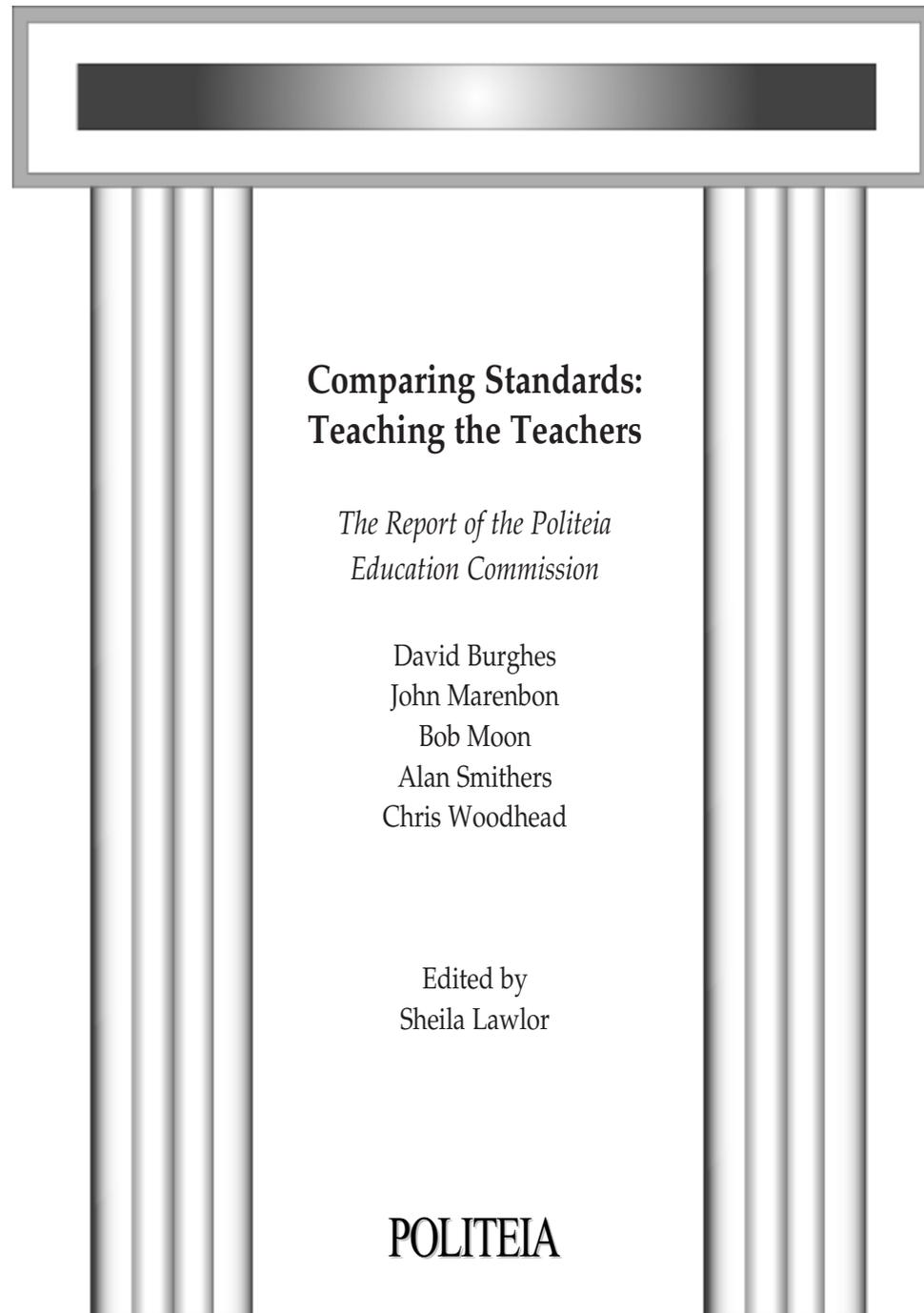


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*The Report of the Politeia
Education Commission*

David Burghes
John Marenbon
Bob Moon
Alan Smithers
Chris Woodhead

Edited by
Sheila Lawlor

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General Introduction

Sheila Lawlor

High standards at school depend on intellectually able and academically qualified teachers whose mastery of their subjects enables them to teach their pupils. Yet this country, like many western industrial democracies, faces unprecedented difficulty in recruiting teachers of sufficient academic and intellectual quality. There are, of course, many reasons for this. Indirect factors play a part including the competitive nature of the labour market which offers high rewards to able graduates or the problematic status of teachers, long undermined by governments' intent on substituting bureaucratic control for independent professionalism.

It is with a more direct and fundamental factor that this study is concerned, the system for training and qualifying teachers. As matters stand, there are two main types of training model: primary teachers tend to be trained in university education departments, where they work towards a BEd degree in a three (or four) year education course, which qualifies them to teach. Secondary school teachers tend first to take a subject degree in a university subject faculty and then, they must qualify to teach, through an education course in a university education department leading to the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE).

This, the third in Politeia's *Comparing Standards* series, examines the evidence from similar countries on the ways in which teachers are trained and considers what lessons there may be for this country. Part I considers the system for admitting, assessing and inducting into professional life, trainee teachers and it also examines the nature of the courses taken. The analysis by Bob Moon is complemented by a commentary, Part II, from Politeia's education commissioners, David Burghes, John Marenbon, Alan Smithers and Chris Woodhead, which considers the evidence and draws out the lessons for this country – both positive and negative. Part III concludes the study and proposes a series of recommendations for the future.

In Part I, Professor Moon precedes his report with a short introduction drawing together related themes, some of which are investigated in the report and others that fall beyond its remit. He explains that among the countries analysed there are a number of common trends, such as an increasing emphasis on teaching practice and the official attempt to specify what the outcomes of training should be. Differences include countries' frameworks (e.g. a more regional structure in France and the United States)

Comparing Standards: Teaching the Teachers

and the status of trainees (e.g. teachers are civil servants in Germany and France). One notable difference, suggests Moon, is the role of the university in teacher training (i.e. the university education department), which, in this country is far more controversial than elsewhere. One reason may be that whereas in many of the other models there are much closer subject links and greater emphasis on subject teaching, this country's training is conducted in relative isolation from the subject departments. This may help explain the variation between what is expected here and in other countries. For instance at primary level, French teachers place more emphasis on basic skills and academic knowledge whereas for their English counterparts social and developmental goals matter more.

Though such points are raised in Moon's introduction, the report which follows is mainly concerned with the framework for training, rather than the specific issues which now face the profession, such as its status and the challenges of recruitment and retention. In particular Moon's report addresses the standards for entry; the nature of the training routes and percentage of candidates on each route; the content and emphases of the courses and balance between subject and professional courses; the length of training (though not the detailed content of the curriculum or inspection); and the nature of the final qualification. These issues are fundamental to whether trainee teachers have themselves reached an adequate standard of education. Are they adequately educated themselves to teach the subjects of the primary curriculum? And for secondary teachers, do the official criteria encourage or undermine the likelihood of the ablest and most academically qualified teachers teaching in schools?

Moon's report is followed in Part II by the response of our specialist commissioners, each of whom has contributed to the previous Politeia study *Comparing Standards Academic and Vocational, 16-19 year-olds*. That study concluded that the standards expected of our school leavers at 18+ - in terms of curricula and examination - are far lower than the standard expected of school leavers at 18+ in a number of similar industrial democracies.¹ It provides a valuable introductory analysis to some of the issues raised in the present study on training teachers. Here, the commissioners – David Burghes, John Marenbon, Alan Smithers and Chris Woodhead – consider the evidence of the report and respond by taking the reader through the lessons, both positive and negative, for this country, of other models of training. The study concludes with a series of recommendations for the future training of teachers.

¹ *Comparing Standards Academic and Vocational, 16-19 year olds. The Report of the Politeia Education Commission*, David Burghes, Herbert Lutz, John Marenbon, Shyam Patiar, Sig Prais, Alan Smithers, Robert Tombs, Chris Woodhead and Sheila Lawlor. Politeia, 2002.

Part I

A Comparative Analysis

Bob Moon

I

Introduction*

The case studies which follow show significant diversity between countries but also some areas of congruence. Teacher education now attracts widespread policy interest. It has been argued (Moon, 2003) that the last decade of the twentieth century saw more legislative and regulatory interest in this area than the previous ninety years. This tendency was manifest in different ways in different parts of the world, but it reflects increasing concern about the quality of education generally. In Britain, the USA and Australasia this concern has been demonstrated by moves to specify the outcomes of training more clearly. The curriculum of teacher training in these countries is now significantly influenced by frameworks of 'standards' or 'competences'. The influence of such frameworks has been less in other European countries, although a tightening of control over teacher education is apparent in many places.

Although governmental interest has increased, the responsibility for teacher education is still held predominantly by the universities in all countries. The 'universitisation of teacher education', a rather clumsy phrase, has been described by Neave (1992) as one of the major changes in higher education in the second half of the twentieth century. The improved status of primary teachers in nearly all countries can, in part, be explained by this move. Only in England, and on a very small scale in the Netherlands, has the dominant role of the university been questioned.

The extent to which the wider academic community of the university is involved in teacher training varies from country to country. It is greater in the case of concurrent courses (courses for prospective teachers who have not already taken a university degree) although these, especially where they have grown out of primary training traditions, may be largely contained within education departments. In England the consecutive training courses (courses for prospective teachers who already have degrees i.e.PGCE) are characterised by very little contact with mainstream subject/discipline-based departments, with education faculties providing both generic and subject-specific professional training. There appears to be a stronger emphasis on subject knowledge and subject didactics (techniques of teaching linked specifically to a given subject) in the training programmes of many European countries, and where this emphasis is found, the links with the wider academic community are stronger.

Most countries, even those with national regulatory frameworks, have a strong regional dimension to teacher training. The German regional governments, French academies and the different states of the USA all have specific and important responsibilities for teacher education. In respect of the French academies, for example, teacher educators work closely with inspectors in the planning and supervision of teacher training. This system creates more integrated and local knowledge of candidates than exists, say, in the national English system.

In some European countries (France and Germany are the best known examples) teacher trainees in the latter part of their training have civil servant status. At this point trainees receive a salary and other benefits. In France entry to this second phase of training is through a *concours* (competitive examination), and the numbers admitted are linked to the national plans for teacher numbers.

The nature and extent of practical experience varies from one country to another and has been the subject of considerable debate. In consecutive courses in England and Wales, the practical element, carried out with the help of close partnership arrangements with schools, is now the major aspect of training. There is little empirical evidence to suggest that any particular balance of theory and practice is more effective than any other. Over the past ten years, however, since the introduction of the stronger practical emphasis in England, the approval rating of courses by students has increased significantly.

On the issue of costs and value for money, the situation in teacher education is obscure. In many countries it is difficult to identify specific costs, even where consecutive courses acquire a specific fee or grant. Where the variables of concurrent/consecutive and smaller/larger courses are taken into account, the situation is even more complex and, within most countries, the degree of university autonomy over budgets makes any real understanding of costs problematic.

The descriptions of teacher education systems highlight a number of issues:

- teacher education is almost wholly a graduate process and this is reflected in admission requirements;
- consecutive rather than concurrent training routes are increasingly the norm, although the latter still characterises primary programmes in a number of continental European countries;
- longer training routes exist, where the first-year teaching induction process is integrated within initial teacher training;
- the categories of course content are broadly similar across all countries,

although in continental Europe there is a stronger emphasis on subject and subject didactics;

- there is evidence of an increased move towards specifying the outcome of training and, interrelated with this, the practical elements of training are becoming more significant in many countries;
- examination systems are retained in a number of continental European countries (particularly in the context of competitive *concours*) but the overall emphasis is towards continuous assessment procedures;
- the costs of training are highly complex and thus attempts to calculate comparative costs are problematic.

Two qualifications need to be made about the comparisons which follow. First, exact comparisons are sometimes difficult. The issue of costs, for example, would require a substantive research study of its own. The balance between concurrent and consecutive courses, presented in a purely descriptive sense, obscures an often varied history of institutional and social reform. Information on the training of vocational teachers, perhaps the Cinderella of the teacher education world, is difficult to obtain and much more disparate in nature than teacher training for primary and secondary schools.

Secondly, the comparisons do not always make explicit important but more subtle differences between countries, and that may profoundly influence the training processes (Moon, 1999). In the primary field, Broadfoot and Osborn (1993) have explored the similarities and differences of French and English teachers' approaches to pedagogy through questionnaires, interview and classroom observation. One of their major findings was that French primary teachers place more emphasis on basic skills and academic knowledge than English teachers for whom a major concern is the development of intelligence and all-round education. English primary teachers also seek to achieve a basic complement of non-cognitive objectives including notions such as desire to learn, socialisation and personal development.

This study, however, was followed by a later comparative analysis of English and French primary pupils' attitudes and performance in mathematics and language (Planel, Osborne, Broadfoot and Ward, 1998). This showed that, although there were differences in pedagogic strategies, pupil attainment on a range of items, taken from English and French national assessments, was comparable. This latter study showed that despite the introduction of the national curriculum and advocacy of more teacher-centred approaches, English teachers remained individual and child-centred in their pedagogic styles. In France, however, despite official attempts to focus more on the individual child, the formal *leçon* continued to predominate.

Contrasting perspectives on pedagogy: English and French primary teachers I

French teachers typically argue the importance of:

- Making sure that my pupils acquire the knowledge appropriate to the level of the class and doing this with commitment.

- Doing my duty to make sure that my pupils acquire a certain body of knowledge. I am obliged to do everything possible to attain this.

The English teacher will typically stress more developmental goals relating to the child's intelligence and personality:

- Creating an atmosphere whereby children will learn through experience, moral and social norms, physical skills and aspects of health and hygiene, developing enquiring minds and creativity, and generally to develop, progress and fulfil their potential (Broadfoot and Osborn, pp. 78–79)

Contrasting perspectives on pedagogy: English and French primary teachers II

English pupils' willingness and ability to tackle unfamiliar tasks would seem to reflect the well-established differences in pedagogic approach between the two countries. In France, the approach may be characterised as one of 'induction' of pupils into the established bodies of knowledge. Teachers are often 'drillers', their model of the goals of education largely a convergent one. This French emphasis on correct performance was reflected in weaker pupils not always knowing which approach to take in order to solve a particular problem as well as demonstrating a fear of getting a wrong answer by not answering questions to which they did not know the answer.

By contrast, the established pedagogic tradition in English primary schools has been one that emphasises discovery and the search on the part of each pupil for a solution to a given problem. Pupils have been encouraged to think for themselves and their efforts have been valued in these terms. The effects of these different emphases, which of course vary in degree from teacher to teacher and school to school, are reflected in maths, for example, by the finding that some English children tried to develop their own strategies to do long multiplication tasks involving decimal points. High achieving children in particular were able to develop their own efficient

strategies in number and investigative maths. They also had a better sense of the correctness or otherwise of their answers than French children. However, one less desirable consequence of this stance was the tendency to use non-standard, inefficient methods for procedures in relation to numeracy and, more generally, not being able to distinguish between efficient and inefficient methods.

Again these different pedagogic emphases are reflected in the fact that English children showed less understanding of number per se and less expertise than French pupils in the application of the standard algorithms in number, their lack of routine drilling perhaps accounting for their sometimes knowing what to do but being weak in the execution of the required procedure.

(Planel et al., pp. 55–56)

A clear message of the study was that pedagogy needs to be understood in terms of the larger cultural context and that without such understanding, the effects, and hence the potential value, of any particular educational intervention cannot be predicted. As the quotation in the box above indicates, the authors of the study are prepared to accept that some of the more prominent pedagogic strategies in one society could be more strongly taken up by the other. But this would have to go with the grain of approaches which appeared, overall, to be working successfully.

At secondary level, a recent study (Pepin, 1997) has explored how German, French and English teachers at the secondary level conceive of, and carry out, their tasks. Pepin's study was ethnographic, based on interviews and observation of mathematics teachers in each of the three countries as well as interviews with associated professionals, such as school principals, inspectors and others.

She found similarities in the phasing of lessons and the sort of behaviour expected of pupils. But, in an analysis that resonates with the analysis given by Broadfoot and Osborne, there were also interesting differences in their classroom practices, which reflect the different cultural conditions in the three countries.

Contrasting perspectives on pedagogy:

English, French and German secondary mathematics teachers

In France teachers focused on developing mathematical thinking which included exploring, developing and understanding concepts, and mathematical reasoning. This, in turn, had consequences for their classroom practice. French teachers spent much time preparing their lessons, in order to be able to provide the 'best' introduction and cognitive activities for pupils to discover the notion and to choose a range of exercises which helped pupils to assess their understanding. In class French teachers tried to pose thought-provoking problems and expected students to struggle with the problems for a while, before they drew together ideas from the class and discussed with the whole class the ideas and solutions of individuals. They tried to forge links between ideas, skills and (cognitive) activities on the one hand, and concepts on the other. Relatively little time was spent on routine procedures. Pupil mistakes were used to assess and subsequently deepen pupil understanding of the topic by discussing those mistakes with the whole class.

In England teachers focused on training pupils in mathematical concepts or skills and devoted much time to the practice of (sometimes routine) procedures. Most English teachers, unless the lesson was assigned for an 'investigation', introduced and explained a concept or skill to students, gave worked examples on the board and then expected pupils to practise on their own or in small groups, whilst the teacher attended to individual pupils. Students were divided into different achievement sets and teachers provided a different mathematical diet for different sets. Situations where pupils discovered multiple solutions or investigated new solutions which required reasoning were rare and usually reserved for 'investigation' lessons, and so were practical activities. These practices can be understood in the light of traditions (teacher-led introduction/ practice lessons) that underpinned practices in teachers' classrooms.

In Germany teachers in the Hauptschule [secondary modern school] worked differently from those in the Gymnasium [grammar school]. What they had in common was that they all worked with the whole class in a kind of conversational style. Often pupils' mistakes in the homework

or in class exercises were used to check and deepen pupil understanding. Textbooks were used during the lessons, mainly for exercises.

