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Chapter

LOOKING FORWARD: HONOURING THE PAST AND CHANGING THE PRESENT TO CREATE OUR FUTURE

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ABSTRACT

This chapter considers what we have learned from the book and identifies some key issues that might need to be considered in the future. It starts by providing the author's personal history of how teacher education has changed over the time that ICET has been in existence, with a focus on its shift from a craft-based activity to a research-led profession, identifying some of the issues that arose during this journey. It uses the example of standards for school leadership and associated training programs as a way of explaining how different parts of the world judge excellence and how Neo-Liberal Public Management policies have changed the lives of teachers, school leaders and teacher educators as well. The chapter argues that such policies try to simplify what is a very complex process and in doing so have created a situation where fewer high school graduates want to become teachers and even fewer teachers wish to lead schools. The Scottish and Canadian examples are used as a means of demonstrating attempts to improve teacher education using collaboration rather than accountability measures and flags the possibility that there might be common elements of teacher education preparation that go beyond both time and location and that future exploration of a global approach might be something that ICET is well positioned to do in the future.

Keywords: changes in teacher education, standards, teacher and school leader preparation, teacher crisis, craft based versus research-driven

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This book contains a remarkable overview of teacher education and the issues associated with improving it. Not only does it contain chapters from eleven separate countries in all the inhabited continents of the world, but it also covers all the possible areas that encompass our understanding of teacher education, considering on the one hand the broad dimensions of policy, practice and research, but also the more specific dimensions of recruitment, pre-service training, professional development, leadership and developing teachers as researchers. In the background, the role of the International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET) has been a consistent presence for more than six decades, contributing not only to the ongoing development of international partnerships aimed at improving the quality of teacher education, and thus the quality of teachers, from a time way before internationalisation and globalisation became buzzwords made easy by technology, but also by demonstrating the range of research being undertaken by its members, who are the authors of the chapters of this text. In this way it can be argued that ICET has contributed to teacher education in virtually every aspect of its study and development for more than half a century, a claim that can rarely be argued by other international organisations.

So how has the past shaped the present? Perhaps a little bit of personal history might help to illuminate just exactly how far we have come and how much we have to celebrate. When ICET was being formed, I was just starting my second year of primary school in Melbourne, in the state of Victoria in Australia. To be trained as a primary school teacher in those times, only one year of study was required, as it had been for more than 50 years. There had been official teacher's colleges in the capital cities, as times had moved on from the previous century where the majority of teachers learned by watching other teachers work. However, the "emphasis on the 'craft of teaching' that characterised the work of teacher training colleges in Australia from the turn of the century until the late 1980s" was still very much the underlying rationale for the range of curriculum areas being provided. Teaching was a 'calling' (Shultz, 1923) and it was the role of the college "to extend the skills, personal qualities and capacities of student teachers and to nurture the teacher in preparation for entry into the profession of teaching. (Apsland, 2006, p. 147) In the early days both primary and secondary teachers were trained together and was the responsibility of teacher training colleges. Since universal secondary education was not available in Australia until after World War 2 (Burke & Spaul, 2001, online) the few high schools available in each state did not meet the burgeoning demand of students moving beyond a primary education (or as it was at that time, a compulsory education until the age of 12). In my case, in order to get into my nearest secondary school, I had to first spend two years in a central school, which was a primary school plus two extra years, which in the past had been the extent of secondary education for many students, but now was a sort of holding pattern because the high schools were not large enough to take everyone who wanted to go. So every morning I caught a tram past my eventual high school and on for another 15 minutes to get to the central school. The idea of walking to school (which the government argued was the case for 90% of Victoria's primary students) was now well beyond reach.

