient attention and resources for induction and further professional development (see, e.g., Swennen, Volman, & Van Essen, 2008).

We see that the induction of teacher educators needs to be addressed on several levels. The first level is the national and European level. Although Chapter 1 shows that educational policies and systems differ significantly across Europe, there is no country that has a comprehensive policy on the induction or professional development of teacher educators. Israel seems to be the only exception. The MOFET institute is, as far as we know, the only institute in the world that is specialised in the induction and professional development of teacher educators and may be an example for other countries that wish to develop the profession of teacher educators.

The second level is the level of the teacher education institutes. Overlooking the research on the induction of teacher educators (e.g. Murray, 2008) and practices there seems to be little formal induction on the level of teacher education institutes to assure an effective, efficient and smooth transition of new staff members into the profession of teacher educator. However, we notice that the interest in the induction of teacher educators is growing. An example is the development of guidelines for newly appointed teacher educators within the United Kingdom that may be adapted by institutes to support their own beginning teacher educators (Boyd, Harris, & Murray, 2007).

The third level is the level of the teacher educators. What do beginning teacher educators need to develop professionally? They may need coherent courses on themes such as discussed in this book, like assessment, reflection or diversity in teacher education. But, more importantly, they will benefit from the mentoring and supervision provided by experienced teacher educators or colleagues who specialise in the professional development of teacher educators. From Chapters 6 and 7, we learn that activities that encourage collaboration with colleagues, like team teaching, co-teaching and collaboration in curriculum and research projects, are highly appreciated.

Associations for teacher educators, such as the Association of Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) can, and should, play an important role in supporting beginning teacher educators. These associations could do more to attract beginning teacher educators and provide information useful for new colleagues. An example of this is the initiative of the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON). Members of the VELON wrote a book for beginning teacher educators (in Dutch) (Gommers et al., 2005), and each year a highly successful study day is organised for beginning teacher educators.

Professional Development of Teacher Educators

Chapters 8 to 12 deal with various issues that are of interest to teacher educators. These chapters mirror the variation in tasks and topics with which beginning teacher educators are confronted. In these chapters, the authors often refer to the fact that

teacher educators not only have to respond to certain issues, such as diversity or learning styles, and master them at their own level, but also have to be able to model them to their student teachers and that they should teach as they preach. As second-order teachers (Murray & Male, 2005), teacher educators teach their student teachers how to teach in diverse classrooms and as models they model teaching, which is responsive to diverse groups of student teachers. Modelling is a central aspect of the work of teachers who teach teachers and a complex skill that requires both a deep understanding of teaching and of oneself as teacher educator: 'Modelling should be conceptualized as: embracing the possibilities for critique and interrogation in learning about teacher experiences, no matter how they arise; be planned or unplanned. Modelling of this form means that teaching itself is continually being questioned so that both the subtleties and complexities might be viewed and reviewed in order to shed light on pedagogical reasoning, thoughts and actions' (Loughran, 2006, p. 39, see also Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007). However, the research on how teacher educators can model their teaching is limited.

The knowledge about teaching teachers is still highly fragmented, and teacher educators are in need of a more comprehensive pedagogy of teacher education. The theoretical basis for that which might be described as a pedagogy for teacher education is developing (see, e.g., Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006), but it takes time and effort to implement these ideas and empower teacher educators to develop their understanding and practice of pedagogy, especially if it is to be useful in their own day-to-day work with student teachers as opposed to some form of defined curriculum for teacher education.

In several chapters, the authors describe the policy on teaching and teacher education in their own country or on the European level. It is obvious that national governments and the European Union need to be committed to strengthen education and enhance the profession of teacher educators. In many documents, teacher education is mentioned as a crucial factor in the improvement of teaching and teachers. However, these documents focus on primary, secondary or higher education in general, but on teacher education only when it comes to levels of teacher education and degrees of teachers. There is even less attention for teacher educators. See, for example, the latest document Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament entitled 'Improving the quality of teacher education', which contains just one sentence about the quality of teacher educators: 'Those responsible for educating teachers (and for educating teacher educators) should possess practical experience of classroom teaching and have attained a very high standard in the skills, attitudes and competences demanded of teachers' (Improving the quality of teacher education, 2007).