In the Hauptschule teachers often instructed pupils in a concept or skills, solved an example problem with the whole class and then let pupils practise on their own on exercises. But this procedure rarely lasted for a whole lesson. Typically, at a later stage the teacher checked pupil understanding by bringing pupils to the board and discussing their mistakes and understandings with the whole class. This discussion allowed the teacher to gain an impression of the understanding of the whole class.

In the Gymnasium, where expectations of achievement were higher, topics were treated in great depth and for a considerable length of time. As logical thinking was regarded as important, formulas were derived and formal reasoning conducted in lessons. The development and understanding of concepts was of paramount importance. The invention of new solutions or procedures was not encouraged. The lessons appeared quite formal and traditional in terms of their mathematical content, but were quite lively concerning their style (conversational). As mentioned before, the emphasis was on whole class interactive teaching which was conducted in a conversational style, with little emphasis on individualised work.

(Pepin, 1997, pp. 89–90)

The distinctions described above indicate the strengths of different traditions that influence teacher education in each of the countries. In England, and in the USA, the Deweyian reflective practitioner, pragmatic tradition has come to dominate teacher education programmes. In France and Germany, and much of continental Europe, a more knowledge-focused interest in didactics and pedagogics has been central to the education and training process.

But the distinction is more than mere emphasis. How for example has the English language come to see the terms 'didactic' or 'pédagogue' in derogatory terms? Has the general concern with the social role of the teacher been overemphasised at the expense of the engagement with knowledge or subject? Neither of the two major English language compendiums on teacher education, *The International Encyclopaedia of Teaching and Teacher Education* and the *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*, include reference the word 'didactic' at all. Yet in many European countries didactics is a mainstream part of teacher education.

Comparing Standards: Teaching the Teachers

In France, for example, there is a significant level of research into what one leading authority (Chevellard, 1991) has called 'didactic transposition' or the way in which the subject knowledge to be taught inevitably adapts, remoulds and sometimes disfigures elements borrowed from the broader field of subject knowledge (see also Verret, 1975).

More developed, analytical comparative studies are required to be able to probe beneath the description of systems and examine some of the fundamental differences between the intellectual traditions that underpin the teacher training process.

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II England

Training of teachers in England is provided through concurrent, integrated academic and pedagogical training, or through a consecutive model where a subject specialist degree is followed by a teaching qualification. Employment-based training routes are also available.

(i) Admission Requirements

To become a teacher in England, candidates for training as a teacher are required to:

- have achieved a standard equivalent to a grade C in the GCSE examination in English and mathematics.
- have achieved a standard equivalent to a grade C in the GCSE examination in a science subject required for those born on or after 1 September 1979 who enter primary or Key Stages 2/3 training;
- meet the Secretary of State's requirements for physical and mental fitness to teach;
- have no criminal background which might prevent them working with children or young persons, or as a teacher; or have been excluded from teaching or working with children;
- be able to read effectively, and communicate clearly and accurately in spoken and written standard English.

Entry requirements for undergraduate (concurrent) courses of initial teacher training are determined by the institution, but generally mean a minimum A level point score of 12 (two A level grade C passes or equivalent). Candidates can also gain entry to undergraduate courses with a variety of other qualifications.

Those applying for postgraduate courses of initial teacher training are required to hold a degree of a United Kingdom higher education institution or an equivalent qualification. Institutions offering primary Postgraduate Certificate of Education courses are required to satisfy themselves that the content of a candidate's previous education provides the necessary foundation for work as a primary school teacher. Those offering secondary PGCE courses must satisfy themselves that the content of applicants' degrees is appropriate to the secondary school curriculum. There is some

Comparing Standards: Teaching the Teachers

discretion here, as the regulations do not specify how many years' of study relevant to the teaching subject specialism are required.

For two-year PGCE courses, the content of the applicant's initial degree must normally include at least one year of full-time higher education study or an equivalent relevant to the appropriate subject specialism. Trainees on the Registered Teacher Programme (see below) must have successfully completed two years of full-time higher education (or part-time equivalent).

(ii) Training Routes

There are two main types of training route: the consecutive model and the concurrent one.

(a) The Consecutive Model

A university undergraduate course leading to a degree in the individual subjects to be taught, followed by a year's (or more) professional and practical training. Candidates are taught in the subject faculties of the universities by subject specialists and take the same university examinations leading to the BA (Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (Bachelor of Science) degree. The candidate then takes a professional qualification leading to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). The most common professional qualification is the Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE), but increasingly, a diverse range of other courses (SCITTs, Fast Track, GTP and RTP) is available.

Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE)

It is university or college-based, and taking one year full-time or 18 months to two years part-time. Flexible routes are designed to enable trainees to receive training that matches their individual needs and circumstances. Flexible courses have multiple start and finish dates and modular study programmes, and may be delivered through evening training, at weekends, or via distance-learning packages. Most lead to the award of a PGCE and QTS. There are also some two-year full-time PGCE courses. These are designed to enable graduates in a wide range of disciplines to train to be specialist teachers in the secondary age range, particularly in design and technology, mathematics, modern foreign languages and science.

SCITTs

While most ITT (Initial Teacher Training) courses are offered by HEIs working in partnership with schools, it is also possible to train through SCITT (School-centred initial teacher training) courses offered by consortia of schools which join together to offer teacher preparation for graduates. All

Report

SCITT courses lead to QTS, and many are validated by a university for the award of a PGCE. Training takes one year full-time; part-time courses usually last for two years.

Fast Track

This is an accelerated professional development programme towards leadership positions in education. Trainees take an enhanced one-year PGCE at a Fast Track initial teacher training (ITT) provider.

Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP)

The Graduate Teacher Programme, introduced in 1998, is available to trainees over the age of 24. In this programme, schools employ graduates who are not qualified as teachers and support them through an individual training programme leading to QTS. In the majority of cases (85 per cent) a Designated Recommending Body (DRB) takes the responsibility for the training programme. Most DRBs are partnerships of schools, local education authorities (LEAs) and accredited initial teacher training (ITT) providers. DRBs receive an annual allocation of GTP places from the TTA, and are responsible for recruiting trainees and matching them with good schools, designing and delivering the training programme, and recommending the trainee for QTS. DRBs handle a minimum of ten GTP trainees per year. Places not administered by DRBs are allocated directly to schools from the TTA. If the school itself takes responsibility for the training, it acts as a Recommending Body, and is responsible for designing and delivering the training. The training programme must allow the trainee to work in at least two schools in order to gain the breadth of experience required by the QTS standards.

GTP trainees follow a postgraduate programme that normally lasts one year. However, for those with significant teaching experience, this may be reduced to a minimum period of three months. Up to 90 per cent of the trainee's time may be spent teaching but this may vary depending on the provider.

Registered Teacher Programme (RTP)

Trainees on the Registered Teacher Programme (RTP) must have successfully completed two years of full-time higher education (or the part-time equivalent) and spend up to two years working and training as a teacher while they complete a degree. The minimum period of training is one year. Graduate and Registered Teacher Programmes are available to overseas trained teachers and have replaced the earlier Licensed Teacher and Overseas Trained Teacher Schemes.

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Of those who qualified through consecutive training in 2002, the breakdown by the phase of education for which they trained to teach was as follows:

| Postgraduate trainees | Number gaining QTS |
|-----------------------|--------------------|
| Secondary | 12292 |
| Primary | 6419 |
| KS2/3 | 363 |
| Total | 19074 |

Of those qualifying to teach in 2002, having trained through the consecutive route, 64 per cent qualified for secondary teaching and 34 per cent for primary teaching. (Data on final year trainees 2001/2, (TTA, 2003)).

(b) The Concurrent Model

The concurrent model involves three or four years of combined full-time higher education and teacher training, leading to an education degree and Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). The qualifications awarded on successful completion of the course include the Bachelor of Education (BEd) and the Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science in Education (BA(Ed) or BSc(Ed)), and BA or BSc with QTS, although other names may be used. Some two-year concurrent degree courses are available for students who have already completed at least one year of relevant higher education. Some courses are available part-time.

Of those who qualified through concurrent training in 2002, the breakdown by the phase of education for which they trained to teach was as follows:

| Undergraduate trainees | Number gaining QTS |
|------------------------|--------------------|
| Secondary | 994 |
| Primary | 5173 |
| KS2/3 | 248 |
| Total | 6415 |

Of those qualifying to teach in 2002, having trained through the concurrent route, 15 per cent of candidates qualified for secondary teaching and 81 per cent for primary teaching. Data on final year trainees 2001/2 (TTA, 2003).

(iii) Percentage of Candidates

In 2001/2 (TTA profiles data) 75 per cent of those who qualified followed a consecutive route and 25 per cent followed the concurrent model. The pass rate for those training on the consecutive model was 88 per cent. For those who trained on the concurrent training route, 93 per cent of final year trainees gained QTS. However, this considerably overestimates the percentage of entrants who successfully qualify, because the final year numbers exclude those who have withdrawn during earlier years of the course. DfES model of teacher supply and demand assumes losses of 25 per cent in training from BEd courses and 11 per cent from PGCE courses (DfEE, 1998).

In 2002, the number of candidates gaining QTS was 25489 (TTA, 2003). The number of full-time equivalent teachers was 437100². Therefore the percentage of newly qualified candidates in 2002 as a compared to the teaching workforce was 6 per cent.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses**(a) The Consecutive Model**

Within the university degree course, 100 per cent of time is spent on subject study.

The PGCE course comprises a mixture of higher education subject studies, curriculum (the National Curriculum (primary) or specialised subjects (secondary), pedagogical and educational studies, practical teaching skills and the application of the students' degree subject(s) to school teaching. The relative proportions of time to be spent on professional and subject study are not laid down, and are decided by individual institutions. However, the balance of practical training (spent in school) and other study within a thirty-six week course is specified. The standards and requirements for initial teacher training (TTA, 2002) stipulate the minimum length of time that PGCE candidates must spend being trained in schools, recognising that a trainee's former experience of working with pupils may count towards these totals. In a one-year course (36 weeks), the minimum time in school must be:

- 24 weeks for all secondary and KS2/3 postgraduate programmes (67 per cent);
- 18 weeks for all primary postgraduate programmes (50 per cent).

² Total teachers in service, FTE, from DFES 2002, table 14.

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Trainee teachers must have experience in at least two schools, and time in schools may be completed on a part-time basis to make up the full-time equivalent amounts. Teaching in settings other than schools may also count towards the totals, provided that this enables trainee teachers to work towards the achievement of the standards for the award of QTS. The arrangement of teaching placements within the period of study is determined by the individual training institutions.

The standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status (TTA 2002, see appendix 1) are 'outcome statements' that set out what a trainee teacher must know, understand and be able to do to be awarded QTS. They are organised in three interrelated sections that describe the criteria for the award.

- Professional values and practice: these standards outline the attitudes and commitment to be expected of anyone qualifying to be a teacher, and are derived from the Professional Code of the General Teaching Council for England.
- Knowledge and understanding: these standards require newly qualified teachers to be confident and authoritative in the subjects they teach and to have a clear understanding of how all pupils should progress and what teachers should expect them to achieve.
- Teaching: these standards relate to skills of planning, monitoring and assessment, and teaching and class management. They are underpinned by the values and knowledge covered in the first two sections.

An outline of the PGCE course from Sussex University is appended as an example (appendix 2).

(b) The Concurrent Model

The concurrent degree comprises a mixture of higher education subject studies, curriculum (the National Curriculum (primary) or specialised subjects (secondary)), pedagogical and educational studies, practical teaching skills and the application of the students' degree subject(s) to school teaching. The proportions of time for subject study and for professional studies are not stipulated, and will vary between training institutions. Studies are generally integrated throughout the period of study.

The standards and requirements for initial teacher training (DfES & TTA, 2002) stipulate the minimum length of time that candidates must spend being trained in schools.

- 32 weeks for all four-year undergraduate programmes (22 per cent);
- 24 weeks for all two- and three-year undergraduate programmes (33 per cent and 22 per cent, respectively).

Each trainee teacher must have experience in at least two schools. Time in schools may be completed on a part-time basis to make up the full-time equivalent amounts above. Teaching in settings other than schools may also count towards these totals, provided that they enable trainee teachers to work towards the achievement of the standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status. The arrangement of teaching placements within the period of study is determined by the individual training institutions. An outline of undergraduate courses offered by Canterbury Christchurch University College is appended as an example (appendix 3).

(v) Examinations and Qualifications

Entry to the teaching profession in England is governed by legal requirements set out in the document 'Qualifying to Teach: Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training' (TTA 2002). This document, which replaced DfEE Circular 4/98, came into effect on 1 September 2002, and has the same legal standing. It sets out the Secretary of State's Standards, which must be met by trainee teachers before they can be awarded Qualified Teacher Status (QTS); and the Requirements for training providers and those who make recommendations for the award of QTS.

Recommendations for the award of QTS are made by training providers. In the case of GTP candidates, recommendations are made by the recommending body. Qualified Teacher Status is awarded by the General Teaching Council for England.

(a) The Consecutive Model*Examination leading to the university degree*

The style of assessment is decided by the individual institution. This varies from university to university.

Examination following professional training course

Recommending bodies are required to satisfy themselves that candidates have met the standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status as laid down by the teacher training agency (TTA 2002).

No form of final examination is specified, and assessment arrangements are decided by individual training institutions. Assessment may include written

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examinations and continuous assessment during the course. Students are assessed by tutors from the higher education institution (HEI) where they have studied and by teachers in the schools where they undertake their practical experience. Teachers are partly responsible for assessing the students' competence to teach their specialist subject, to assess pupils and to manage classes.

Since May 2002, all candidates are required to pass QTS skills tests, which are computerised national skills tests in numeracy, literacy and ICT. The tests cover the core skills teachers need to fulfil their wider professional role in schools, rather than the subject knowledge required for teaching. Trainees have unlimited opportunities to pass the skill tests. A teacher trainee who has satisfied all the specified standards required of a person who seeks to become a qualified teacher, except that he/she has yet to pass the skills tests, may be employed as an unqualified teacher for an aggregate period of five years, or longer period if approved by the Secretary of State.

(b) The Concurrent Model

For higher education subject studies the style of assessment is decided by the individual institution. This varies from university to university, and may comprise written examinations, practical examinations and / or continuous assessment during the course.

For the award of QTS, the training institutions are required to satisfy themselves that candidates have met the standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status as laid down by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA 2002). No form of final examination is specified, and assessment arrangements are decided by individual training institutions. Assessment may include written examinations and continuous assessment during the course. Students are assessed by tutors from the higher education institution (HEI) where they have studied and by teachers in the schools where they undertake their practical experience. Teachers are partly responsible for assessing the students' competence to teach their specialist subject, to assess pupils and to manage classes. Since May 2002, all candidates are required to pass QTS skills tests, which are computerised national skills tests in numeracy, literacy and ICT. The tests cover the core skills teachers need to fulfil their wider professional role in schools, rather than the subject knowledge required for teaching. Trainees have unlimited opportunities to pass the skill tests. A teacher trainee who has satisfied all the specified standards required of a person who seeks to become a qualified teacher, except that he/she has yet to pass the skills tests, may be employed as an unqualified teacher for an aggregate period of five years, or longer period if approved by the Secretary of State.

*Report***(vi) Proportion of Qualified to Unqualified Teachers**

| | No. of teachers (Thousands) | % |
|--|--------------------------------|------|
| Regular teachers (FTE) | 408.4 | 96% |
| Overseas trained teachers and instructors without QTS | 11.0 | 3% |
| Teachers on employment based routes to QTS | 4.2 | 1% |
| Total regular teachers ³ | 423.6 | 100% |

(Source: DfES (2003a))

4 per cent of regular teachers are employed as unqualified teachers. One quarter of these are following employment-based routes to QTS.

An additional 14,800 teachers were recorded as employed on an occasional basis, and this figure will include occasional teachers without QTS. The proportions qualified and unqualified occasional teachers are not provided.

(vii) Breakdown of Training Qualifications

In order to enter teaching employment in maintained schools, in either the primary or secondary sectors, teachers are required to have Qualified Teacher Status:

They must:

- hold a degree or equivalent qualification granted by a United Kingdom institution or an equivalent degree or other qualification granted by a foreign institution;
- have successfully completed a course of initial training for teachers in schools at an accredited institution in England;
- have registered with the General Teaching Council for England.

Exemptions from the requirement to hold QTS are:

- Trainee teachers undertaking teaching practice;
- Teachers working towards QTS through an employment based programme (GTP or RTP);

³ This does not include occasional teacher.

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- Teachers trained outside the European Economic Area who can work for up to four years in temporary teaching posts without the requirement to hold QTS;
- Unqualified teachers (instructors), where the school has been unable to find a qualified teacher with the necessary skills and expertise.

Newly qualified teachers are required to have their Qualified Teacher Status confirmed by the successful completion of an induction year.

Full details can be found in the document 'The Education (Teachers' Qualifications and Health Standards) (England) (Amendment) Regulations 2003' (DFES 2003b). (See also the School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document, published annually by the DFES (DFES 2003c)).

(viii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

Teacher training in England is through public institutions, and the majority of training costs are publicly funded.

(a) The Consecutive Model*Undergraduate Degree*

Higher education is publicly funded, but all students in full-time undergraduate education have to be assessed for a contribution towards their tuition fees. The maximum tuition fee contribution expected from students in 2003/2004 is £1125. However, students receive assistance with tuition fees based on a financial assessment of their own and their family's income. Students from low income families pay no tuition fees; the Government meets the full cost of tuition for these students. Students whose family income is over £20,970 a year are required to make a contribution. The maximum contribution for 2003/04 is paid by students whose family income is over £31,231. Students are entitled to student loans, with the rate of repayment directly linked to income after graduation. The maximum loans available in 2003/04 are £4,930 for students living away from home and studying in London; £4,000 for students living away from home and studying outside London and £3,165 for students living at home. 75 per cent of the maximum loan is available to all eligible students regardless of any other income they have, the remaining 25 per cent depends on individual and family income

Extra help towards living costs is available to mature students, students with dependants, disabled students and those incurring certain travel costs. These arrangements are due to be changed from 2004.

*Report**PGCE Training*

For home students or European Union nationals, the maximum contribution to fees for postgraduate initial teacher training is paid to the training institution from student's LEA, or directly from the TTA in the case of flexible provision.