By the time I left secondary school and entered Burwood Teachers' College to become a primary school teacher, the minimum certification had moved from one year to two. However, as Apsland points out "an investigation of the literature at that time suggests that teacher development was still craft oriented with the curriculum more concerned with teaching methods and content than with the promotion of the on-going personal-professional qualities of the trainees." (Apsland, 2006, p. 147) A central component of the learning process

was the extended “teaching rounds,” periods of four weeks or more out in the schools that would eventually become our workplaces. These were designed to gradually increase the responsibilities of the student teacher until they were able to take a whole class by themselves for a period of a week or more. Every teaching student had to spend at least one of these teaching rounds, of at least two weeks, in one of Victoria’s many rural schools, schools that may have had fewer than 50 students and perhaps 2 or 3 teachers in small towns across the state. My rural experience was in a single teacher school, where the teacher not only taught the 14 students, all at different grade levels, but was the principal of the school (although the demands of leadership were somewhat smaller when you were also the only teacher) and was also required to take on a variety of local community responsibilities, coaching the football, basketball or cricket team if you were sport oriented, or organising the annual art show or directing at the local theatre if you weren’t.

It was around this time when micro-teaching became popular, with Professor Cliff Turney from the Sydney University leading the way, with videos and documents that maintained the perception that teaching was a craft to be learned through the teaching of discrete skills. I remember my time studying at Teachers’ College fondly, not only because of the wonderful professors that encouraged me to go beyond what I thought I could do, but also demonstrated their commitment to the holistic development of their students by organising and managing excursions and extended tours both within the state and beyond. Others were actively involved in coaching various sporting teams or directing or supporting musical comedies presented publicly in Melbourne, but were also used to raise funds for a bush hospital as well. There was even one half day set aside each week for extra-curricular activity, sports, or clubs, or other activities. Many of the faculty were only two year qualified themselves but had demonstrated excellent teaching skills that could be passed on. There was no expectation that they would be involved in research of any kind. Some were, but that was only likely to occur if people were studying for a higher degree, and only very few were. Research was seen as being important, but it was something done by other people who worked in universities. These researchers passed the latest knowledge on to Teachers’ College faculty and they passed it on to the students. It was in fact an apprenticeship that reflected all of the demands we would face when we eventually left college and took up a position at a school. All of this occurred at a time when the State Government needed teachers, hundreds of them, to support new demands, to the extent that not only were we given a free education, but we were paid a stipend as well, on the proviso that we taught for three years after graduation in return. As I look back now and think of the students today who spend all of their time working, either on their studies or in part time (or sometimes full time) jobs so they can afford to go to university in the first place, this is one of the parts of our history that I think we should have held onto. I had graduated with just a two year teaching diploma, but so, so much more.

After completing my training and spending some years teaching (and finishing my bachelor’s degree while doing so) I found myself back in the teacher education system in 1975. My Bachelor’s degree (plus my teaching credentials) was all I needed to get employed as a teacher educator, first moving to South Australia for a year and then moving back to Victoria to the Frankston State College (as the name suggests, teacher education was an activity funded by the states). By now two year diplomas had become three year diplomas and teacher training institutions had been transformed. Although some of the remnants of my own experience remained (such as the annual musical comedy), these relied upon fewer and fewer

of the old brigade, and gradually died out as these mentors retired with no one to replace them. Timetables became more complex and so having a whole afternoon left free for sport or other extra-curricular activities became harder and harder and eventually disappeared. We started to have students come and ask for extensions to assignments because they had to work to pay for their studies and sometimes work even took priority over everything else, after all the employer paid, so had to be obeyed. Gradually over the years, the one or two students who had to work became the one or two students who were not working. Teaching rounds, which had totalled more than 100 days back in the 1970s, became fewer and fewer to the point where by then end of the 1990s only 35 days in a school was the registration requirement. In the 1980s there were three different sets of higher education institutions, universities, Colleges of Advanced Education (including Institutes of Technology), both of which were mostly funded by the federal government and Technical and Further Education Colleges (TAFEs) that were funded by states. My teacher education institution amalgamated with the larger, more diversified, Caulfield Institute of Technology to become Chisholm Institute, and teacher education, which had previously been the sole reason for the existence of my institution, became only one of many things that the institution did. Now teacher education had to fight for its budget internally rather than being allocated an amount direct from the state government. This brought about a change in the nature of the teacher education program as well and by now a four year degree in education (or a three year degree plus a one year education diploma) became the requirement for employment. No longer was an undergraduate degree sufficient for employment as a teacher educator. New appointments required at least a masters' degree in education (and preferably a doctoral degree) and those that were already within the institution (sometimes with 20 or more years of experience) were now expected to upgrade their qualifications. During this time many of those that had seen teacher education as a craft to be passed on from one generation to the next, passed on themselves, and a new generation of more highly qualified people, with specialist qualifications in the subjects they taught, took their place. Research in teacher education was now seen as something that was not only useful for the individual teacher educator, but necessary because it was something that might be considered when you were applying for promotion. The teacher education institutions were much more academically inclined, looked, behaved and taught courses that were more like those at universities, they were much more intensely focused, but faculty were still seen as only training day to day practitioners rather than reflective professionals that saw ongoing professional development as part of their own work.