In this Communication, good teacher educators equal good teachers. There is no reference to other qualities of teacher educators that are needed to be good teachers of teachers and the high standards of knowledge and skills needed to support the development of future teachers. Neither does this Communication acknowledge teacher educators as academics who are involved in research that may improve teacher education and their own work as teacher educators. Striking is the mentioning of educators of teacher educators in the fragment; it would be very interesting

and useful to try to identify persons who bear the responsibility for the professional development of teacher educators and to describe their qualities as educators of teacher educators.

From working on this book and the discussion with the authors and members of the Research and Development Centre (RDC) 'Professional Development of Teacher Educators', we have noticed that the views of teacher educators from various parts of the world differ and this is reflected in the language they use to talk and write about the aspects of their work. We welcome this diversity of views, opinions and words because it creates new possibilities for discussions and adaptation of one's own national and idiosyncratic ideas. But the diversity also means that the knowledge base of teacher education is not necessarily strong or identifiable and that teacher educators, and those who are involved in professional development of teacher educators, have to extend this knowledge base and develop a shared language of teacher educators.

Challenges for Teacher Educators

In common with other professionals, teacher educators need to continuously develop and invest in their skills and knowledge in order to be able to teach and supervise future teachers and collaborate with students, colleagues, schoolteachers as well as find their way in the context of their own institute, the larger educational context and the political context. If as a profession, teacher educators want to be taken more seriously (within academia, the political arena and society in general), we need to take a critical look at ourselves. In this section, we discuss some of the challenges for teacher educators.

The first challenge for teacher educators is that they acknowledge their autonomous professionalism as teachers of teachers and other stakeholders, including policy makers and education authorities, recognise this professionalism. The profession of teacher educators could benefit from standards being developed within, and by, the community of teacher educators. We do not imply by this the imposition of top-down implemented tools that lack any significant involvement of professionals themselves; as professionals, this need to be autonomous and professionally responsible to itself is crucial. The Standards of the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators and the Standards for Master Teacher Educators of the American Association of Teacher Education are discussed in Chapter 2, and these standards and the process of developing them may serve as an example for other groups of teacher educators (see also Koster & Dengerink, 2008). The development of standards may be a means of empowering teacher educators when teacher educators as a group, on national or international level, develop their own standards and as such define the quality of their own profession. We suggest that standards encourage teacher educators to reflect on their current performance and further development. A result of this reflection will be that teacher educators develop a shared language, which makes it possible to communicate more easily with each other and other stakeholders. In Chapter 3, a professional code of conduct for teacher educators is presented. Highly recognised professions, such as Medicine or Law, have codes of conduct and the means to

stimulate their members to work according to those codes. A code of conduct for teacher educators may serve the same means as a standard for teacher educators.

The second challenge is to ensure a more comprehensive programme for the professional development of teacher educators. The lack of attention for beginning teacher educators is not an isolated problem but mirrors the wider problem that few teacher education institutes have elaborated and transparent human resource development policies that support teacher educators throughout their careers. To remain a professional in the long run means that teacher educators have to be encouraged to attend courses and workshops, participate in innovative work activities, engage in research and actively contribute to the further development of the profession. Professionalism is too crucial to remain unattended to by the management of the teacher education institute. It demands an active involvement of teacher educators as well as the management of teacher education institutes.

The third challenge is for teacher educators to become more engaged in research as a means of professional development. In many countries, teacher education is embedded in universities and teacher educators are obliged to become engaged in research activities and publishing. Teacher educators who worked as schoolteachers are often required to gain a research degree. In some countries, opportunities to become engaged in research activities for beginning and experienced teacher educators are limited due to insufficient resources and an underdeveloped research culture. For many teacher educators, research is perceived as something remote, difficult and not immediately applicable to their own teaching. Chapters 13 and 14 emphasise, however, that there are many ways of becoming engaged in meaningful research and the importance of so doing. Action research, self-study and design-based research are the examples of how research can contribute to the improvement of the work of teacher educators.