A number of financial incentives are available to students. These are:

- a £6,000 bursary while on initial teacher training, for those whose tuition fees are being paid by their (LEA).
- a £4,000 taxable 'Golden Hello' for those who teach one of the priority subjects in a maintained school or non-maintained special school after successfully completing their induction period. Current priority subjects are: English (including drama), mathematics, modern languages, design and technology, information and communications technology, and science.
- Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs) teaching one of the priority subjects (see above) are currently eligible for the Repayment of Teachers' Loans (RTL) scheme, on which outstanding student loans (from the Student Loans Company) are repaid by the Government over a period of up to 10 years as long as they continue to teach. Primary school teachers qualify if they are employed as subject specialists in their first post, teaching priority subjects to groups or classes other than their own for half of their time. This is a pilot scheme available to eligible teachers entering the profession between July 2002 and June 2005. A decision will be made in 2004 on whether the scheme continues beyond this time.
- Home and EU trainees may also be entitled to financial assistance under the secondary shortage subject scheme. This scheme can provide up to a maximum of £5,000 for trainees under 25 years, or £7,500 for trainees over 25 years. It is an income-assessed scheme, with assessment carried out by the training provider, and the maximum amounts are awarded only in cases of exceptional hardship. The scheme is reviewed each year.

(b) The Concurrent Model

Funding is as for undergraduate degrees.

Those following undergraduate courses leading to qualified teacher status in priority subjects are eligible for financial assistance under the secondary shortage scheme and for the loan repayment scheme, as detailed above.

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(c) Employment-based Routes

Trainees on the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) are paid a training salary. Schools are paid a grant of up to £13,000 towards employment costs. A further training grant of up to £4,000 is payable to the body that takes responsibility for the training programme: either a Designated Recommending Body (DRB) with which the school works, or the school itself acting as a Recommending Body.

For trainees on the Registered Teacher Programme (RTP), training and assessment costs, of up to £8000 over two years, are met by the TTA but schools are responsible for the payment of salaries.

(For additional material, see appendices 1-3.)

III France

The following information relates to the initial training of both primary and secondary school teachers. The concept of *formation* (professional training) is at the centre of the notion of teacher training. *Formation* does not only concern itself with acquiring subject, pedagogical and didactic knowledge. At the heart of the concept of professional training lies the notion of enabling the development of a professional identity for all teachers, whatever their level of experience and expertise.

(i) Admission Requirements

To be accepted to train, candidates need to have passed at least the Licence, the university examination equivalent to the English first degree. It is usually taken at the end of three years at university (Bac + 3). To enter university, students will have passed the Baccalaureate which means they have reached a satisfactory standard in French, maths, one foreign language, science, history-geography and sport, and possibly one or two classical languages. These subjects are differently weighted according to the student's specialisms (Martin van der Haegen et al, 2003).

(ii) Training Routes

There is only one training route. It requires students to achieve at least the Licence before they train as a teacher (though reports suggest that a significant majority of trainee teachers have academic qualifications that go beyond the minimum required). This is the consecutive model: candidates are taught in the subject faculties of the universities or in other higher education institutions by subject specialists and take university examinations leading to an academic qualification which must be at least the Licence

One year after the Licence, candidates take one of the following selective examinations which they can prepare in an Institut Universitaire de Formation des Maîtres (IUFM) or outside the IUFM:

CERPE : *Concours externe de recrutement des professeurs des écoles*, for those wishing to teach in nursery and primary schools

CAPES : *Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire*, for teaching in secondary schools - general education;

CAPET : *Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement technique*, for teaching technology in collèges (lower secondary schools) or technological subject in both general and technical lycées (higher secondary schools);

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CAPLP2 : *Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement professionnel du 2ème grade*, for teaching in vocational lycées (higher secondary schools);

CAPEPS : *Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de d'éducation physique*, for teaching physical education in collèges and lycées;

Another selective examination which can offer entry to teaching is the *Agrégation*: it is a higher teaching qualification for secondary schools (general education). The minimum requirement to be allowed to sit the *agrégation* selective examination is a *Maîtrise* (Bac + 4).

Irrespective of the selective examination they pass, all candidates must do a year's professional training in an IUFM. During that second and final year, they are trainee-teachers and civil servants, and they receive a salary. 100 per cent who qualify for primary and secondary school teaching in France follow the consecutive route. There is no training offered on a concurrent model.

(iii) Percentage of Candidates

In 2001, 130,759 students passed their Licence. In 2003, 205,910 candidates registered for the *concours externe public*⁴ of the appropriate selective examinations, 140,454 sat them, and 27,256 passed. The notion of a pass rate does not exist in France as the government fixes target numbers of posts to be filled for any given year for both primary and secondary courses. The posts to be filled correspond to teaching positions vacant in schools. Candidates are recruited to these posts (which are not always filled). Many apply for the selective examination; fewer sit them and fewer still are successful.

In 2003, 12.7 per cent of those who registered for, and 18.39 per cent of those who sat, one of the selective examinations to become a teacher were given a place on the appropriate training course.

| | Number of teachers in 2002-2003 | New posts filled in 2003 | Percentage of new posts |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| State Schools Primary | 318,000 | 11,094 | 3.49% |
| State Schools Secondary | 431,800 | 16,162 | 3.74% |
| Total State Schools | 749,800 | 27,256 | 3.63% |

⁴ French ministry of education provides figures for new entrants to the profession (*concours externe public*), but also for people already employed in the education service. The figures shown here are for those for new entrants in the profession.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses

The university subject courses are followed by professional training.

| | | Examination / Qualification |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|
| Secondary school | → | Baccalaureate |
| University – year 1 | ↓ | |
| University – year 2 | | |
| University – year 3 | → | Licence (Bac + 3) in any subject |
| IUFM – year 1 | ↓ | |
| IUFM – year 1 | → | Selective examination (the candidates that prepare the selective examination at the IUFM are students.) |
| IUFM – year 2 (Professional training) | → | All students to pass the selective examination and receive professional training in the second year at the IUFM are trainee-teachers and civil servants. |

The proportion of time for subject, professional and practical courses is as follows:

| Proportion of time for | | |
|------------------------|--|--|
| subject study | during degree course (3 years minimum) | 100 per cent |
| professional studies | Over the two years spent at the IUFM | 66 per cent of the course is devoted to the development of subject knowledge, general training to develop the knowledge of the education system and the understanding of pupils' attitude to acquisition of knowledge. |

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| | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| practical training | Over the two years spent at the IUFM | 33 per cent is spent in accompanied teaching practice: the trainee teachers work with their mentor and/or teaching practice with full teaching responsibility for one or two classes. |
|--------------------|--------------------------------------|---|

In France universities are autonomous and decide on their own syllabuses. Sample Licence papers would not be representative of the 'French model'. French universities are starting to implement the 'European Credit Transfer System' (ECTS). Licences will be made of modules that may have been completed in different universities throughout Europe.

The curriculum followed by students varies according to the phase, subject and specialism. Two examples of the first year IUFM curriculum follow, one for primary and one for secondary school training.

First year in a primary teacher's training includes

- subject knowledge work that takes up approximately 350 hours of the year [53 per cent] and involves
 - a common core - French, mathematics and physical education;
 - two options, one from each group :
 - group 1 : history/geography (prescribed aspects of history from the ancient to modern times; human settlements; variety of landscapes in Europe; French landscapes; France and globalisation) or biology or physics/technology (1: matter and energy, 2: living world, 3: the sky and the earth, 4 : the man made world)
 - group 2 : musical education or art or modern languages
- general training in psychology, science of education, philosophy, teaching strategies and tools, preparation and exploration of school experiences (approx. 190 hours [29 per cent] in the year)
- three 'accompanied' school practices during which students are not given full responsibility for teaching the class. The class teacher acts as a mentor (approx. 120 hours [18 per cent] in the year)

First year for secondary school teachers : (the framework is the same for those preparing CAPES, CAPEPS, CAPET and CAPLP):

- subject knowledge training lectures and workshops at a post-graduate level are the responsibility of the university and are delivered by

university lecturers and IUFM teachers. The number of hours spent varies according to the subject specialism;

- practical training given by IUFM teachers includes 70 hours' lectures and workshops at the IUFM about the school subject, the national syllabus for this subject, how it is taught in French schools, the history of its teaching and its links with other subjects;
- the preparation and exploration of the two weeks' accompanied practice
- subject knowledge: the knowledge of the contents of the syllabus for their subject.

In both cases, the aim of the school placements is to support the student in the preparation of one part of the competitive examination. It also prepares for the school experience in the second year at the IUFM. In year 1, the placements are only in the 'accompanied practice' mode (*stages de pratique accompagnée*).

Content of curriculum in the second year (both primary and secondary)

Although the actual content of the studies varies according to the phase, subject and specialism and from IUFM to IUFM the common framework includes :

- teaching modules: work on personal, pedagogical and didactical subject knowledge, life in schools, school and vocational guidance, laws concerning the protection of children, teenage psychology and sociology, information and communication technology (ICT), the role and place of the teacher in society, children with learning difficulties.
- the professional dissertation: is a form of action research for which trainee teachers choose a topic on which they work and reflect on their own and in groups throughout their second year at the IUFM.
- school experience: there are two types of placements, those in the 'accompanied practice' mode for which students are required to have between 20 and 40 hours' teaching experience under the leadership of a school-mentor and those with teaching responsibility for which they are appointed to a teaching post (i.e. a *fonctionnaire* or civil servant status) by the appointing authorities; they have the responsibility for one or more classes for between 4 and 6 hours a week.

(v) Examinations and Qualifications

Since they all follow the consecutive route, teachers in France take first of all a university degree, and then they go on to gain professional qualifications.

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There are two main examinations taken in the course of the three years at university, the content of which varies from institution to institution.

- DEUG/DEUTS normally taken at the end of the second year at university, en route for the Licence. 121,833 students passed this qualification in 2001.
- Licence at the end of third year. 130,759 students passed it in 2001.

With regard to the professional qualifications at the end of the first year at the IUFM, the selective examination which allows applicants to gain a place in the final training year is taken in two stages.

| Stage | Primary School Teachers | Secondary School Teachers |
|--|--|---|
| The first stage decides on the admissibility of the candidates | It includes two written papers. Candidates who score less than an agreed mark out of 20 in either paper are eliminated and may not go on to the second and final stage | It includes several written papers which depend on the specialism of the applicants. The 'admissibility' mark is decided by the panel of examiners according to the difficulty of the papers and the performance of the applicants. |
| The second stage is the 'admission' stage | It includes tests on each of the options listed in the syllabus. The first option is tested by a written paper, the second option and the professional topic are tested by an oral and finally PE is a practical. In addition, there is an optional written paper on the second option group- only the points scored above 10 (out of 20) are added to the candidates' total mark. | The examinations for the 'admission' stage are entirely oral. Some are academic and bear on the candidate's subject specialism. One paper is on the didactics of the subject studied by the candidates. |

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| | | |
|--|---|--|
| | All marks are added together, candidates are rank-ordered according to the total scored and offered a place up to the limit fixed by the number of places available as determined in advance. | |
| | department level (equivalent of national level county) | |

Because of the nature of the selective examination and the fact that the weightings vary according to candidates' specialisms, it is difficult to provide precise percentages for each part of the selection process, but it would appear the assessment tasks are as follows for applicants wishing to become primary school teachers.

| | Admissibility | Admissions |
|----------------|---|--|
| Written papers | 100 per cent (one in French and one in Maths) | 25 per cent (+10 per cent optional) |
| Practical | | For subjects other than PE, candidates prepare a piece but are not marked on it. It acts as a stimulus for a discussion 25 per cent (PE) |
| Oral | | 50 per cent |

For those wishing to become secondary school teachers the admissibility papers that are on subject knowledge are all written. The admission papers that include subject knowledge papers and a discussion on a professional topic are entirely oral.

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At the end of the second year, two processes take place:

- the 'training validation' which is the IUFM's final assessment; this takes into account the three aspects of the trainee teacher's work
- (1) the placement in responsibility which is practical and includes oral discussion of practice. Reports on the trainee teacher's performance and progress are written by IUFM and school.
- (2) the professional dissertation which is written and then viva-ed by a panel of academics.
- (3) the training modules which are really a record of attendance.

All these components are collected in the trainee teacher's dossier. The latter is examined by a small commission that summarises the evidence for the IUFM director to make the final decision. The IUFM director then informs the Académie jury of her/his decision.

- the 'titularisation' which is the bestowing of qualified teacher status promulgated by the Ministry for National Education through the *Rectorat* for secondary school teachers and *Inspection Académique* for primary school teacher.

In terms of professional qualification, the notion of qualifying by written and practical does not have any meaning in the French system.

One can look at the percentage of candidates who were admissible compared to those who sat the selective examination, or the number of those that were admitted on to the course and likely to be qualified at the end of the course compared to those that sat the selective examination.

| | Admissible / present | Admitted / present |
|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| Primary | 40.85% | 17.94% |
| Secondary (state) | 38.95% | 20.56% |
| Secondary (private) | 31.74% | 17.21% |

Another way of looking at the figures is to consider the number of posts to be filled and the proportion of those that were filled by those admitted into the IUFM.

| | Admissible / posts (state ed.) or contracts (private ed.) | Admitted / posts (state ed.) or contracts (private ed.) |
|---------------------|---|---|
| Primary | 227.93% | 100% |
| Secondary (state) | 186.64% | 98.49% |
| Secondary (private) | 111.18% | 60.30% |

The Minister for National Education (through the *Rectorat* for secondary school teachers and *Inspection Académique* for primary school teachers) is the controlling or qualifying body for the qualification in France. As explained above, there is no final examination: trainee teachers present a dossier on which they are assessed and a recommendation is made to the appropriate representative of the Minister for Education.

(vi) Proportion of Qualified Teachers

In 2002-3, in secondary education, 7.06 per cent of teachers were teaching without being 'titulaires'.

(vii) Breakdown of Training Qualifications*Primary*

| Academic qualification | Professional qualification |
|------------------------|---|
| Licence or equivalent | CERPE (<i>Concours externe de recrutement des professeurs des écoles</i>) |

Secondary

| Type of secondary education | Academic qualification | Professional qualification |
|--|---------------------------|--|
| General education in secondary schools | Licence or equivalent | CAPES (<i>Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire</i>) |
| | Masters degree (Maîtrise) | Agrégation |

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| | | |
|---|--|---|
| General and technical education in technical secondary schools | Licence or equivalent | CAPET (<i>Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement technique</i>) |
| General and/or vocational education in vocational secondary schools | Normally, licence or engineer diploma or equivalent Or 5 year professional experience in middle management If a licence does not exist for the subject to be taught A Superior Technician Qualification, or a Technology University Diploma (or equivalent) plus 5 year professional experience If the subject to be taught is not offered in Higher Education: baccalaureate (or equivalent) et 7 year professional experience Or a level 5 professional qualification (CAP, BEP) plus 8 year professional experience | CAPLP (<i>Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement professionnel du 2ème grade</i>) |
| PE teacher | Degree in physical and sport activities sciences and techniques (STAPS) or a diploma in physical and sport education (or equivalent) | CAPEPS (<i>Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de d'éducation physique</i>) |

(viii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

For state schools, trainees are trained in state institutions. For those private schools that are under state contracts, trainees are also trained in state institutions.

The funding is public: the Ministry for Education funds the *IUFMs* according to pre-established criteria and formulae. The funding is used to pay the fees for the students in the first year. In the second year trainee teachers are civil servants and the funding provides not only for the fees, but also for their salary and their expenses (as civil servants, they are given missions to teach in schools, and their travelling expenses need to be met).

The cost per 'normal' student in universities for 2002 was 6850 Euros, but the costs for first year *IUFM* students and second year trainee teachers are difficult to calculate as funding is given globally by the ministry to each *IUFM*. The state, i.e. the taxpayer, pays for the training of teachers in France.

IV Germany

Germany is a federal state consisting of 16 *Länder*. Even though there is a common basic structure in the education system, the individual *Land* is responsible for schooling, education and teacher education. To facilitate cooperation between the *Länder*, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) provides comparable standards in schooling and a common framework for teacher education.

(i) Admission Requirements

Teacher education follows the different levels and different types of school in Germany. Thus, in general there are teachers and teacher education for:

- Primary schools teachers (*Grundschule*);
- Lower secondary schools (*Hauptschule*, *Realschule*, *Gymnasium* and vocational school teachers);
- Higher secondary schools (*Gymnasium*);
- Vocational schools;
- The various school types for mentally or physically disabled students.

To become a teacher applicants must hold the higher education entrance qualification (*Abitur*) gained after 13 (12 in some *Länder*) years of schooling, which marks the end of secondary education (usually at age 19). The *Abitur* is a qualification (comparable to the baccalaureate) based on passing an examination in compulsory subjects (mother tongue, mathematics, at least one foreign language, at least one 'strong' option subject) and subsidiary subjects (at least one science subject, at least one humanities subject, etc) (Krueger, 2003).

(ii) Training Routes

All teachers receive their training in two stages:

An initial phase of teacher education at a university or college of art/music. The duration ranges from 3-4 years (primary school teaching) to 4-5 or even 6 years (higher secondary school *Gymnasium* teaching). The courses must include:

- the study of at least two subjects, subject areas or subject groups;
- the study of educational theory and psychology, plus a choice of additional study areas;
- and some practical work at schools.

A second phase of teacher education (*Vorbereitungsdienst*) consisting of a two-year practical training at teacher seminars and selected teacher education training schools. During this phase the prospective teacher is paid a trainee salary, and has to hold lessons that are not supervised by a teacher educator. At the end of this phase the student teacher will have to submit a major dissertation usually on the didactics of one of the subjects studied at university, and will have one practical teaching (lesson) examination in each subject, and oral examinations (on didactics and methodical issues, on educational theory, on legal issues of school and education, for example).

As a rule, teachers are public servants, i.e. they are employed by the state (represented by the one of the 16 *Länder*), with few exceptions in a very small private school sector. This explains why German teachers have to pass a state examination (1. *Staatsexamen*) to finish their university studies, and a second state examination (2. *Staatsexamen*) at the end of their practical training phase. Another academic degree (such as *Diplom*) would not be sufficient to become a state-employed teacher.