Again in the 1990s the institution was amalgamated, this time with Monash University, as part of the then federal government's Unified National System of Higher Education. Two key elements of this change are critical for our understanding of how teacher education has changed dramatically. The first element was to dispense with the Tertiary Education Commission, which had acted as a buffer between the federal government and individual institutions, so now higher education institutions became independent and had to argue their own cases for funding directly with the federal government. The second change was to eliminate all Colleges of Advanced Education by either amalgamating them with existing universities or by establishing them as universities themselves. So currently in Australia there are 40 public universities (plus 2 international and 1 private), together with a system of state funded TAFEs. For both universities and TAFEs, however, the proportion of each institution's budget funded by government has decreased substantially over the past decades,

something that seems to be happening at the international level as well. My previous Dean, in the USA, made the case that his “state” university had moved from something that could be argued as being “state funded” to being currently “state supported” and seemed to be rapidly on the road to becoming “state ignored” and maybe even “state abandoned,” as funding dwindled from the 80% levels to something like 30% over a three decade period. Clearly this trend changed staffing levels as well as the types of programs that could be offered. The practicum was one area that suffered.

Being amalgamated into a university culture has seen the importance of research being realised, not only in terms of having a much better qualified group of people teaching in the program, but also with the university expectation that people involved in teacher education will be involved in research themselves, as a matter of course. Now the expectation is that new people being employed into teacher education will have a doctorate, will have specialist skills and will be able to use those skills to establish a research agenda that generates income for the institution. This has created all sorts of problems for people who may have lived through a different tradition. There are still those in teacher education that see their task as spending all of their time either teaching, supporting or supervising their students in schools and this conflicts with others who see this as only part of their work and are demanding sufficient time to undertake the research activities that a university culture demands. There is some evidence to suggest that universities see teacher education as a cash cow, using the large numbers of teacher education students to generate funds that are then spent in other ways. (Dinham, 2013) This may lead to teacher education professors teaching more than their counterparts in other faculties, and having less opportunity to do research. Of course, the alternative view, that some people use a perceived high teaching load as an excuse for their reluctance to undertake research may also be the case. This creates a leadership dilemma for those leading Teacher Education faculties as on the one hand, everyone would like to have a fair teaching load, balanced by the other things that an academic does, but having set a workload policy that assumes that everyone will do the three things an academic is employed to do, teach, research and service, then allocating workloads on this basis, what does the leader do if a group of professors are unwilling or unable to contribute to research? It seems that this dilemma has not yet been resolved and one outcome is that the solution selected is to allocate those who don't do research greater teaching loads. However, this simply extends the idea that teacher education is not a research driven discipline and that professors in teacher education are somehow different to those in other faculties, and this is to the detriment of those in teacher education.

As I write this, we have just passed the date when the “Back to the Future” series had predicted the world of October 2015. In reality, only some of the predictions had come true, but what we learned from this series is that the future is not static, we can impact on it by what we have learned from the past and what we do today. So how can this book help us to track a way forward? What we can say is that teacher education has come a long way over the course of ICET's history, teachers have higher levels of training and there are higher expectations placed on them too. Teacher educators have gone from a time when their job was to pass on a craft to the next generation to one where they are expected to be researchers, self-reflective practitioners and mentors to the new breed of teachers. Globalisation has given us a better understanding of what is happening in other parts of the world and changes in technology mean that we learn about these changes almost instantaneously. Teacher standards are now articulated and written down and performance is not left to the individual teacher, but