Suggestions for Research

As research about the induction of teacher educators is limited, it would be very useful for teacher educators and researchers to engage in research about the needs of beginning teacher educators, the way in which teacher educators prefer to learn and what expert teacher educators and heads of teacher education institutes consider they need to learn. We do not imply that the development of induction programmes for teacher educators has to be postponed until the results of research are available. On the contrary, within the research programmes, induction schemes can be developed and evaluated. As important as research about beginning teacher educators is giving beginning teacher educators the opportunity to engage in research, in a group of other beginners and/or with experienced colleagues.

We would also welcome research on various aspects of the work of teacher educators to find answers to questions like what do teacher educators do? How do they do (certain aspects of) their work? How can they model effectively? And, how do they manage the complexity of their work?

We would like to emphasise the international opportunities to become research-active. Associations, like ATEE with its RDCs, the European Education Research Association (EERA) that organises the annual ECER conference and American Educational Research Association (AERA) with its many special interest groups (SIGs), offer easily accessible and welcoming opportunities to become involved in various ways, ranging from visitor to key person at conferences, conducting, presenting and publishing research. Involvement in international networks offers the opportunity to engage in projects and research with colleagues from different parts of Europe, and beyond. An example of a network of teacher educators is the RDC on 'Professional Development of Teacher educators' of the ATEE. The members of this RDC are involved in various projects like research on the induction of beginning teacher educators (see Van Velzen et al., 2008), special issues of the *European Journal of Teacher Education* and this book. Another interesting network for teacher educators is the SIG of the AERA 'Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices' (S-Step). Three members of S-Step wrote Chapter 14, and S-Step offers an international platform for teacher educators who research their own practice.

These challenges demonstrate that much effort is needed from all involved in teacher education to enhance the profession of teacher educators. We also described some initiatives that are important to the community of teacher educators. Being engaged in these activities could help to develop individual teacher educators and the profession of teacher educators as a whole.

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Useful Websites

The website of the MOFET institute: http://www.mofet.macam.ac.il
Guidelines for newly appointed teacher educators: http://escalate.ac.uk/3662
The website of the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators: http://www.velon.nl
The website of the American Educational Research Association: http://www.aera.net
The website of the RDC on 'Professional Development of Teacher educators' of the ATEE: http://pdte.macam.ac.il
The website of the SIG of the AERA 'Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices' (S-Step): http://web.ku.edu/sstep
Communication from the commission to the council and the European parliament entitled 'Improving the quality of teacher education' (2007). Brussels: Commission of the European Communities: http://ec.europa.eu/education/com392_en.pdf

Text back of book 'Becoming a Teacher Educator'

Anja Swennen and Marcel van der Klink

Becoming a Teacher Educator is essential reading for novice teacher educators. The book provides insights, models and examples for both experienced schoolteachers and academics who want to understand the complex field of teacher education and the various tasks and roles of teacher educators. It is a source of information for teacher educators during their induction.

Becoming a Teacher Educator is an important book for experienced teacher educators who want to be informed about the developments in their profession. The book consists of four parts: Changing contexts of teacher education, Induction of teacher educators, Aspects of the work of teacher educators and Teacher educators as researchers.

The book also provides an excellent guide for those who supervise novice teacher educators, and for various professionals who bear responsibility for the professional development of teacher educators.

Becoming a Teacher Educator is rooted in the Association of Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) and many of the chapters are written by authors who are active members of the ATEE. Distinguished researchers and practitioners from different parts of Europe, and beyond, joined their efforts to write a book that is truly international and combines research, practice and reflection.

> *"There is a growing need for evidence-based resources made available to (future) teacher educators. Since a learning society requires new sets of competencies of the main actors, we are most in want of knowledgeable teacher educators that support the professional development of their (student) teachers. This book fits the actual demands."* (Dr. Joost Lowyck, Professor Emeritus, former director of the Teacher Education Institute, Leuven University).

> *"This is an original book in a very important area. The editors define the concept of 'teacher educator' widely and I think, therefore, that the book is relevant for schools, higher education, and education authorities of all kinds. The authorship and theme have wide relevance across Europe, Australasia and North America."* (Prof. Bob Moon, Professor in Education Teaching Studies, Department of Education, Open University, UK).

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