Between 1994 and 2002 the number of students who finished university with the first state examination for primary education was between approximately 3,300 and 4,800; in 2002 there were 3,300. In 2002 approximately 3,100 students obtained the first state examination for all or some of the school forms of secondary education. This was 170 (5.3per cent) less than the previous year and the lowest number since 1995 (KMK, 2002).

(iii) Percentage of Candidates

In Germany almost all of those students who want to become teachers study for the First State Examination (very few switch from *Diplom* to state examination) and subsequently enter the second phase of teacher education.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses

(a) Phase one of university-based primary training
(see also appendix 4, source: OFSTED, 1993)

There are three main elements of the course:

- the basic disciplines of education or *Grundwissenschaften*;
- one main subject and methods of teaching it (*Fachdidaktik*);
- general issues of teaching and learning (*Allgemeine Didaktik der Grundschule*).

The *General Didaktik* essentially covers the principles and practice of primary teaching: the content includes the early stages of reading and writing;

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approaches to topic work; and coverage of curriculum studies. Furthermore, two other subjects from the primary curriculum (beyond the student's main subject) are covered. There is also an element of school experience. The aim is to lay the foundation for the teacher to teach mixed-ability classes up to class 4 (age 10) and one subject up to class 10 (age 16). In terms of theories of education (*Grundwissenschaften*), the courses cover issues relating to the politics of education, psychology, sociology and pedagogy, principally referring to general theory of teaching and learning. This reflects the perceived need for theoretical underpinning of professional practice.

In terms of subject studies, there has been an emphasis on specialist and semi-specialist strengths combined with an understanding of the general principles of primary practice. The previous training at this level was compared with a 'Decathlonist' (*Zehnkämpfer*). The current training equips students with the in-depth study of one of the following subjects: mother tongue; mathematics; art, music; religious education; physical education. The following, and students have to choose two, can be studied in less depth: mother tongue; mathematics; or *Sachunterricht* (corresponding approximately to environmental studies). Students also have to be relatively competent in music. The intention is that teachers should be able to teach three subjects with reasonable competence, and one as a specialist.

In terms of school experience, the intention is to forge links between subject studies and education in school, and to initiate the student into phase two and school-based professional work. Primary students usually do two-week block practices in different schools which are located in the breaks between winter and summer semesters (when the schools are in session but the universities are not). The first practice (following the 3rd semester, but this may vary) includes mainly observation and familiarisation; the second (following the 5th semester, but this may vary) involves more class and subject teaching. The university tutor runs a preparatory seminar group and visits the students at least twice during the practice (in addition to an evaluation and marked report at the end), and there are also school-based mentors involved. Overall students have about 68 days of school experience in phase one.

(b) Phase one of university-based secondary training
(see also appendix 5, source: OFSTED, 1993)

Secondary teachers are trained for a type, or a combination of types, of secondary schools (*Hauptschule*, *Realschule*, *Gymnasium*). The length and content of training as well as the school experience reflect the final qualification.

Phase one training for the *Hauptschule* and the *Realschule* lasts a minimum of three years and is in two subjects (which are equally weighted). For the *Hauptschule* teachers also have to do a subsidiary subject, which in turn adds to the length of the course. Students usually spend one third of the course on general education, and one third on each of the two subjects. The subject work includes methods of teaching the subject in the type of school. As with primary teaching courses, the education component consists of basic principles such as psychology, sociology and pedagogy. Prospective *Gymnasium* teachers follow a course of at least four years, and in two subjects (a third subject can be added if certain conditions are met – usually through in-service training). The subject work includes an element of subject method. General education is a compulsory part, and it is mainly theoretical and carries about one-seventh of the marks allocated to the state examination.

The university subject courses provide a broad grounding in the first part of the course (*Grundstudium*) and more depth and specialisation in part two (*Hauptstudium*) following oral, written and practical examinations. The perceived outcome is that the students receive a high-level academic training in two subjects, with a largely theoretical education course added on (but with little weight).

The school experience is similar in aims and structure to that of primary education, and is organised in block practices of about six weeks in all. Thus contact with schools and professional preparation in phase one is roughly organised according to the levels of school in the tri-partite system. There are no official mentors in phase one. The school experience is perceived as providing the opportunity to observe lessons and to try out some teaching without the responsibility put on students in phase two.

(c) Phase two of university-based primary and secondary training
(see also appendix 6, source: OFSTED, 1993)

Phase two for primary and secondary teachers has been extended to 24 months. Access to phase two is not automatic. At times there is an element of selection or deferment. During phase two students receive a salary which is approximately 30 per cent of the relevant civil service grade.

In terms of structure and balance of content, students are required to spend between 8 and 10 hours a week at the *Seminar*. The number of hours taught in school increases gradually from 10 periods per week (45 minutes per period) of observation and supervised teaching during the 'introductory phase' (first three months) to 14 weekly periods in the 'differentiation phase' (next six months) to a maximum of 16 weekly periods over the next twelve months ('intensive phase'). During this last phase 10 weekly periods are

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taught independently by the student teacher. The final three months ('examination preparation phase') involve a reduced teaching load of about 10 hours a week, including some observation. The practical examination takes place in the last two months of the course.

In general phase two (*Vorbereitungsdienst*) is about 60 per cent school-based. The *Seminar* work divides between general education (*Allgemeines Seminar*) and the subject didactics part (*Fachseminar*). The balance between general education and method components can be seen from the following example of one *Land*: 35 education sessions over 2 years – 60 hours; 25 subject didactics sessions for each subject – 40 hours per subject – 80 hours of subject didactics work.

The *Allgemeines Seminar* is supposed to bridge theory and practice, and is required to cover topics such as the role of the teacher; behaviour, relationships and discipline; selection and structuring of teaching materials; use of audio-visual materials; textbooks; curricula and schemes of work; assessment; social and psychological dimensions of learning; the law of schooling in the *Land*.

The *Fachseminar* is lead by the *Fachleiter* who is usually an experienced practising teacher (in school) and teacher educator part-time. S/he is expected to provide a wealth of practical ideas for lesson planning and teaching, and act generally as a role model for student teachers. The quality of input by the *Fachleiter* is crucial. In general the *Fachseminar* deals with principles and methods of teaching a subject and with associated assessment strategies. Each *Land* provides guidelines for the content of the *Fachseminar* in each subject, and they are intended to provide for a professional and intellectually demanding education.

During the two years of school-based training, students are formally observed about 18 times by three different tutors: six times in each subject by the relevant *Fachleiter*; and six times by the *Seminarleiter*. Some of these observations are formative, others lead to assessment (marked out of six), which add to the cumulative profile of the student teacher and contributes, together with the final mark of the 'examination lesson', to the overall school practice grade.

The formal observations are a considerable source of pressure for the students. They may be observed by up to ten people, including the other student teachers, all of whom will join the subsequent 'post-mortem'. The final grade is heavily weighted towards practical performance, and it is a major factor in subsequent employment prospects.

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(v) Examinations and Qualifications

See previous sections

(vi) Proportion of Qualified Teachers

There are no unqualified teachers in the German system. German teachers are civil servants and they must have certain entry qualifications in addition to the state examinations. In terms of employment, having the necessary entry qualifications does not mean that students find a job in schools. Between 1997 and 2001 the number of qualified teachers varied between 21,600 and 22,900. In 2002 there were nearly 20,300, a slight fall of 1,300 (6.1 per cent). Furthermore, in 2002 26,900 teachers found employment (tenured positions), 3,700 (12.2 per cent) fewer than in 2001, and this includes employing those that did not get a place in earlier years. However, this is relatively high compared to the years 1992 to 1996 when only between 14,000 and 15,000 found a job in schools (KMK, 2002).

In general teachers are 'produced' regardless how many can be employed. This has led in earlier years (and decades) to a surplus of qualified teachers, except in a few shortage subjects.

(vii) Breakdown of Training Qualifications

For both primary and secondary school teachers, the first and second state examination is a necessary requirement for being employed as a teacher in schools.

(viii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

All education and training, for both primary and secondary teacher education, is paid for by the state and the *Land* where the student is studying. In Phase two students become 'nearly civil servants', with a civil service related pay (see above).

(For additional material, see appendices 4-6.)

V Netherlands

(i) Admission Requirements

To be accepted for teacher training in the Netherlands candidates must have passed the final examination that marks the end of secondary education (at 16-18 years old) at the levels of:

- VWO (= preparatory academic education): this prepares for university education
- HAVO (= senior general secondary education): this prepares for higher professional education
- VMBO (= pre-vocational secondary education).

Prospective teachers may then either receive higher professional training, or go to a university. *Hoger beroepsonderwijs* (higher professional training: HBO) takes place in *hogescholen* (institutes for higher professional education). Applicants wishing to be admitted to the teacher training section of one of the nine institutes for higher professional education must possess one of the following:

- a senior general secondary education (HAVO) certificate
- a middle-management or specialist training certificate
- a vocational secondary education certificate (MBO)
- a pre-university education (VWO) certificate.

Admission to university is possible with one of:

- a pre-university (VWO) school-leaving certificate
- an HBO qualification
- HBO propaedeutic certificate.

(ii) Training Routes

There are three main training routes: -

- (1) A university undergraduate course leading to a degree in the individual subjects to be taught, followed by a year (or more) of professional and practical training. This is known as the consecutive model and candidates are taught in the subject faculties of the universities by subject specialists and take the same university examinations leading to the "doctoraal" degree.

They then take a professional qualification, a post graduate 1-year ULO (Universitaire lerarenopleiding) qualification is *eerstegraads leraar*, over a period of one year This is a secondary school teacher qualification, for all levels in secondary school and tertiary education.

In 2001-02, 26.5per cent of trainees who qualified to teach in secondary schools qualified on the consecutive model of secondary school teacher initial training.

- (2) The second route is that offered by the teacher training institutions at Hoger Beroepsonderwijs (HBO or Universities of professional education) where a teacher training course is taken over 4 years (or more) and covers, simultaneously, the subjects to be taught and the professional studies, leading to qualification: Tweedegraads Leraar Voortgezet onderwijs (Secondary education general, vocational and adult). This is known as the *concurrent* model. In 2001-02, 73.5 per cent of trainees who qualified to teach in secondary schools qualified on the concurrent model of secondary school teacher initial training.
- (3) The third route is that offered by the teacher training institutions at Hoger Beroepsonderwijs (HBO or Universities of professional education) where a teacher training course is taken over 4 years (or more) and covers, simultaneously, the subjects to be taught and the professional studies, leading to qualification: Basisschool leraar (Teachers at primary levels). This is known as the concurrent model. In 2001-02, all trainees who qualified to teach in primary schools qualified on the concurrent model of primary school teacher initial training.

| | | | |
|---------------|---------------------|---|--------------------|
| | One in universities | Two in HBOs (institutes for higher professional education). | |
| Model | Consecutive model | Concurrent model | |
| Qualification | Eerstegraads leraar | Tweedegraads Leraar Voortgezet onderwijs | Basisschool leraar |

| | | | |
|-------------------|--|--|---|
| Qualification | Secondary Teacher Education Grade 1 | Secondary Teacher Education Grade 2 | Primary Teacher Education |
| For teaching at | Secondary level | Secondary level | Primary level |
| Study | One subject studies at undergraduate level for four years + one year post-graduate professional training | One subject + professional training over 4 years (or more) | All subjects + professional training over 4 years (or more) |
| Can teach in | upper secondary schools (HAVO 4-5, VWO 4-6) | lower secondary schools VMBO, HAVO 1-3, VWO 1-3 | primary schools |
| Entry requirement | VWO to enter University The equivalent of a degree (4 years studying a subject at University) | HAVO to enter HBO | |

(iii) Proportion of Candidates

In 2001-02, according to figures on the CBS website:

- 4,340 students were registered on the postgraduate year for training as secondary school teachers on the consecutive model at university, (830 qualified).
- 13,460 students were registered across the four years of the course to train as secondary school teachers at HBOs, (2,310 qualified).
- 30,890 students were registered across the four years of the course to train as primary school teachers at HBOs, (6,140 qualified).

According to figures given by the Dutch Ministry for Education, in 2001 the proportion of newly qualified teachers who joined the primary schools teaching force was 7.67 per cent.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses

In Holland all ITT is directly related to competences of the trainee teacher and hence all students build up a portfolio with evidence of competences achieved, over the four years or over the post degree training year. Teaching practice at all levels (in both university and hogescholen) is increasingly important and ITT institutions and practice schools take an increasingly larger part in the training of teachers. Each institution is autonomous in determining the content of courses as long as they target for final attainment the competences of the teacher.

(a) The Consecutive Model

Students following this path take subject courses at university, followed or supplemented by professional training. One subject is studied for four years at university. The professional and practical course for one year (1600 hours) is made up of :

- Professional studies: subject methodology for secondary education, pedagogy and a course on school education and policies.
- Practical training (teaching practice).

During the degree course, the entire time is devoted to studying the subject chosen. During the year dedicated to professional training, the work done during the school practice is directly linked to modules studied at university. The whole final year course consists of:

- Professional studies : 50 per cent
- Practical training (teaching practice) : 50 per cent

(b) The Concurrent Model

Students following this path go to either a teacher-training institute for primary teaching or for secondary teaching. In the primary teaching institutions, the students follow a four-year course that is aimed at primary education (PABO). The precise contents of courses differ according to institutions, but generally they include:

- All school subjects are studied over the four years
- The professional and practical part of the course also studied over four years includes items such as general didactics; ICT; subjects methodology; child psychology; specialist courses such as special needs or the multicultural classroom. It also includes teaching practice.

Generally the contents are split equally between the subject studies (50 per cent) and the professional studies (50 per cent) and the teaching practice represents 25 per cent in each of the four years (Snoek and Wielenga, 2001, p.15).

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The precise contents of courses in the secondary teaching institutions differ, but generally they include:

- One subject is studied over the four years
- The professional and practical part of the course also spread over four years includes items such as general didactics; ICT; subject methodology; child and adolescent psychology; specialist courses such as special needs or the multicultural classroom. It also includes teaching practice.

75 per cent of time is spent on subject studies and professional studies, evenly split between the two. The remaining 25 per cent is given to teaching practice each year.

An example: The percentages given below are for the Hogeschool Rotterdam⁵.

Proportion of time for subject study (e.g. maths or science) per year:

year 1: 28 x 40 hours = 1120 hours.

year 2: 24 x 40 hours = 960 hours

year 3: 6 x 40 hours = 240 hours

year 4: 5 x 40 hours = 200 hours

Proportion of time for professional studies in a given year:

year 1: 12 x 40 hours = 480 hours

year 2: 14 x 40 hours = 560 hours

year 3: 20 x 40 hours = 800 hours

year 4: 16 x 40 hours = 640 hours

Proportion of time for practical training in a given year.

year 1: 2 x 40 hours = 80 hours

year 2: 4 x 40 hours = 160 hours

year 3: 16 x 40 hours = 640 hours

year 4: 21 x 40 hours = 840 hours

| | Year 1 | | Year 2 | | Year 3 | | Year 4 | |
|----------|--------|----------|--------|----------|--------|----------|--------|----------|
| | Hours | per cent |
| Ma/Sc | 1120 | 66.6 | 960 | 57.1 | 240 | 14.3 | 200 | 11.9 |
| Prof St | 480 | 28.6 | 560 | 33.3 | 800 | 47.6 | 640 | 38.1 |
| Pract Tr | 80 | 4.8 | 160 | 9.6 | 640 | 38.1 | 840 | 50.0 |
| Totals | 1680 | 100.0 | 1680 | 100.0 | 1680 | 100.0 | 1680 | 100.0 |

⁵ Study guides with description of subject and professional courses can be obtained from Hogeschool Rotterdam, Lerarenopleiding 2e grads en PABO: Postbus 2680, 3000 CR Rotterdam.

(v) Examinations and Qualifications

The undergraduate qualification at the end of the 4-year course is awarded by universities according to regulations agreed with by the relevant examining board and the study programme committee.

There is, by contrast, no examination to sanction the end of any of the teacher training routes in the Netherlands: 'There is no national examination and no national curricula for teachers education in the Netherlands' (Snoek et al, 2003).

As stated above, in the Netherlands all ITT is directly related to competences of the trainee and hence all students build up a portfolio with evidence of competences achieved, over the four years of the concurrent courses or over the post-degree training year. The portfolio varies according to the institutions. It reflects the quality of the student's progress towards the competences and the quality of their teaching.

The contents of portfolios vary from university to university and from HBO to HBO. The portfolio can include items such as:

- reports of observation of classroom activities, pupil behaviour and mentor's and peers' teaching;
- the weekly diary in which students report and reflect on their progress, strengths and weaknesses;
- their final reflective and self- evaluative report;
- observation reports written by the mentor;
- classroom action reports;
- their classroom action reports;
- a final reflective and self-evaluative report.

In the case of HBOs, at the end of each year the teaching practice undertaken during that year is assessed and ranks as an entry requirement for next year's teaching practice. Assessment is carried out jointly by mentor and Hogeschool supervisor. However in case of disagreement the Hogeschool supervisor or representative bears ultimate responsibility. At HBO lerarenopleiding (teacher training departments) the system 'Pass or Fail' is used so no highest or lowest marks can be given. The control body for the qualifications is the central government, the Ministry of Education. Samples of final examination papers cannot be supplied.

(vi) Breakdown of Training Qualifications

Primary: Leraar Basisonderwijs

Secondary: Tweedegraads leraar (VMBO, lower years of HAVO or VWO and vocational and adult education)

Secondary at all levels and tertiary: Eerste graads leraar

(vii) Proportion of Qualified Teachers

See previous sections

(viii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

The Dutch education system combines a centralised education policy with decentralised administration and management of schools and institutions. Central government controls by means of legislation and regulations. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (OCW) exercises overall responsibility and oversees the structure and funding of the system, inspection and student support. The overall budget for higher professional education is allocated to the individual institutions on the basis of a set formula. Apart from the central government grant, the HBO institutions receive income from a variety of sources, including tuition fees and income from services to third parties (mainly contract teaching).