is built into something called Performance Development and Review (PDR) where leaders of schools are active players in both the development, and judgement, of their staff. Increasingly teacher excellence is judged by the academic performance of students and it might be argued that the curriculum focus is now narrower than ever before. Teacher educators have had to respond to these changes and are sometimes subject to the same level of scrutiny. In Florida for instance, if principals who appoint newly graduated teachers to their schools later decide that they are unhappy with the skill level of the teacher, then the College in which that student was trained must provide additional training to bring that teacher up to the level the principal expects. Another level of this suggests that the teacher education institution will not only be held accountable for the performance of the graduating teacher, but that this performance might be determined by the academic achievements of the students that the teacher is teaching. This suggests that governments in some parts of the world are trying to blame teachers if students do not succeed and, by extension, those who taught those teachers to teach. It adds an extra level to George Bernard Shaw's commentary that "Those that can, do, those that can't, teach" to suggest that those that cannot teach, teach teachers.

Osman in chapter 14 makes the argument that "teachers learn best when they are self-directed and provided with opportunities for building new knowledge and expertise as they engage in their daily work activities" and argues from embedded professional development as a means of sustaining learning. Embedded professional development means that ongoing programs offered by either universities or ministries need to consider work in the classroom as being central to what they do, where contextually-based activities are used to support real life experiences for teachers and their students. To do this we need to investigate ways in which the ongoing education of teachers is seen as a partnership by those who have an interest, teacher education institutions, employers, governments and schools. The Scottish model referred to above seems to be one that might provide us with a way forward. Švaříček in chapter 16 takes this one step further to suggest that there are ways in which we might improve the effect of teachers' participation in development programs by connecting theory and practice through reflective teacher-researcher discussions by asking appropriate open questions and then providing support for teachers to work through the issue. He further argues that video recording such a process can become a trustworthy way of building the relationship.

It is clear that for teacher educators to be at the front line of change when supporting teachers, that they, themselves will also need some specialist training. Gentles and Newman (chapter 12) argue that although teacher educators may be high quality teachers, that they have no real knowledge of what it means to be a teacher educator and that specific training needs to be provided for this. They provide an example of how this is undertaken in the Caribbean and argue for the possibility of establishing a specialist school of professional development for teacher educators. This idea is both reiterated and taken one step further by Linhares and Gaeta (chapter 13) who argue that because teaching in higher education is a multi-faceted activity, it is necessary for university professors to have time to reflect on their own experiences, in order to put theory and practice together. These chapters have all reported on positive approaches to improving teacher education professionals in order to improve the discipline itself.

However, other chapters of this book suggest that although there have been changes made for each of the three areas of policy, practice and research, some of these have not been as positive as we might have hoped. Cullen (chapter 3) focuses on policy development for

teacher education recruitment in Australia and she suggested that in the past, new policies were built upon the recommendations published in previous ones, however now fairly radical reforms occurring in Australian higher education in general have led to new alignments for recruitment policies. She suggests that the values underpinning previous policies “a just and equal society, multiculturalism, gender equity, redressing disadvantage, the creation of a tolerant and cohesive community, and the development of democratic ideals” have crashed into the concerns for “global economic advantage,” which she, and others in this book (Umezu, et al., chapter 7) refer to as neo-liberalism.

The neo-liberal approach to education has previously mostly been targeted at funding mechanisms for government services, including all forms of education, and has generated a new approach to school leadership, where ‘functional organizational leadership’ is seen as “a managerial approach of neo-liberal policy making rather than leadership which is associated with being visionary, motivational, inspirational and innovative” (Schley & Schratz, 2011, p. 276). The underlying purpose of neo-liberal policy making is to treat education with a market logic, one that Ball (2003) argues leads towards “homogenisation so that when looking through the same set of lenses, diverse phenomenon get to appear the same” (in Moos, 2011, p. 66). Even countries in Scandinavia, to which many other countries look when seeking socially just education, have not missed out on Neo-liberal Public Management (NLPM). Moos (2001) reports NLPM as becoming more prevalent in Denmark, where “In current Danish political thinking about leadership and management, leading a school is little different to leading other public sector institutions, currently known as ‘Welfare Institutions.’ By categorizing several institutions under the same rubric it conveys the impression that they are all alike.” (Moos, 2011, p. 66). This focus on the economics of education (and now it seems, teacher education) leads to some rather disastrous results, one of which is the tendency to expect much higher outcomes (standards) for the same (or, in many cases fewer, resources) and then blaming teachers when these are not achieved, as mentioned above. Is it any wonder that fewer high school graduates choose to become teachers, even fewer teachers choose to become school leaders and that employment in higher education institutions is becoming increasingly contract-based and consequently not as attractive as it once was?

The NLPM view of the world has had other impacts as well. Teachers’ workloads and stress have both increased as they perceive that they are asked to do more and more, yet seem to have less and less control over their work environment. The connection between workload (the amount of work) and work requirements (the type of work being done) contributes to teacher stress, but this is nothing new. More than 20 years ago Smith and Bourke (1992) identified this as being the case. But now the expectations of what (and how much) teachers do and the conditions in which they work have become much more problematic. MacBeath (2011, p. 12) reported that in a “2005 survey by the Trades Union Congress in Britain, which produced a league table of unpaid hours by occupation, teachers topped the pole by a significant margin – over eleven and half hours unpaid per week, two hours more than corporate managers and senior civil servants who jointly took second place.”

The lack of funding being directed to schools has led to fewer teachers, but rarely fewer students. Funding decreases have changed classrooms and schools. “Classrooms experienced sharply increased class sizes and reductions in supporting staff and aides. School calendars were shortened and more than a hundred thousand teachers were ‘pink slipped’ or told their contracts would not be renewed for the 2011-12 school year.” (Imig, et al. 2011, p.30) Such changes in the working environment must make it difficult for teachers to focus their attention

on all the issues associated with their job, while at the same time wondering “Am I to be next?” The impact of this becomes an issue for teacher educators as well because of an environment where many teachers (Shockley et al. 2006) and school leaders (Lovely, 2004) choose not to continue beyond a few years of employment. The cost involved in replacing them is enormous (Shockley et al. 2006), but it also increases the pressure on teacher educators to provide their graduates with a level of resiliency that has not previously been required.

This has serious implications for future teacher education policy, especially when Modiba (chapter 4) questions whether policy developments such as those occurring in South Africa are simply “facelifts...to appease the forces of change” (Seideman, 1980) or are a real attempt to improve the capacity of the country’s teachers in ways that will see them able to move beyond “domestic or local” interests. This might be argued of teacher education programs everywhere at the moment, as each jurisdiction develops its own framework. So despite us knowing that there are certain things that all teachers should know, or should do, no matter where in the world they are trained, we still have the situation where teacher education policies and regulations that govern the actual learning that occurs by teacher education students seems to be determined by politicians. Teacher education programs are very different country to country and in some cases from state to state within countries, because in each case, programs of teacher education must respond to the Standards identified.

To provide an example, I have worked in three countries, Australia, the USA and Scotland and all have different arrangements in terms of how education is managed and run. In Australia, schools are funded and managed by the states, but universities are responsible to, and supported by, the federal government. In the USA, where I worked in Florida, schools are managed by school districts but are funded by the states and universities receive some of their funding from the federal government but the majority from the state government. In Scotland, which is part of the UK and thus funded largely by Westminster, the schools are managed by Local Authorities (essentially local government) but funded by the Scottish Government and Universities are also funded by both Westminster and the Scottish government. There are also substantial differences in the ways in which standards are developed. In some cases, such as Scotland, standards for teachers and for school leaders are developed using a collaborative approach, with politicians recognising the profession’s knowledge base of what is required. Here, government, local government, the profession itself and universities work together to determine standards and strategies for developing and implementing them. But in other places standards seem to be developed by those that have no working knowledge of schools or teaching. In some places there is more than one standard that needs to be followed.