Figures are available about the costs of the two models:

Consecutive Model

Figures provided by the Minister for Education website (OCenW Facts and Figures 2003), for Universities are as follows:

| Amount converted into student years (x 1000 Euros) | In 2001 |
|--|---------|
| Central government grant for teaching, per student | 4.9 |
| Tuition fees per student (estimates) | [1.3] |
| Institutional grant per student | 6.2 |

No breakdown available for students in their professional training year.

Concurrent Model

Figures provided by the Minister for Education website (OCenW Facts and Figures 2003), for higher professional education (HBO) are as follows:

| Expenditure by student (x 1000 Euros) | In 2001 |
|---------------------------------------|---------|
| Expenditure by student | 4.9 |
| Of which accommodation costs | 0.6 |
| Project expenditure | 0.2 |
| Tuition fees per student (estimated) | 1.3* |
| Institutional costs per student | 6.2 |

Price level 2001

| | |
|---------------------------------|-----|
| Government spending per student | 4.9 |
|---------------------------------|-----|

* = tuition fees per student: revenue from tuition fees (estimated for 2001) divided by number of students per calendar year

Who, then, pays? Mostly the taxpayer through the government funding, but also the aspirant teachers: all students at all levels pay tuition fees. These are established nationwide. Students pay their fees to a central bureau.

VI

New Zealand

There are just over twenty teacher education providers in New Zealand. Of these, eleven offer both primary and secondary courses and four institutions offer specialist courses for early years and primary teachers who wish to teach in Māori medium schools. In particular, secondary teachers will be in great demand over the next decade in New Zealand as secondary school rolls grow and many existing teachers reach retirement age. As is common in many parts of the world, subject specialists in maths, science, technology and computing, but also physical education and English, are particularly needed.

(i) Admission Requirements

To become a teacher in New Zealand, a school leaver must be at least 17 years of age and have the equivalent of three A levels⁶. There is some flexibility for mature students, especially Māori speakers, who may gain provisional admission to the course on lower grades. Graduate students must have a degree (or equivalent) recognised by the New Zealand Qualifications Authority. Although admission requirements vary between teacher education providers, they all place importance on personal qualities, communication skills and background experiences in addition to a degree.

(ii) Training Routes

There are three types of teaching qualification. The Diploma in Teaching is the basic teaching qualification accepted by the New Zealand Teachers Council for registration. This is offered over three years full-time and is available to students with 20 points in the Sixth Form Certificate. Other routes offered are the Bachelor of Education (sometimes designated as Bachelor of Teaching), which is sometimes offered in combination with other degrees such as BA or BSc in a so-called 'conjoint' mode. These are typically three-year or sometimes four-year courses. The Graduate Diploma of Teaching is the teaching qualification available to graduates who wish to enter teaching after completing their degree and last, usually one year, sometimes two. Many institutions offer part-time and distance-learning

⁶ Either three 'C' grades or better and at least a grade 5 in Sixth Form Certificate English and/or Māori, or at least 40 credits at level 3 equivalent to A/S and A level in England on the National Curriculum Framework for New Zealand, with at least 12 credits at level 1 and 12 credits at level 2 in English and/or Māori.

options. A few offer a flexible route where prior experience can be counted as credit in the programme of study.

(iii) Percentage of Candidates

In 2001 (the last year for which figures are available) 8,451 students were training to become primary teachers compared with only 1,645 training for secondary teaching. This 5:1 ratio has increased from 4:1 over 10 years, though the numbers training for teaching in all phases has more than doubled in that time.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses

(a) The Consecutive Model

For students intending to become secondary teachers, following a degree in the secondary subject that the student wishes to teach, the (usually) one-year Graduate Diploma of Teaching commonly follows a 'reflective practitioner' model. For example, at Whitiria Community Polytechnic:

The diploma is delivered through four units: the theoretical foundation of teaching and learning in New Zealand; curriculum and subject studies; the classroom programme; and teaching as a profession. These units are integrated so that students investigate a variety of theoretical models and their application to teaching and learning in secondary schools. The programme of study is focused on developing confident, competent and professional teachers who have a commitment to high standards of teaching within a context of ethical practice and accountability. Lectures are interactive and led by highly qualified, competent, practising teachers. There is also a large independent learning component to the diploma, as well as an emphasis on the interrelationship between theory and professional practice. Teaching placements are arranged for each term in a variety of secondary schools (TeachNZ Secondary 2003).

Similarly at Massey University, the Graduate Diploma of Teaching (Primary):

| Graduate Diploma of Teaching (Primary): - 130 pts | |
|---|--|
| Teaching experience -75pts 37.5 pts in Teaching experience 37.5 pts in Teaching Studies | Curriculum Knowledge and Practice - 55pts 55 pts in Studies in curriculum |

Teaching experience is for 12 weeks in blocks of 3 or 4 weeks, with some day placements for a further 3 weeks. Or

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| Graduate Diploma of Teaching (Secondary): - 100 pts | |
|---|---|
| Professional Practice and Educational studies – 62.5pts 25 pts in Teaching experience 37.5 pts in Integrated Teaching Studies | Curriculum Knowledge and Practice – 37.5pts 12.5 pts in Curriculum Studies 25pts in Subject studies |

Teaching experience is for 15 weeks in blocks of three or four weeks. The secondary courses include the teaching of pupils in the upper secondary years.

(b) The Concurrent Model (Massey University)

The three-year primary programme is offered in three modes of delivery: internal, external, or flexible. The papers which make up the BEd (Tchg). Primary degrees encompass studies in: the teaching profession, general education, historical aspects of education, New Zealand society, Te Reo and Tikanga Māori, child development, and multicultural education. Students study all aspects of the New Zealand curriculum and are offered opportunities to study a selected curriculum in depth. Within the degree students choose to study papers in Studies in Subjects for Teachers, one of which may be studied to 300-level.

| Year 1 | Year 2 | Year 3 |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| Professional Enquiry and Practice 1 | Professional Enquiry and Practice 2 | Professional Enquiry and Practice 3 |
| Education in New Zealand | Mathematics Curriculum 2 | Education of Students of Diverse Abilities |
| Te Reo Maori Curriculum: | Social Studies Curriculum | Integrated Curriculum: Science and Technology |
| Te Aka Purapura | Science Curriculum | Integrated Curriculum: Language and arts |
| Technology Curriculum | Health and Physical Education Curriculum | Studies in subjects for teachers (elective) 200 level |

| | | |
|---------------------------------|---|--|
| The Arts Curriculum | Māori Education for Teachers | Education studies (elective) |
| English Curriculum | Reading Curriculum | Education studies or Studies in subjects for teachers (elective) 300 level |
| Understanding Child development | Studies in subjects for teachers (elective) 200 level | Advanced Curriculum Studies |
| Mathematics Curriculum 1 | | |

Each of the courses here (known as ‘papers’ in New Zealand) carry 12.5 points. The University uses a rule of thumb that suggests that 50 points per semester means 50 hours of study per week; about 100 points per year. On school placement, students are expected to be in school during the working day from 8am to 5pm.

(v) Examinations and Qualifications

In the consecutive model, courses are typically in modules of 12.5 points or 25 points. There are usually no written exams. Assessment is by observation and essay.

In the concurrent model, those courses leading to a Bachelor of Education degree have a mixture of assessment methods. Practical subjects such as ‘the arts curriculum’ and ‘the technology curriculum’ and ‘professional enquiry and practice’ are typically assessed by observation and portfolio. However English curriculum, maths curriculum, te reo Māori curriculum, and topics such as understanding child development are typically assessed by a written examination.

(vi) Proportion of Teachers

According to the New Zealand Ministry of Education statistics, at 1 March 2002 there were 46,208 people (41,579 FTTE) employed in teaching positions at New Zealand state schools. This represents an increase of 292 teachers (297 FTTE) since March 2000. 77 per cent of these teachers were employed in permanent positions. In addition there were 2,330 teachers (2097 FTTE) employed at private schools. Of the state schoolteachers, 72 per cent were

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female. Females held nearly 60 per cent of management positions, though only 37 per cent of principals were female. In the private sector, almost 64 per cent of schoolteachers were female. 60 per cent of all state schoolteachers were aged between 40 and 60 years of age. The average age of permanent teachers was 44 years. (Ministry of Education 2003)

(vii) Breakdown of Training Qualifications

The law in New Zealand requires all teachers in primary and secondary schools to be registered with the Teachers Council. New graduates are given provisional registration and they must complete two years satisfactory and uninterrupted employment to gain full registration.

The three types of teaching qualification, available to both secondary and primary teachers: -

- The Diploma in Teaching available mainly to primary teachers, particularly those who can offer Māori medium teaching.
- The Bachelor of Education offered in primary and early years and in certain secondary subjects such as physical education and technology education where there is a need for a particular subject skills element of training
- The 'Graduate Diploma of Teaching' which is the common one-year post-graduate teaching qualification available after following a one-year course for secondary or primary teaching. It is also available as a two-year option for those wanting bilingual training.

(viii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

The fees for teacher education courses, although set by individual educational institutions, whether at undergraduate or post-graduate level, are in the region of \$NZ 3,000 to 4,500 per year. Materials, accommodation and travel are on top of this fee. Students pay their own fees with three forms of financial assistance available in 2003-4:

- Secondary subject trainee allowances, a flat rate of \$NZ 10,000 to all graduates and near graduates committed to becoming teachers of biology, chemistry, computing, English, maths, physical education, physics and te reo Māori.
- Student loan relief which provides \$NZ2,500 to secondary teachers of maths, te reo Māori and physics in each of their second, third and fourth years of teaching. This is used to pay off the teachers' student loan or is a taxable addition to their salary if they have no loan. In some

points of New Zealand that find it hard to recruit staff, this scheme is also extended to teachers of English, chemistry, PE, computing or biology.

TeachNZ scholarships worth \$NZ10,000 and restricted in number. In 2003, for example, there were 495 such scholarships. These are awarded to people from rural areas who want to teach in rural schools; Māori or Pasifika people and those wanting to teach primary or secondary subjects in the Māori language.

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN FORMAL QUALIFICATIONS
AT TERTIARY EDUCATION PROVIDERS AT 31 JULY 2001

New Zealand

| Qualification and Stage | Polytechnics | | Colleges of Education | | Universities | | Wananga | | Private Training Establishments | | Total | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------------|--------|-----------------------|--------|--------------|--------|---------|--------|---------------------------------|--------|-------|--------|-----|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|
| | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | | | | | | | |
| Teacher Education: Primary | Stage 1 | 13 | 44 | 57 | 432 | 1,657 | 2,089 | 211 | 760 | 971 | - | - | 32 | 95 | 127 | 688 | 2,556 | 3,244 | |
| | Stage 2 | - | - | 277 | 937 | 1,214 | 166 | 772 | 938 | - | - | - | - | 21 | 28 | 49 | 464 | 1,737 | 2,201 |
| | Stage 3 | - | - | 256 | 960 | 1,216 | 71 | 439 | 510 | - | - | - | - | 9 | 35 | 44 | 336 | 1,434 | 1,770 |
| | Stage 4+ | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 3 | 4 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 7 |
| | Not Stated | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2 | 3 | 50 | 181 | 231 | - | - | - | - | - | 51 | 183 |
| Total..... | 13 | 44 | 57 | 966 | 3,556 | 4,322 | 499 | 2,155 | 2,654 | - | - | - | 62 | 162 | 224 | 1,540 | 5,917 | 7,457 | |
| Teacher Education: Secondary | Stage 1 | 38 | 26 | 64 | 310 | 420 | 730 | 135 | 172 | 307 | - | - | 14 | 12 | 26 | 497 | 630 | 1,127 | |
| | Stage 2 | - | - | - | 42 | 53 | 95 | 25 | 42 | 67 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 67 | 95 | 162 |
| | Stage 3 | - | - | 22 | 57 | 79 | 54 | 95 | 149 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 76 | 152 | 228 |
| | Stage 4+ | - | - | - | 18 | 27 | 45 | 2 | 7 | 9 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 20 | 34 | 54 |
| | Not Stated | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 29 | 45 | 74 | - | - | - | - | - | 29 | 45 | 74 |
| Total..... | 38 | 26 | 64 | 392 | 557 | 949 | 245 | 361 | 606 | - | - | - | 14 | 12 | 26 | 689 | 956 | 1,645 | |
| Bilingual Early Childhood Teacher Training | Stage 1 | - | - | - | 1 | 52 | 53 | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 54 | 55 |
| | Stage 2 | - | - | - | - | 42 | 42 | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | 53 | 55 | 2 | 95 | 97 | |
| | Stage 3 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 8 | 67 | 75 | 8 | 67 | 75 | |
| | Not Stated | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 7 | 8 | 11 | 80 | 91 | |
| | Total..... | - | - | - | 1 | 94 | 95 | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 8 | 9 | 21 | 201 | 222 | 23 |
| Bilingual Immersion Primary Teacher Training | Stage 1 | - | - | - | 13 | 39 | 52 | - | - | - | - | - | 11 | 53 | 64 | - | - | 24 | 92 |
| | Stage 2 | 53 | 256 | 309 | 11 | 35 | 46 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 64 | 291 | 355 |
| | Stage 3 | 1 | 17 | 18 | 10 | 55 | 65 | - | - | - | - | - | 22 | 18 | 40 | - | 33 | 90 | |
| | Total..... | 54 | 273 | 327 | 34 | 129 | 163 | - | - | - | - | - | 33 | 71 | 104 | - | 121 | 473 | |
| | Not Stated | 3 | 7 | 10 | - | - | - | 6 | 12 | 18 | - | - | 5 | 23 | 28 | 14 | 42 | 56 | |
| Total | Stage 1 | 62 | 332 | 394 | 760 | 2,599 | 3,359 | 363 | 1,048 | 1,411 | 11 | 54 | 65 | 53 | 472 | 525 | 1,249 | 4,505 | |
| | Stage 2 | 61 | 524 | 585 | 334 | 1,305 | 1,639 | 202 | 944 | 1,146 | - | - | 33 | 349 | 382 | 630 | 3,122 | 3,752 | |
| | Stage 3 | 5 | 250 | 255 | 291 | 1,302 | 1,593 | 154 | 691 | 845 | 22 | 18 | 40 | 32 | 339 | 371 | 504 | 2,600 | |
| | Stage 4+ | - | 82 | 82 | 18 | 27 | 45 | 5 | 27 | 32 | - | - | - | - | 4 | 4 | 23 | 140 | |
| | Not Stated | - | 37 | 37 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 89 | 268 | 357 | 1 | 7 | 8 | 11 | 81 | 92 | 102 | 395 | |
| Total..... | 128 | 1,225 | 1,353 | 1,404 | 5,235 | 6,639 | 813 | 2,978 | 3,791 | 34 | 79 | 113 | 129 | 1,245 | 1,374 | 2,508 | 10,762 | | |

Tertiary Education Statistics, Ministry of Education 2001 adapted FB 2003

VII

Scotland

The training of teachers in Scotland is through either concurrent, integrated academic and pedagogical training, or through a consecutive model where a subject specialist degree is followed by a teaching qualification.

(i) Admission Requirements

Under the terms of the Teachers (Education, Training and Recommendation for Registration) (Scotland) Regulations 1993, (DfEE, 1993) Scottish ministers, in consultation with the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS), decide the entry requirements for admission to teacher education courses in Scotland. The requirements are set out in terms of the levels and credit values that are defined by the Scottish credit and qualifications framework (SCQF) (appendix 7).

For primary candidates the requirements are as follows:

Concurrent training (four-year Bachelor of Education degree (BED)):

- National qualifications course awards at level 6 (or an equivalent), in at least three subjects (one of these course awards must be in English at level 6 (or an equivalent)); and
- National qualifications course awards in two other subjects (one of the awards must be in mathematics at level 5 (or an equivalent)).

Consecutive training (i.e. the one-year PGCE course) the applicant must have:

- a degree validated by a higher education institution in the United Kingdom or a degree of an equivalent standard from an institution outside the United Kingdom;
- a National qualifications course award in English at level 6 (or an equivalent); and
- a National qualifications course award in mathematics at level 5 (or an equivalent).

Higher education institutions (HEIs) are required to ensure that candidates' educational backgrounds (including the content of their degrees) provide a good basis for becoming a primary teacher. They therefore look for evidence that the applicant has studied at least two of the following areas (in addition to English and mathematics) - science, social studies, expressive arts,

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religious and moral education, technology and modern foreign languages. For courses in physical education and music, applicants need to demonstrate competence in practical skills.

For secondary candidates the requirements are as follows:

- For BEd or combined (concurrent) degree courses, HEIs will assess applications for admission to a BEd or combined (concurrent) degree course using the entrance requirements of their institutions. In addition, applicants for admission to BEd courses must have a national qualifications course award in English at level 6 (or an equivalent).

In combined (concurrent) degree courses students do not need to decide straightaway whether to follow the parts of the course which lead to a secondary teaching qualification. However, to enter the teacher education parts of these courses, students must have a National Qualifications Course award in English at level 6 (or an equivalent).

The minimum entry requirements for graduates pursuing consecutive training and entering a PGCE (secondary) courses are:

- A degree validated by a higher education institution in the United Kingdom or a degree of an equivalent standard from an institution outside the United Kingdom. The degree should normally contain 120 SCOTCAT credit points relevant to the teaching qualification or qualifications being studied. 40 of the credit points must have been studied at SCQF level 8 or above and 40 credit points must be at SCQF level 9 or above.
- Some credit points are acceptable for entry to more than one teaching subject. If a student wants a teaching qualification in more than one subject, appropriate credit points can be counted for entry to all subjects.

For most subjects, 120 credit points must be relevant to the teaching subject, with 80 credit points being in the subject or subjects the student wants to teach. The other 40 credit points should be related generally to the subject. However, the following subjects need 120 credit points in the subject: business education; home economics; modern foreign languages; modern studies; physical education and technological education.

Teaching qualifications (secondary education) can be awarded in the subjects listed below. Those subjects marked with an asterisk (*) have specific entry requirements. For full details of the subject specific requirements, see Scottish Executive 2003a.

| | | |
|------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|
| Art and design | Drama | Latin |
| Gaelic* | Economics | Mathematics |
| Biology with Science | English* | Media studies* |
| Business education* | Modern studies* | Modern foreign languages* |
| Chemistry with Science | Geography | Physical education* |
| Classics* | Greek | Physics with Science |
| Community languages* | History | Religious education |
| Computing* | Home economics | Technological education* |

There are additional requirements for some courses – for example for the first foreign language, modern foreign languages applicants need to have lived for six months in a country where the language is spoken.