As an example, I will use the standards for school leaders. In Australia, there is a national standard (The Australian Professional Standard for Principals) which is common to all states. In the USA there is both the national standard (the Interstate School Leadership Licensure Consortium Policy Standards - ISLLC) and the state standard (for example, the Florida Principal Leadership Standard). In Scotland there is the Standard for Headship and this is very different from other parts of the UK (so the English and Scottish standards are different, for instance). In table 1 below, one can see the variations not only in what is expected of school leaders, but also in terms of the terminology being used. Behind what is tabled below however are many specific competencies, capabilities, expectations (the word also varies) about what a school leader would need to be able to do to fulfil each of these standards.

Table 1. Leadership Standards in Australia, Florida and Scotland

Australia	Florida (ISLLC)	Florida (State)	Scotland
Leadership Requirements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vision and Values • Knowledge and Understanding • Personal Qualities, social and interpersonal skills 	Setting a widely shared vision for learning	Student Achievement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student learning results 	Professional Values <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitment to educational values • Commitment to their own learning and continuing professional development • Demonstrate their knowledge and understanding
Professional Practices <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leading Teaching and Learning • Developing Self and Others • Leading improvement, innovation and change • Leading the engagement of the school • Engaging and working with the community 	Developing a school culture conducive to student learning and staff professional growth	Instructional Leadership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instructional Plan Implementation • Faculty development • Learning environment 	Management Functions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managing Learning and Teaching • Managing People • Managing Policy and Planning • Managing Resources and Finance
	Ensuring effective management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment	Organizational Leadership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decision making • Leadership Development • School Management • Communication 	Professional Abilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpersonal Abilities • Intellectual Abilities
	Collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources	Professional and Ethical Behaviour	
	Acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner		
	Understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, legal, and cultural contexts		

Australian standards available at <http://www.aitsl.edu.au/docs/default-source/school-leadership/australian-professional-standard-for-principals-and-the-leadership-profiles.pdf?sfvrsn=8>.

ISLLC standards available at <http://schoolbriefing.com/isllc-standards/>.

Florida standards available at <http://www.fldoe.org/teaching/professional-dev/the-fl-principal-leadership-starts>.

Scottish standards available at <http://www.gov.scot/Publications/2002/11/15817/13985#b6>.

However, not only are the standards very different, but the implications for institutions training school leaders varies as well. In Australia, where universities are totally independent, there is an expectation, but no requirement, that programs focusing on educational leadership will use the standards as a basis for the leadership curriculum they develop. Masters' degrees are usually undertaken once a person already holds a leadership position and there is no requirement that a principal will undertake a Masters, even after they are appointed. The expectation is that state systems will provide specific training for the people they wish to use as school leaders. In Scotland, the Scottish government, through the General Teaching Council of Scotland, the various Scottish universities that offer leadership programs, and the local authorities, working together, created two different ways of achieving the Standard for Headship. The first, the "Flexible Route to Headship" is a series of short courses, coaching, focused experiences and assessment administered by Education Scotland and delivered in partnership with local authorities, universities and the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS). The second way is through the Scottish Qualification for Headship, which are programs offered by Scottish Universities where academic research is linked to leadership practice in which a whole-school leadership project is a major element. So here the expectation is that head teachers will have a specific leadership qualification, but there is more than one way of getting there.

Quezada et al. in chapter 15 discuss increasing scrutiny of school leader programs in the United States with a particular focus on the academic achievement of students as being a key element in judging the quality of leadership. There is the recognition that aside from teachers, school leaders have the greatest school associated impact on student learning, so school leadership has become a key focus since reports suggest that the preparation of school leaders is not leading to the expected increase in achievement. Part of this might be caused by there being multiple ways in which school leaders are certified and that these do not necessarily have any alignment. (Imig et al., 2009) To take Florida as an example, undertaking a Master's degree in Educational Leadership is a prerequisite for becoming a school principal (as it is in other states) but teacher education institutions in Florida not only need to address the national standards but also need to consider what knowledge, skills and attributes are needed for a person to be employed as a principal in Florida, many of which might be different to those in other states. As well as completing the Master's degree there is also the need to pass the Florida Educational Leadership Examination (FELE), so the expectation is that by the time students complete their Educational Leadership degree they will also have the knowledge needed to pass the test. However, the FELE test (FDOE 2008) is very specific. As Townsend & Bogotch (2008, p. 225) report, of the "91 specific skills identified as part of the FELE examination, 44 of them (48%) refer to a knowledge and understanding of state or federal legislature. Of the 16 skills that are identified under the standard of Managing the Learning Environment, 15 refer to state legislation or standards and of the 13 skills related to Human Resource Development 12 refer to Federal or state laws or regulations. All 4 of the ethical leadership skills do the same. Clearly an ethical leader is one that obeys the rules. Four of the 6 skills related to Community School Partnerships can likewise be accomplished through memorizing state statutes." Even after undertaking this master's program, it is likely that individual school districts will then expect further training so that new principals are able to work within the confines of a particular district. This micro-managing of the training of