Candidates for admission to teacher education programmes are also required by the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTC) to undergo a medical examination and be declared 'fit to teach'. Students studying for a BEd degree must also undergo a further medical examination in their final year. Students must be declared 'fit to teach' at this stage if they are to be admitted to the Register of Teachers. These examinations are conducted under the terms of The Teachers (Education, Training and Recommendation for Registration) (Scotland) Regulations 1993 (DfEE 1993).

(ii) Training Routes

There are three main training routes, one following the consecutive model of training; the other two, the BEd and combined degree routes, comprise concurrent subject study and teacher education.

(a) The Consecutive Model

A university undergraduate course leads to a degree in the individual subjects to be taught, and is followed by a year's professional and practical training. Candidates are taught in the subject faculties of the universities by subject specialists and take the university examinations leading to a BA (Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (Bachelor of Science) degree. Scottish undergraduate honours degrees are normally four year degree courses. The candidate then takes a professional qualification, the Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) over one year.

Of those qualifying to teach in 2002, having trained through the consecutive route, 59 per cent of candidates qualified for secondary teaching and 41 per cent for primary teaching (Scottish Executive, 2003b).

(b) The Concurrent Model

Candidates in Scotland may be awarded a teaching qualification (TQ) (primary education) after successful completion of a four-year Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree. In these courses, the degree awarded at the end of the course is also a TQ.

A teaching qualification (secondary education) is awarded to candidates who have successfully completed either:

- a four-year course leading to a BEd degree in music, physical education or technological education, or
- a combined degree, which includes studying a subject, studying education, and school experience. These combined, concurrent degrees lead to a named subject degree and a teaching qualification in that subject is awarded separately: for example, BSc maths with teaching qualification, BSc physics with teaching qualification, MA (Hons) in European Languages with Education, or a BSc in a named subject together with a diploma in education. (For details of combined courses available, see Scottish Office, 2002.) Candidates on these concurrent courses do not have to decide whether to undertake a teaching qualification until towards the end of the second year of the course. Those deciding not to pursue the teaching qualification can continue to qualify with a degree in the subject studied.

Of those qualifying to teach in 2002, having trained on a four-year BEd course, 32 per cent of candidates qualified for secondary teaching and 68 per cent for primary teaching (Scottish Executive, 2003b).

(iii) Percentage of Candidates

Scottish Executive data for 2001-2 provide details of those training on BEd and postgraduate courses (those on combined courses are not listed under initial teacher education). Of the candidates listed in this data, the percentage of newly qualified teachers in 2002 having taken a university degree course in a subject (or subjects) and followed this with a professional qualification, is 70 per cent. Correspondingly, the percentage of candidates who qualified having followed the training institution BEd route was 30 per cent. (Scottish Executive, 2003b).

Of those following postgraduate courses of teacher training in 2001/2, 87 per cent gained a teaching qualification. (Scottish Executive 2003b, table 17). For the four-year BEd route, 74 per cent of those who started training in 1998 gained a teaching qualification in 2002 (Scottish Executive 2003b, table 17).

In 2002, the number of candidates gaining teaching qualifications was 2367 (Scottish executive 2003b).⁷ The number of full-time equivalent teachers in Scottish schools in September 2002 was 53,282 (Scottish Executive 2003d). Therefore the percentage of newly qualified candidates in 2002 as a compared to the teaching workforce was approximately 4 per cent.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses

The document 'Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Courses in Scotland' (SOEID 1998) 'sets out the Secretary of State's policy on the content, nature and duration of courses leading to teaching qualifications (TQs) for the primary and secondary sectors'.

All courses must comprise professional studies, curriculum studies and school placement experience. All courses of teacher training in Scotland are required to support students in acquiring a set of generic competences that are set out in the Guidelines. These cover the areas of knowledge, understanding, critical thinking and practical skills. The list of competences is appended here (appendix 8).

(a) The Consecutive Model

Within the university degree course, 100 per cent of time is spent on subject study.

The guidelines stipulate that PGCE (Primary) courses must be full-time, lasting for a minimum of 36 weeks, or the equivalent on a part-time basis. A minimum of 50 per cent of the course (18 weeks) must be devoted to school experience, which must occur in each school term, with a block of at least 4 weeks taking place towards the end of the course. The requirements state that 'the course should enable all students to build on relevant elements of their degree course for use in primary schools'. A useful overview of the curriculum is provided in the document 'National Dossier on Education and Training in Scotland' (Scottish Executive, 2003c).

The PGCE (Secondary) course must be a full-time course lasting for a minimum of 36 weeks, or the equivalent on a part-time basis. A minimum of 50 per cent of the course (18 weeks) must be devoted to school experience, which must take place in each school term with a block of at least 4 weeks taking place towards the end of the course. In the case of students seeking a qualification in more than one subject, the arrangements for school experience must reflect the need for students to be competent in teaching each subject.

⁷ This does not include those who gained teaching qualifications through combined degree courses.

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Courses must be designed to prepare teachers to teach pupils of the 12-18 age range in one or more subjects and will lead to a TQ (Secondary Education) in a subject (or subjects). For students following a PGCE (Secondary) course leading to a TQ in physics, chemistry or biology, there is a requirement for the curriculum to include at least 60 hours of study in general science to prepare them to teach general science from S1 to S4. All secondary PGCE courses are required to prepare students to identify and meet pupils' needs in the language and mathematical aspects of their subject(s).

Details of the Moray House PGCE programme are appended as an example (appendix 10).

(b) The Concurrent model*Bachelor of Education (Primary Education) Degrees*

BEd courses leading to a TQ (Primary Education) must involve four academic years of full-time study or equivalent part-time study. A minimum of 30 weeks (21 per cent) must be devoted to school experience. More than half of this experience must take place during the final two years of the course, with a substantial block taking place in the last year.

The curriculum must address curriculum studies, pedagogical studies and school experience. There is a requirement for curriculum studies to comprise at least one third of the course. Within this, students must have sufficient experience of studying English language and mathematics to gain the knowledge, understanding and skills to teach these subjects to Level F. All students are required to undertake subject specialist study equivalent to 150 hours of study in at least one of the following areas:

- Environmental Studies
- Expressive Arts
- Religious and Moral Education
- Personal and Social Development
- Modern Foreign Language
- Teaching Pupils with Special Educational Needs
- Pre-school Education
- Lower Primary
- Upper Primary
- Gaelic Medium Education
- Education for Sustainable Development

Details of the BEd programme of Strathclyde University are appended as an example (appendix 9).

*Report**Bachelor of Education (BEd) Courses*

Such courses must involve four academic years, full-time study or the equivalent part-time study. A minimum of 30 weeks (21 per cent) must be devoted to school experience. In the case of the BEd (Technology) a minimum of 24 weeks must be spent on school experience and a further minimum of 6 weeks on industrial placement. The industrial placements must be an integral part of the course and should be drawn from a range of industrial, commercial and service organisations.

Subject specialist study must be such as to enable institutions to ensure that, on graduation, students' level of academic attainment in their subject specialism complies with the relevant PGCE (Secondary) entry requirements in the 'Memorandum on Entry Requirements to Courses of Teacher Education in Scotland'.

Combined Courses

Combined courses must involve between three and a half and four and a half academic years full-time study or the equivalent part-time study. There must be a total of school experience equivalent to that in a PGCE (Secondary) course, i.e. a minimum of 18 weeks. Institutions must ensure that, on graduation, students' level of academic attainment in their subject specialism complies with the relevant PGCE (Secondary) entry requirements in the 'Memorandum on Entry Requirements to Courses of Teacher Education in Scotland'. Concurrent courses leading to a TQ or TQs in physics, chemistry or biology must contain at least 60 hours of study in general science to prepare students to teach general science in S1 to S4.

(For an overview of the ITT curriculum requirements for each phase and type of training, see the 'National Dossier on Education and Training' (Scottish Executive 2003c), and for full details of the requirements, see the 'Memorandum on Entry Requirements to Courses of Teacher Education in Scotland' (Scottish Executive, 2003a).)

The 'Standard for ITE in Scotland Benchmark Information' consists of a set of benchmark statements, cross-referenced to the competences, which are the requirements for each programme of initial teacher education in Scotland. It specifies the standard of skills, abilities, knowledge, understanding and values that programmes should address and assess, and thus forms a basis for the programmes of study (Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, 2000).

(v) Examinations and Qualifications

Assessment of teachers in training is carried out by training institution staff in co-operation with teachers supervising school placements. Other elements of the course are assessed by written examination and/or the submission of coursework. The relative percentages of the marks for each element of assessment are not regulated, and will vary between universities.

In order to achieve a TQ, candidates are required to demonstrate the generic competences that are set out in the Guidelines (see appendix 2). Teaching qualifications are awarded by the Teacher Education Institution on successful completion of courses of initial teacher training. Possession of a teaching qualification entitles the holder to registration with the General Teaching Council for Scotland in the category for which they have trained, provided they meet the medical requirements laid down by the GTCS. Registration is a requirement for teachers wishing to work in publicly funded schools. Newly qualified teachers are given provisional registration, and attain full registration on successful completion of a probationary period (normally two years).

(vi) Proportion of Qualified Teachers

All teachers in service in Scotland must have a teaching qualification.

Data relating to classroom assistants may be found in Summary Results of the September 2002 School Census, A Scottish Executive National Statistics Publication (2003d) www.scotland.gov.uk/stats/bulletins/00272-00.asp.

(vii) Breakdown of Training Qualifications

In order to teach in a publicly funded school in Scotland, in either the primary or the secondary phase, teachers are required to hold a Teaching Qualification and to be registered with the General Teaching Council for Scotland. This registration requires teachers to have satisfied the GTCS of their medical fitness to teach. Teachers who have trained outside Scotland may apply for exceptional admission to the register of the GTCS. Details of the requirements for admission of such teachers are published by the GTCS.

(viii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

Teacher training in Scotland is through public institutions, and the majority of training costs are publicly funded.

(a) The Consecutive Model

Higher education is publicly funded, and full-time higher education students domiciled in Scotland or in other European Union countries

outside the United Kingdom are not required to make a personal contribution towards the cost of their annual tuition if they are studying for the first time. All such tuition fees of £1125 (2003-4) are paid to the university by the Scottish Executive through the Student Awards Agency for Scotland (SAAS).

English, Welsh and Northern Irish students have the same liability for an annual personal contribution towards tuition fees that would apply if they were studying at a university or college elsewhere in the UK. Overseas students from outside the European Economic Area are expected to pay tuition fees at overseas students' rates, which are considerably higher than domestic rates (£10,650 for 2003-4). For Scottish students, there is a young students' bursary of up to £2,100 that is available for all eligible young Scottish students from low-income families. The amount available depends on family income: no bursary is available for students with a family income of £27,100 or above. Bursaries are also available for eligible mature students

Student loans are available to eligible students from the UK and the level of entitlement depends upon family income. The rate of repayment is directly linked to income after graduation. The maximum loans available in 2003/04 are £4,000 for students living away from home (studying outside London) and £3,165 for students living at home. 75 per cent of the maximum loan is available to all eligible students regardless of any other income they have, the remaining 25 per cent depends individual and family income. Eligibility for a student loan is determined by the appropriate Local Education Authority (England and Wales), the appropriate Education and Library Board (Northern Ireland) and the Student Awards Agency in Scotland.

Tuition fees are not charged for PGCE courses. The Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED) makes funds available to make payments to TEIs on behalf of PGCE trainees. This applies only to home students as defined in the Education (Fees and Awards) Regulations 1997 (as amended) (DfEE 1997) and those from elsewhere within the European Economic Area (EEA). Overseas students are expected to pay for the cost of their education.

(b) The Concurrent Model

Costs and funding for students following a concurrent route to a Teaching Qualification are as for other undergraduate courses (see under consecutive training).

(For additional material, see appendices 7-10.)

VIII

Switzerland

As a consequence of the creation of the European Union there has been increased pressure on the Swiss cantons to co-ordinate, and at the same time reform, their teacher education programmes. Until the reforms announced in 2002 the cantons had sole responsibility for teacher training which led to vast differences in approach and, many suggested, outcomes. The creation of a centralised teacher training system will now mean that teachers are able to move from one canton to another. Such movement was not previously possible.⁸ It is only this year that the first teachers will have been trained within the new system.

Switzerland's teacher training system, therefore, is currently undergoing extensive reforms. The aim is that all teachers should be trained in an Haute Ecole Pedagogique (HEP) though the transition to this system has yet to be completed. The cantons have overall responsibility for teacher training generally, whilst the Confederation has responsibility for the training of vocational teachers, gymnasium teachers and physical education teachers.

(i) Admission Requirements

In order to be admitted into the HEP and other training institutions, future teachers of pre-school, primary (known as *maître généraliste*) and lower-secondary level (known as *maître semi-généraliste*) are required to have a matura certificate from a gymnasium school.

Alternative access routes are also available for the following: graduates from three-year intermediate diploma schools and commercial schools; those with a vocational matura; and

those who have successfully completed vocational training and who have several years of professional experience. Preparatory courses must be taken and admission exams passed in order to be accepted through these alternative routes.

Teachers of Matura School (known as maîtres spécialistes)

In order to teach upper secondary level, candidates need to have the equivalent of a degree in their specialised subject obtained from a university or a 'haute école spécialisée'.

⁸ Criblez, L (2002) Une étude retrace l'histoire de la formation des enseignants et enseignants disponibles from the Swiss National Science Foundation on www.snf.ch/fr/com/prr/prr_ah_02sept24.asp.

Teachers at Vocational Schools

Teachers for commercial-industrial vocational schools and schools of design receive their training from one of the three Swiss Institutes for Vocational Education (SIBP). This training, available for teachers of vocational subjects, takes place following the successful completion of relevant professional training in conjunction with further education at tertiary level. For teachers of general education subjects a basic pedagogical training is required as well as a university degree or a course of study to become a physical education teacher. Prior to acceptance on to vocational pedagogical training, teachers of general education subjects are required to perfect their knowledge in the four areas known as 'norms and law', 'politics and economics', 'culture and language' as well as 'education and instruction'. In addition to this they must also have completed at least two weeks' work experience in a commercial or industrial enterprise, completed an aptitude assessment either via the local authority or through self-evaluation, and finally have taught at least three lessons per week for one year at a commercial-industrial vocational school. Prospective teachers of vocational subjects should also have at least two years practical experience in their trade, for example in the trades of engineer or technician as well as having taught at least four lessons per week for a year at a commercial-industrial vocational school complemented by a pedagogical training for teachers of vocational subjects with a recommendation from the relevant vocational school.

(ii) Training Routes

In Switzerland there are several training routes that can be followed depending on the level and the subject being taught. All teachers are educated at higher education institutions, namely teacher training colleges, though universities, schools of music, schools of art and design or specialist training institutions can also provide elements of a teacher's training. Teachers for commercial-industrial vocational schools and for schools of design are educated at three Swiss Institutes for Vocational Education (SIBP). In the future 'Institutes for Vocational Education' will be created at university level.

It is only teachers who teach in 'Gymnasiums' at matura level who follow, what is known as the consecutive model. The training to become a teacher at upper secondary level takes at least a year of full-time study. The second, concurrent, model usually takes place over three years and covers simultaneously the subjects to be taught and the professional studies, leading to the teaching diploma. This is available for all teachers other than those wishing to teach at Matura School (see appendix 11).

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Training lasts for three years for teachers at pre-school, primary level

- four years for teachers at lower secondary level
- at least five years for teachers at Matura schools (specialized training four years, professional training one year)
- two or three years for teachers of special education (full-time or part-time).

(iii) Percentage of Candidates

All candidates take the concurrent route except those who intend to teach at upper secondary level who follow the consecutive route.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses

At teacher training colleges and other teacher training institutions prospective teachers learn the following:

- to evaluate the stage of development of their pupils their learning ability and to help them to make
- to plan, structure and evaluate their teaching
- to assess academic ability and performance
- to conceive and carry out teaching projects
- to work with other teaching staff, the school administration and parents
- to analyse and reflect on their own teaching activity
- to collaborate on work on applied research projects
- to plan their own continuous training.

Prospective teachers at the lower secondary level learn, moreover, to support pupils in their choice of a profession and to prepare them for vocational training or more advanced schooling. Prospective teachers for Matura school learn to prepare pupils for study at the university or the Federal Institute of Technology.

The programme of study includes:

- Specialised knowledge with interdisciplinary components
- Training in educational theory relating to general didactics, school-level and subject didactics, psychology and education, including special education and intercultural education
- Research and Development (e.g., in the areas of school development, development of educational aids and evaluation)
- Teaching practice for 20-30 per cent of the entire training time (including lesson observation and teaching practice at the appropriate level)
- A thesis

The components are: subject study, including specific - at least 40 per cent; professional training - at least 15 per cent; practical training - at least 20 per cent.

Teachers at Matura schools should have completed subject study in two subjects at degree level. The professional training corresponds to one year of full-time training. It combines theory and practice as well as teaching and research. The vocational training covers in particular the areas of educational theory and teaching practice.

Special education training generally takes place following or during training for teachers of the pre-school level, primary level or lower secondary level. Full-time study lasts at least two years, study while on-the-job at least three years.

Training programmes for special education include the theory and practice of special education, in-depth study in the subject areas of education and didactics and content from related subject areas, such as psychology, medicine, sociology and jurisprudence.

The programmes of study of some teacher training colleges incorporate work experience in social or economic fields and in some cases encourage placements abroad for language learning.

Teachers at Vocational Schools

Teacher training can be completed either full-time on a two year course or as in-service training after the Swiss Institute for Vocational Education (SIBP). The first year of full-time study has 80 per cent professional studies with 20 per cent teaching practice. The second year has 80 per cent teaching practice and 20 per cent professional studies. Teachers can also obtain additional qualifications that enable them to teach in vocational Matura classes, children with special needs and physical education classes.