school leaders may well lead to a reliance on instructional leadership, perceived by MacBeath & Townsend (2011, p 1250) as reducing learning to ‘outcomes’, being solely focused on student achievement. They argue the case for leadership for learning which “gives pride of place to the preposition ‘for’...one that foregrounds learning and complexifies, rather than simplifies, what that word may mean.” They argue “leadership for learning embraces a much wider, developmental view of learning” one that “sees things through a wide angle lens, embracing professional, organisational and leadership learning” and has a concern for “of those who are part of a learning community.” (MacBeath & Townsend, 2011, p 1250) If such an approach was adopted for teacher education, what would an undergraduate program look like? What would be encompassed in the development of school leaders?

What the examples above demonstrate is the substantial difference in, (a) what the standards are and (b) how to reach them, that currently exists in different parts of the world. The question we need to ask ourselves is, given our abilities to communicate with each other across national borders and given our understandings of how human learning happens, how might a common expectation of people who lead schools be promoted and nurtured, and what are the impediments for doing this? The exact same argument could be made for standards for teachers, which in turn impact of the teacher education programs being delivered in various parts of the world. Why do we not have a common, internationally accepted, approach to teacher education?

The Scottish example reminds us of David Mandzuk’s chapter 5 report of the Canadian Association of Deans of Education that tried over the past decade to develop a range of accords across the country. Canada provides us with yet another model of how education is structured and managed, one where there is no federal Department of Education at all, so each collaborative activity must be initiated from the provinces, a situation reiterated in Shirley Van Nuland’s chapter 9. In both cases there is recognition that common issues exist even though each teacher education program might be quite different. What Mandzuk indicates, and Van Nuland hints at, is that there is a big difference in having an accord (Mandzuk) or ideas about a program that reflects the diversity of Canadian society (Van Nuland) and actually having that accord or idea implemented. This brings about the twin issues of conservatism and change when it comes to moving teacher education programs into the future. The underlying question of course is what is, or should be common, to teacher education programs no matter where they are undertaken? I asked this question previously (Townsend, 2003) about the school curriculum when I proposed that we could consider a global curriculum that will focus primarily on what makes us human, will spend some time on what makes us a member of a particular community (the state or country we live in, for instance) and much less time on specific content, which seems to change constantly as new knowledge comes along. So is it possible to identify common elements of teacher education that address our humanity for instance and so would be equally applicable no matter where it was taught? What might these elements be? How would such an idea change teacher education programs in the future?

Perhaps part of this might be answered by the fact that except for the past decade, teachers were, to all intents and purposes, those that implemented decisions made by others. Ministries of Education developed policies that were implemented by school leaders and teachers were expected to “follow orders from above.” Now however, it seems that we expect our teachers to do so much more than just follow decisions made by others. We expect them

to be reflective, critical thinkers. This has implications for teacher education, but sometimes old habits are hard to break. In chapter 6 (Neilsen, et al.) discuss the issue of developing critical thinking skills in teachers in Oman that has so far been unsuccessful, perhaps because “the faculty do not understand all of these skills” and almost certainly because “they are not teaching them.” As faculty of Colleges of Education almost invariably come from the ranks of teachers, then if teachers do not have these skills in the first place, when they become faculty they are unlikely to be able to pass them on. However, Umezu et al. in chapter 7, provide us with a strategy to enable students to reflect on their “capacities and abilities” as a defined and focused part of their course. However, assessing this, in a way that satisfies both individual student and university requirements, still remains somewhat problematic.

If we are to break the circle, the first step might be for Ministries of Education to make it clear that critical thinking is something that is valued and expected for teachers and that part of this process might be to focus attention on this in teacher education institutions. Perhaps one of the benefits of increasing expectations for teacher educators to become actively involved in research is that the critical thinking required to do good research might then be passed on to teaching students, thus encouraging a new generation of more critically aware teachers. In chapter 8 Flores et al. argue that the emergence of this inquiry-based culture in her university in Portugal can be seen as innovative, but is also controversial because of the competing visions of teachers (as practitioners or reflective professionals). She concludes the need to scrutinise the feasibility of such an approach in the practical training of teachers. Of course, this movement towards more reflective and critically aware teachers will only work if school principals and ministries of education support and nurture this skill. Again, this comes back to the education of school leaders, which in turn comes back to the standards being set for them. If school leaders spend much of their time responding to federal or state policies or regulations (as the Florida example suggests), then this suggests that there is no expectation that school leaders will be critical thinkers either. Fortunately, the examples of Scotland and Australia suggest that critical thinking, strategic thinking and shared leadership are now becoming the norm for outstanding school leaders, rather than the exception.

This indicates that there needs to be a much more dedicated approach to improving the relationship between teacher education institutions and the employers of their products, ultimately schools. It increases the responsibility to take care of what Niklason (chapter 10) calls the “transition to the working life.” Again there are different induction models in existence in various parts of the world. In the UK, there are Probationer Teachers in Scotland, with a Teacher Induction Scheme that guarantees a one-year training post for every qualified student graduating from Scottish universities. There are Newly Qualified Teachers in England and Wales, with a one year induction period, but no guarantee of employment. In Victoria, Australia, your induction period starts after you gain employment and even then the actual induction year is determined by the school that employs you, although the Department of Education and Training provides guidelines for doing so. In Florida, individual school districts determine what type of induction program will occur. We could learn so much from looking at various induction systems in different parts of the world, but the underlying message we are given is that the induction provided to new teachers, whether they have just graduated from their first teacher education program, or whether they are experienced teachers who are moving from one jurisdiction to another, could be said to be closely aligned to the prevailing political attitude towards education in that jurisdiction.

As Al Barwani argues in chapter 11, perhaps the best approach would be to have “teacher education programs that prepare effective teachers followed by organized induction period that would reduce the culture shock, stress, and sense of alienation.” However, it seems that what we are not doing enough to support new teachers to enter their workplace, as teacher attrition seems to be on the increase in the USA (Morello, 2014), in Australia (Adoniou, 2013) and in the UK about one in eight teachers under 30 leave the profession (Smithers & Robinson, 2004). Perhaps even worse, filling teacher vacancies is becoming more difficult. The Association of School and College Leaders in the UK argued “Schools are facing a growing teacher recruitment crisis with nearly half of head teachers who took part in a survey saying they have vacancies in the core subjects of English, maths and science.” (ASCL, 2015), the Washington Post (2015) in the USA reports there are “growing teacher shortages in key subject areas” and Australia is facing a “looming crisis” because of shortages of mathematics and science teachers (Phillips, 2015).

So the past six decades have seen substantial changes in teacher education and in the development of those who will educate and lead teachers. It has moved from being a single focus activity, almost solely supported by state funding, with its focus being on a craft based approach to the education and induction of a new generation of teachers, a system that remained largely the same as it had been for generations, to one where it has to compete for attention, and funding, with other academic disciplines, one that has to still argue its case as being a research-led discipline, and one where the people involved now have to multi-task in ways that they have not had to do in the past. Having less funding and resources at your disposal does not make the task any easier. Such change creates concern, even crisis, for those that see the past as the pinnacle of what teacher education should be, but for others opportunities abound in the future as we consider new ways of teaching, researching and promoting teacher education. ICET over the years has chosen the latter view, change is a good thing and with the people represented in this book leading ICET’s future, there should be a great deal of confidence in what is to come next.

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