Teaching Practice

The following figures are available:

Maître généraliste

Semester 1: a four week placement
 Semester 2-4: one day a week and one week a semester
 Semester 5-6: one morning a week

Maître spécialisé

Semester 1: a four week placement
 Semester 2: one day a week plus a one week placement
 Semester 3: every morning

The student teacher is always in the presence of a teacher.

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This data applies to the HEP VD in Lausanne though will be the same for all institutions once the reforms are completed.

(v) Examinations and Qualifications

Teacher training is divided into three stages with an examination at the end of each one: the introduction phase – which lasts one semester; the professionalisation phase – which lasts three semesters for maître généraliste and one semester for maître specialise; - and the specialisation phase – which lasts three semesters for maître généraliste and one semester for maître specialise.

The Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK) prescribes the basic standard required for teaching diplomas for the pre-school and primary levels, for the lower secondary level and the upper secondary levels (Matura schools), as well as the examination proceedings and the final deliverance of the qualification. Further provisions are contained in cantonal laws (e.g. laws concerning teacher training colleges) and in the rules of individual training institutions.

In principle, diplomas for teachers of the pre-school level and the primary level are issued on the basis of proof of oral, written and practical assessments, which must be produced during or at the end of training. This assessment covers educational theory, both on a general level and within the subject specialism, subject study, teaching practice and a thesis.

For teachers of the lower secondary level, qualifications and achievements in the areas of specialised knowledge, educational theory and teaching practice are assessed.

Teachers at Matura schools must have a university degree. The teaching diploma is issued on the basis of a comprehensive evaluation of the achievements of the student.

The programme of study at vocational schools follows the standards of the Swiss Institute for Vocational Education (SIBP). Teachers who want to teach general education subjects at vocational schools must complete additional studies depending on their previous education and pass an admission examination.

(vi) Proportion of Qualified Teachers

See previous sections

(vii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

All Swiss teacher-training institutions are public and are funded by the tax payer. In order to find employment an aspiring teacher applies directly to the school. Jobs are advertised in newspapers, both local and national or through the education authority.

Students are required to pay a certain amount though this is changing under the current reforms. At the HEP VD of Lausanne students pay:

- an enrolment fee of 100chf (approx £45)
- fees of 300chf (approx £135)
- cost of books etc which is estimated to be 600chf per semester (approx £270).

(For additional material, see appendix 11.)

IX USA

In the United States of America considerable autonomy is given to States to decide education policy and this extends to teacher education. In 2003 there were approximately 1200 colleges that have teacher preparation programmes graduating about 192 000 new teachers annually. Of these 562 had accreditation through the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The NCATE is expanding and many States recognise holders of a NCATE certificate as a full licence to teach. However, each State has its own specific requirements for initial teacher preparation leading to accreditation or certification that allows the intending teacher to practice in that State's public schools. Often called a 'credential' that certification is subject specific (or 'multi-subject for elementary school teaching) and may be 'endorsed' either at the initial or in-service stage for additional expertise such as special educational needs, teaching of reading, or English as an Additional Language. The credential is set out in two tiers; some provisional certification, which lasts between 3 to 5 years, and another that indicates a higher level of teacher proficiency but which must also be renewed typically every five years. A consideration of the requirements for teaching in States as diverse as California, Florida, Kansas and Washington, however, demonstrate considerable similarities in their requirements.

(i) Admission Requirements

The State controls on teacher quality in the USA is interested in setting entry standards to the profession, and leaves the setting of criteria for entry to specific colleges. Exit standards from higher education are what are important. In all the states considered, a bachelor's degree was a minimum requirement along with some teacher preparation courses which could be taken concurrently, known as 'blended courses' in California, or consecutively depending largely when in their academic life the student decided to opt for a teaching career. The modular nature of American higher education enables many prospective teachers to move into teaching courses quite late. It is possible to transfer into a four-year university (which offers a teacher preparation course) from a community college. However a High School student who was set on a course in teaching would have to pass the usual entry requirements for the University at which they wish to study. The high school Diploma is broadly based. For example, at the Central University in Washington State, the minimum for automatic admissions is a 28 admissions index and all core requirements fulfilled, and the ability to

enter college maths and English. (Subscores of 500 on the American SAT test, and scores of 19 on the maths and English portions of the ACT, are required.) Equivalent levels are difficult to establish but in England this would be roughly comparable to A/S level. Further first year students (freshmen) need to have completed the following high school core classes:

- English (4 years). Shall include the study of English language, literature, and writing.
- Math (3 years). Shall include first-year algebra and two additional years of college preparatory mathematics such as geometry, advanced algebra, trigonometry, analytical geometry, calculus, and probability and statistics. (Algebra and geometry taken prior to the ninth grade accepted).
- Science (2 years). Shall include a year each in two fields of college preparatory science such as biology, chemistry, physics, or earth and physical science. One must have a lab with it.
- Social Science (3 years).
- Foreign Language (2 years). Shall be two years of the same language.
- Fine, Visual, or Performing Arts (1 year). Or one more year from the above academic courses.

For graduate level teacher preparation programmes (post- baccalaureate) in Florida, a grade point average of a least 2.5 on a 4.0 scale for the general education courses is required or a baccalaureate degree with a minimum grade point average of 2.5 on a 4.0 scale. In addition, the graduate students must pass the College Level Academic Skills Test (CLAST) to demonstrate mastery of general knowledge and the ability to read, write and compute. Similar basic skills tests exist in the states of California (known as CBEST) and Washington (West-B).

(ii) The Training Routes

Most States offer very similar routes into teaching. Primary (elementary) schoolteachers are advised to major in liberal arts, possibly child development, and then work towards a 'multiple subject' credential. High school (secondary) teachers are required to have a major in the subject that they wish to teach and to follow a 'single subject' credential. There are five major types of training routes:

'Blended' or concurrent. These are the programmes for students without a bachelor's degree and they combine teacher preparation coursework with the courses for the degree, either BA or BS. Often a community college partners a 4-year University to help the 'blended' package.

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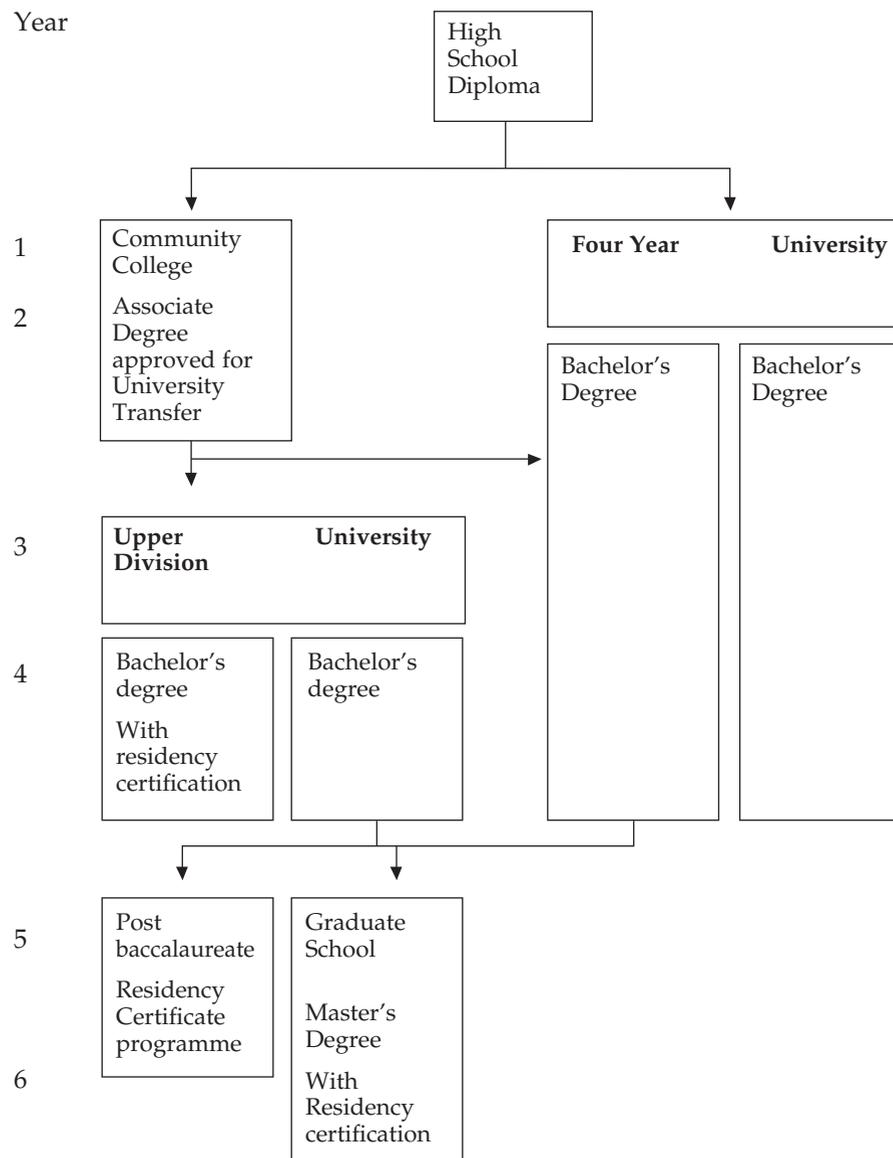
Pre-Internship. These courses help with subject matter development and help a student gain entry to a teacher preparation programme. It is particularly suitable for those that have a bachelor's degree and passed the State basic educational skills test and may be currently employed on an emergency teaching licence.

Internship. These courses are commonly used for people who wish to change careers. Students must have a bachelor's degree, but they are provided with supported classroom experience while they undertake course work in educational theory and teaching strategies for their teaching credential. This usually takes two or three years but they are employed and receive a stipend.

Post-Baccalaureate. These are consecutive courses where teacher preparation follows the bachelor degree. Typically the courses are two or three semesters long and include a placement in school. Some of these courses include a master's degree.

On-Line. In California, CALState TEACH is a programme which offers an open and distance-learning route towards a multiple-subject credential. Similar to the internship scheme in principle but available using web, print and CD-ROM materials.

The time for the different routes is illustrated in the following diagram, which illustrates the situation for Washington State. Those that spend longer in preparation for teaching typically start at a higher level on the pay scale.



The Residency Certificate is the name of the credential offered to beginning teachers in Washington State. When employed they undergo further in-service professional training which leads to the Professional Certificate. This certificate must be renewed every five years.

(iii) Percentage of Candidates

Data supplied by the colleges for students on teacher training courses in the USA are very unreliable and, due to the modular nature of degrees in the USA, it is difficult to judge when a student has decided to embark on a course leading to a teaching qualification. However an indication of the percentage of teachers that follow the different routes may be inferred from the returns available from Florida and California.

That data suggests: Concurrent – 20.4 per cent; Post-Baccalaureate – 47.8 per cent; Master's route – 15.6 per cent.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses

All teachers need at least one 'endorsement' on their credential in order to teach. The endorsement courses are often available as a major or a minor component and may be said to comprise the subject content of the degree. The modular, credit-based system common in higher education in the USA enables different students from a range of subjects and intending to teach in different phases of education to share the same classes. Trainees, therefore, work in subject and education faculties. Professional education elements, for example, are often common across all subjects and the same for both elementary and high school student teachers too. In this way content knowledge is separated from practice (particularly so for student teachers for the high school sector) and generic teaching skills are taught similarly to all student teachers.

Using an adaptation of the syllabuses offered by the Central Washington University, which is approved by the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) as well as the state of Washington as preparation to certification, a typical teacher preparation programme can be illustrated (CWU, 2003). For example, such diverse teachers as early childhood education, elementary education, physics and technology education student teachers would commonly follow the same courses in human growth and the learner, intercultural awareness, psychology for the classroom and educational issues on the law; but also practicum (i.e. teaching practice) courses are shared too.

The total credits available for professional education, for all student teachers, may be typically about 50 credits. An example of how they break down is given in appendix 12.

(v) Examinations and Qualifications

The state sets the standards of what needs to be covered and, usually in collaboration with higher education, the courses offered prepare the student

teacher to satisfy the standards. In many states the Department of Education will review and approve teacher education programmes both for initial and in-service teachers. Typically institutions submit a curriculum portfolio and after approval the programme is visited every few years.

Appendix 13 reproduces the standards that teachers who are to receive the Florida 'temporary certificate' must be able to know, understand and do. It is instructive to compare and note the similarity of what is required in this South East State with the courses offered in Washington State in the North West (appendix 12).

(vi) Proportion of Qualified Teachers

Most States have moved to try to improve the initial and in-service qualifications of its teachers. In California, for example, now only 0.4 per cent of employed teachers are without a bachelor's degree. However, according to the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future reported by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education:

- In recent years, more than 50,000 people who lack the preparation required for their jobs have entered teaching annually on emergency or substandard licenses.
- Recently, 27 per cent of newly hired teachers have not been fully licensed (U. S. Department of Education, NCTAF). 12.5 per cent had no license, and 14.9 per cent were hired on temporary, provisional, or emergency licenses.
- Nearly one-fourth of all secondary teachers do not have a college major or minor in their main teaching field. This is true for more than 30 per cent of mathematics teachers.
- 56 per cent of high school students taking physical science are taught by out-of-field teachers, as are 21 per cent of students taking English.
- The least well-prepared teachers work with the most needy students. The percentage of unlicensed teachers hired in schools where more than half of the students are minority or poor is at least four times that of other schools. In schools with the highest minority enrolments, students have less than a 50 per cent chance of getting a science or mathematics teachers who holds a license and a degree in the field he or she teaches.
- Widely differing state standards for licensing exacerbate the problem. Louisiana licenses high school teachers with six weeks of student teaching and without a major or minor in their field of teaching. Even with these low requirements, 31 per cent of the state's new teachers are unlicensed. In contrast, Minnesota and Wisconsin require at least

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a major in the field to be taught, a semester or more of student teaching, and extensive training in how to teach diverse learners. Their students score among the highest in the nation on the National Assessment of Educational Progress, while Louisiana's score among the lowest. (NCATE, 2003)

(vii) Breakdown of Training Qualification

See previous sections

(viii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

There is a mixture of public and private higher education institutions involved in teacher preparation in all states. The fees vary and each student is expected to pay their fees. In Florida typical tuition rates per credit hour (2003-4) are:

| | In-state | Out-of-state |
|---------------|----------|--------------|
| Undergraduate | \$90.42 | \$458.02 |
| Graduate | \$196.27 | \$730.80 |

Estimates for undergraduate tuition fees in Washington State, typically, are \$4023 and \$5862 for Graduate fees. However, in many States a 'loan forgiveness' programme is often available in critical shortage subjects such as science, mathematics and technology. For example in Florida, the award is up to \$2500 per year for four years for teachers with undergraduate loans or \$5000 per year for up to two years for teachers with graduate loans. In California there is a similar scheme but that might be tied to an agreement to teach in an underprivileged area. There are and also grants for academically gifted students from poor backgrounds and many Universities offer scholarships tuition payment plans, fee waivers and other subsidies.

(For additional material, see appendices 12-13.)

X

Wales

Training of teachers in Wales is provided through concurrent, integrated academic and pedagogical training, or through a consecutive model where a subject specialist degree is followed by a teaching qualification. Employment-based training routes are also available.

(i) Admission Requirements

Entry requirements for courses of initial teacher training (ITT) are set out in Welsh Office circular 13/98. To become a teacher in Wales, candidates for training as a teacher are required to:

- have achieved a standard equivalent to a grade C in the GCSE examination in English and mathematics;
- have achieved a standard equivalent to a grade C in the GCSE examination in a science subject for those born on or after 1 September 1979 who enter primary or Key Stages 2/3 training;
- meet the Secretary of State's requirements for physical and mental fitness to teach (DFE 13/93);
- have no criminal background which might prevent them working with children or young persons, or as a teacher; or have previously been excluded from teaching or working with children;
- be able to read effectively, and communicate clearly and accurately in spoken and written Standard English and, where appropriate, in written and spoken Welsh – however, the ability to speak Welsh is not a requirement for the majority of teacher training courses in Wales;
- possess the personal, intellectual and presentational qualities suitable for teaching.

Applicants for undergraduate (concurrent) courses of initial teacher training have to fulfil the academic requirements for admission to first degree studies. These requirements are determined by the institution, but generally include a minimum A level point score of 12 (two A level grade C passes or equivalent), with at least one of the A levels being in a national curriculum subject. Candidates can also gain entry to undergraduate courses with a variety of other qualifications.

Those applying for postgraduate courses of initial teacher training are required to hold a degree of a United Kingdom higher education institution or an equivalent qualification. Institutions offering PGCE courses are

required to satisfy themselves that the content of candidates' previous education provides the necessary foundation for work as a teacher in the phase(s) and subject(s) they are to teach. There is some discretion here, as the regulations do not specify how many years equivalent of study relevant to the teaching subject specialism are required. For two-year PGCE courses, candidates must have satisfactorily completed the equivalent of at least one year of full-time higher education studies. The contents of entrants' higher education studies must provide the necessary foundation for work as a teacher in the phase(s) and subject(s) they are to teach. Trainees on the Registered Teacher Programme (see below) must have successfully completed two years of full-time higher education (or part-time equivalent).

(ii) The Training Routes

There are, as in many other countries, two main types of training route: a consecutive and a concurrent model.

(a) The Consecutive Model

A university undergraduate course leading to a degree in the individual subjects to be taught, followed by a year's (or more) professional and practical training. Candidates are taught in the subject faculties of the universities by subject specialists and take the same university examinations leading to the BA (Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (Bachelor of Science) degree. The candidate then takes a professional qualification leading to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS).

Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE)

The most common professional qualification is the Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE), University or college-based, and taking one year full-time or 18 months to two years part-time. Flexible routes are designed to enable trainees to receive training that matches their individual needs and circumstances. Flexible courses have multiple start and finish dates and modular study programmes, and may be delivered through evening training, at weekends, or via distance-learning packages. Most lead to the award of a PGCE and QTS.

Employment-based routes to Qualified Teacher Status are also available. These are the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) and the Registered Teacher Programme (RTP).

Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP)

The Graduate Teacher Programme, introduced in 1998, is available to trainees over the age of 24. In this programme, schools to employ graduates who are

not qualified as teachers and to support them through an individual training programme leading to QTS. In the majority of cases (85 per cent) a Designated Recommending Body (DRB) takes the responsibility for the training programme. Most DRBs are partnerships of schools, local education authorities (LEAs) and accredited initial teacher training (ITT) providers. DRBs receive an annual allocation of GTP places from the TTA, and are responsible for recruiting trainees and matching them with good schools, designing and delivering the training programme, and recommending the trainee for QTS. DRBs handle a minimum of ten GTP trainees per year. Places not administered by DRBs are allocated directly to schools from the TTA. If the school itself takes responsibility for the training, it acts as a Recommending Body, and is responsible for designing and delivering the training. The training programme must allow the trainee to work in at least two schools in order to gain the breadth of experience required by the QTS Standards.

GTP trainees follow a postgraduate programme that normally lasts one year. However, for those with significant teaching experience, this may be reduced to a minimum period of three months. Up to 90 per cent of the trainee's time may be spent teaching but this may vary depending on the provider.

Of those who qualify through consecutive training, the breakdown by the phase of education for which they train to teach is as follows⁹: this data is from ELWa (2002), and relates to those trainees gaining QTS in 2001. Data is derived from the HESA Student record, July 2000/01.

| Postgraduate trainees | Number gaining QTS |
|-----------------------|--------------------|
| secondary | 942 |
| primary | 485 |
| total | 1427 |

Of those qualifying to teach in 2001, having trained through the consecutive route, 66 per cent of candidates qualified for secondary teaching and 34 per cent for primary teaching.

Registered Teacher Programme (RTP)

Trainees on the Registered Teacher Programme (RTP) must have successfully completed two years of full-time higher education (or the part-time

⁹ This does not include those who trained on employment based routes.

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equivalent) and spend up to two years working and training as a teacher while they complete a degree. The minimum period of training is one year.

(b) The Concurrent Model

This model involves three or four years of combined full-time higher education and teacher training, leading to an education degree and to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). The qualifications awarded on successful completion of the course include the Bachelor of Education (BEd) and the Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degrees with Qualified Teacher Status. Some two-year concurrent degree courses are available for students who have already completed at least one year of relevant higher education. Some courses are available part-time.

Of those who qualify through concurrent training, the breakdown by the phase of education for which they train to teach is as follows:

| Undergraduate trainees | Number gaining QTS |
|------------------------|--------------------|
| Secondary | 67 |
| Primary | 577 |
| Total | 644 |

Of those qualifying to teach in 2001, having trained through the consecutive route, 10 per cent of candidates qualified for secondary teaching and 90 per cent for primary teaching.

(iii) Percentage of Candidates

National Assembly for Wales (2003) data for those completing courses of initial teacher training in Wales in 2002 shows that for those training in Wales, the proportion of those qualifying who have taken a university degree course in a subject (or subjects) and followed this with a professional qualification is 67 per cent: the corresponding proportion of candidates who have qualified having followed the training institution course is 33 per cent. (ELWa (2002) gives 69 per cent and 31 per cent respectively).

For 2002 (ELWa 2002), the pass rate for those training on the consecutive model was 91 per cent. Published completion rates are not available for undergraduate (consecutive route) students.

The General Teaching Council for Wales (GTCW) Annual Statistics Digest Records for 2003 records a total of 33,918 registered teachers in service in Wales at March 2003, and 1527 newly qualified teachers awarded QTS in

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2002 registered with the GCT Wales. This gives a figure of 4.5 per cent for the proportion of newly qualified teachers as a percentage of qualified teachers in service.

(iv) Content and Emphasis of Courses**(a) The Consecutive Model**

Within the university degree course, 100 per cent of time is spent on subject study.

The PGCE course comprises a mixture of higher education subject studies, curriculum (the National Curriculum (primary) or specialised subjects (secondary)), pedagogical and educational studies, practical teaching skills and the application of the students' degree subject(s) to school teaching. The relative proportions of time to be spent on professional and subject study are not laid down, and are decided by individual institutions, but the course content, structure and delivery, and the assessment of trainees must be designed to develop trainees' knowledge, skills and understanding so that the standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status are met. In addition, all initial teacher training institutions in Wales must offer training in Welsh as a second language as an integral part of their courses of primary teacher training. Students who successfully complete this component are awarded a certificate of competence to teach Welsh in primary schools.

The amount of time that must be spent in training is specified by circular 13/98 as:

- 38 weeks for all full-time primary postgraduate courses
- 36 weeks for all other full-time postgraduate courses

The balance of practical training (spent in school) and other study within courses is also specified. The amount of time spent by trainees in schools during their training, excluding schools holidays, must be at least:

- 24 weeks for all full-time secondary and KS2/3 postgraduate courses (67 per cent)
- 18 weeks for all full-time primary postgraduate (47 per cent) and two-year primary undergraduate courses (25 per cent):
- 18 weeks for all part-time postgraduate courses

Trainee teachers must have experience in at least two schools. The arrangement of teaching placements within the period of study is determined by the individual training institutions.

Information about the secondary PGCE course offered by the University of Wales, Swansea is appended (appendix 14).

(b) The Concurrent Model

The concurrent degree comprises a mixture of higher education subject studies, curriculum (the National Curriculum (primary) or specialised subjects (secondary), pedagogical and educational studies, practical teaching skills and the application of the students' subject studies to school teaching. The proportions of time for subject study and for professional studies are not stipulated, and will vary between training institutions, but the course content, structure and delivery, and the assessment of trainees must be designed to develop trainees' knowledge, skills and understanding so that the standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status are met. Studies are generally integrated throughout the period of study. Minimum subject content is laid down for primary courses, and in addition, institutions offering primary English-medium undergraduate courses of three or four years' duration are required to provide Welsh as a second language as one of the subject options available to students. Students on primary Welsh medium undergraduate courses study Welsh (first language) in addition to the other core subjects. In addition, all initial teacher training institutions in Wales must offer training in Welsh as a second language as an integral part of their courses of primary teacher training. Students who successfully complete this component are awarded a certificate of competence to teach Welsh in primary schools.

The balance of practical training (spent in school) and other study within courses is also specified. The amount of time spent by trainees in schools during their training, excluding schools holidays, must be at least:

- 32 weeks for all four-year undergraduate courses (22 per cent)
- 24 weeks for all three-year undergraduate courses (22 per cent)
- 24 weeks for all full-time two-year secondary and KS2/3 undergraduate courses

Each trainee teacher must have experience in at least two schools. The arrangement of teaching placements within the period of study is determined by the individual training institutions.

(Details of the University of Wales Institute, Cardiff, primary BEd course are appended as an example (appendix 15)).

(v) Examinations and Qualifications

Since amended Regulations were introduced by the Welsh Assembly Government on 1st March 2003, the General Teaching Council for Wales has been responsible for the administration and award of Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) in Wales for:

- students undertaking courses of initial teacher training in Wales
- persons with teaching qualifications gained in Scotland, Northern Ireland, and European Economic Area (EEA) countries
- persons who have been recommended for qualified teacher status by the States of Guernsey Education Council.

This replaces the previous arrangements, under which administration of QTS in Wales was the responsibility of the General Teaching Council for England (on behalf of DfES) and the award of QTS made by the Welsh Assembly Government and DfES.

However, responsibility for the award of QTS through the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP), Registered Teacher Programme (RTP), certain teachers with FE qualifications, independent school experience and teachers with non EEA qualifications remains with the Welsh Assembly Government (see the website of the General Teaching Council for Wales (www.gtcw.org.uk/welcome.html)). Recommendations to the GTCW for the award of QTS are made by training providers. In the case of GTP candidates, recommendations are made by designated awarding bodies.

The nature of the final examinations depends on whether the prospective teachers follow the consecutive or the concurrent model. On the consecutive model, the style of assessment leading to a university degree is decided by the individual institution, and it varies from University to University. As for the examination following the professional training course, recommending bodies are required to satisfy themselves that candidates have met the standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status as laid down by circular 13/98. No form of final examination is specified, and assessment arrangements are decided by individual training institutions. Assessment may include written examinations and continuous assessment during the course. Students are assessed by tutors from the higher education institution (HEI) where they have studied and by teachers in the schools where they undertake their practical experience. Teachers are partly responsible for assessing the students' competence to teach their specialist subject, to assess pupils and to manage classes.

On the concurrent model, the style of assessment is decided by the individual institution. This varies from university to university, and may comprise written examinations, practical examinations and / or continuous assessment during the course.

For the award of QTS, the training institutions are required to satisfy themselves that candidates have met the standards for the award of

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Qualified Teacher Status as laid down by circular 13/98. No form of final examination is specified, and assessment arrangements are decided by individual training institutions. Assessment may include written examinations and continuous assessment during the course. Students are assessed by tutors from the higher education institution (HEI) where they have studied and by teachers in the schools where they undertake their practical experience. Teachers are partly responsible for assessing the students' competence to teach their specialist subject, to assess pupils and to manage classes.

(vi) Proportion of Qualified Teachers

The following table shows the proportion of qualified to unqualified teachers in national system.

DFES (2003a) data gives the following figures for Wales:

| Regular teachers (full time and part-time, FTE) ¹⁰ | Number of teachers (Thousands) | per cent |
|---|--------------------------------|----------|
| Qualified teachers | 27190 | 99.8% |
| Teachers without QTS | 60 | 0.2% |
| Total regular teachers ¹¹ | 27250 | 100% |

Only 0.2 per cent of regular teachers are employed as unqualified teachers. An additional 1,330 teachers were recorded as employed on an occasional basis, and this figure may include occasional teachers without QTS. Relative numbers of proportions qualified and unqualified occasional teachers are not available.

(vii) Breakdown of Training Qualifications

In order to enter teaching employment in maintained schools, in either the primary or secondary sectors, teachers are required to have Qualified Teacher Status.

They must:

- hold a degree or equivalent qualification granted by a United Kingdom institution or an equivalent degree or other qualification granted by a foreign institution

¹⁰ This does not include occasional teachers.

¹¹ This does not include occasional teachers.

- have successfully completed a course of initial training for teachers in schools at an accredited institution in Wales
- have registered with the General Teaching Council for Wales.

Exemptions from the requirement to hold QTS include :

- Trainee teachers
- Teachers working towards QTS through an employment based programme, such as the Graduate Teacher Programme or Registered Teacher Programme
- Overseas-trained teachers, for up to 2 years in total in temporary posts lasting for up to 4 months each
- Unqualified teachers (e.g. instructors), where the school has been unable to find a qualified teacher with the necessary skills and expertise

Newly qualified teachers are required to have their Qualified Teacher Status confirmed by the successful completion of an induction year (see DFES 2003c).

Full details can be found in the document 'Education (Teachers' Qualifications and Health Standards) (Wales) Regulations 2003 (DFES 2003b). (See also the School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document, published annually by the DFES (DFES 2003c)).

(viii) Cost of Training and Institutional Framework

Teacher training in Wales is through public institutions, and the majority of training costs are publicly funded. The Higher Education Funding Council for Wales is responsible, under the Education Act 1994, for the funding of initial teaching training for school teachers and for the accreditation of providers of initial teacher training in Wales.

The arrangements and the details of costs are in most respects exactly the same as those for England (see above, Chapter 2 (viii)). The priority subjects for the 'golden hello' in Wales include engineering, manufacturing and Welsh, and a Welsh-medium incentive of £1200 may also be available to trainees who undertake secondary ITT through the medium of Welsh, but require support in developing competence in the Welsh language.

(For additional material, see appendices 14-15.)

XI

Afterword *

(*After presenting his report and seeing the commentary of the commissioners, Professor Moon was invited to Reply. Editor)

In commissioning this study Politeia provided a template of issues to be addressed. The aim was to provide a core descriptive study of different teacher education systems, to which commissioners could respond. Inevitably, as some of the commissioners' responses suggest, an even wider range of concerns are of interest. The question of teacher status, for example, is important but difficult to pin down descriptively. Teaching is a more popular profession in Scotland than in England. The reasons for this are more likely to be found in the deeper cultural histories of the two countries rather than any description of contemporary systems. Such variations also exist between countries. The status and stability of the teaching force is greater in Germany than in the Netherlands. Again social and cultural forces interplay with more contemporary concerns such as pay and conditions of service.

The case studies, and the introduction above, attempted respectively to describe systems and identify trends rather than plump for particular positions. Some of the commissioners would have liked more comment but that was not the purpose. Politeia has, however, now invited me to make brief, more personal, observations in the light of the commissioners' responses. I have not chosen to refute or confirm the different views and ideas expressed, but rather to highlight further two of the major, often contested, issues.

First, the universities in all the countries studied play an important role in educating and training teachers. This is true in England and we appear, over the last fifteen years, to have done quite a good job in making training more practical and more rigorous. It would seem perverse to restrict any further the university role in training although some continue to argue that case. I would suggest that there is a case for expanding the university contribution. For example, in many other countries, particularly in Europe, subject teachers have close links with the academic subject departments of the local university. This used to be the case in England (independent and grammar school teachers, for example, often worked closely with colleagues in university subject departments) but the links now, except for some subject associations, are few. Such links are facilitated in countries such as France

and Germany by strong regional structures in which teachers, academics and inspectors work closely together. Subject knowledge and subject knowledge updating are a core element of the teachers' intellectual repertoire. There is a need in England to strengthen this at primary and secondary level. Teachers need to 'feel the thrill' of new ideas and new knowledge in their subject. Some fresh thinking about rekindling the links between teachers and academic subject specialists is necessary. At present teacher contacts with universities (and these are few) are primarily with education departments. This needs to be broadened, a process within which education departments could well play a role. We need to strengthen the teachers' intellectual engagement with their subject and some of the new forms of technology and modes of communication could contribute to this.

The more practical approach to teacher education and training, despite initial reservations, so successfully developed by the English universities over the last fifteen years, has provided the context for more school-based routes into teaching. This has been particularly true in secondary subject shortage areas, and the employment-based route into teaching may well become a permanent aspect of training provision. In policy terms, however, the 'growth' of employment-based routes would, I think, be best left with student choices and school perceptions of the quality of training. But again I would see much value in strong intellectual links with academia being maintained.

The second issue relates to the supply and retention of teachers. The overriding challenge of the next decade is to attract and retain high quality graduates of all ages into the profession. I believe that teaching in England would be more popular and have higher status if the links with universities were stronger, broader and stretched from initial training into career-long professional development. Government pronouncements on continuing professional development have largely ignored the role that universities could play.

Attracting quality graduates into teaching will require more than a re-jigging of training routes. There is a very thin evidence base about why people enter and leave teaching. Much more information on this is needed. In some of the commissioners' responses there is a flavour of mistrust, even disdain, for research on education but these sorts of issues surely need to be investigated. And the questions need to go beyond how can we find the necessary number of teachers. Little attention, for example, has been given to the paucity of degree level mathematics and science experience amongst primary trainees. The Department of Education and Science has recently commissioned some research in this area. I believe that comparative

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international experience, as in other areas of social and economic life, could provide important evidence for policy development and practice. Very limited data of this sort is available. Politeia has provided an important service in opening up the debate on these and related issues.

Part II

Commissioners' Reports

XII

Flawed at the Start

David Burghes

The report from Professor Moon is a detailed, factual account of the framework for initial teacher training in nine countries, mainly based on the available documentation in each country. At this level it illustrates both some of the key differences between these countries and some of the similarities and it does this well. What it does not do, though, in any detail, is give a more descriptive overview of teacher training including, for example, the status of the profession, recruitment and retention rate of teachers, and quality of the trainee teachers in each country, and, whilst some of these points are qualitative and subjective, they are all critical aspects of teacher training.

The assessment of trainee teachers is another aspect where the differences are quite crucial. Two further aspects that are not highlighted in the report are the inspection of courses and the control of the curriculum for teacher training. There is also one aspect of the training, namely school-based work, which varies considerably, not just in the length of time spent in schools (this information is covered in the report) but in the professional model of training used in different countries.

We will consider some of the aspects highlighted above, building on the work and commentary in the report.

Length of Courses

The report gives factual details of the lengths of courses, highlighting the contrasting concurrent and sequential models. Changes are now taking place with the introduction in all European countries of the Bologna Process.¹² This process encourages (although does not dictate) the adoption of a 3 + 2 year system, the three years being for an undergraduate degree followed by two years of professional training.

The non-UK European countries surveyed are close to this system but there is a crucial difference for primary training. In the UK one of the main routes (the report indicates that about half of the cohort take it) is the one-year PGCE; this is taken after a suitable first degree but what is regarded as a

¹² For details of the Bologna Process see website www.esib.org/BPC/welcome.html.

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'suitable' first degree is not made clear. What is clear, though, is that the majority of trainee teachers on this route have had no mathematics tuition beyond GCSE for the five (or more) years preceding their entry onto the one-year PGCE course (two years of sixth form at school and then three years of their undergraduate degree) and so have a relatively low qualification in mathematics. This is dealt with in more detail below.

I would certainly like to see primary teacher training routes that ensure that new teachers are adequately trained in all the key academic subjects but particularly in English and mathematics.

Quality of Intake

The report gives detailed descriptions of qualifications needed for entry to teacher training. These are broadly comparable across countries except for entry to primary training courses. Other than in the UK, prospective trainee teachers have taken a far broader course in their last two years of secondary education (equivalent to sixth form in the UK); typically they take some form of baccalaureate course and assessment so that primary trainee teachers enter their undergraduate courses with far more expertise in mathematics and their national language than in the UK. Also, given that it is possible in the UK to take a diverse range of undergraduate degrees before taking a one-year PGCE course for primary teacher training, the entry qualifications can be radically different. This, I contend, is the main reason for the inability of our teachers in primary schools to improve attainment in mathematics beyond the current level. Whilst I would not want necessarily to prescribe every student's range of topic to be taken in the sixth form, I would want to ensure that all prospective primary teachers enter training with the minimum qualification of (in the current format) at least AS level passes in mathematics and English (instead of the current dependency on GCSE mathematics and English).

Whilst it would take several years to bring such a precondition into the training course, it is one action that undoubtedly needs to be addressed if we are to have a creative, confident and capable teaching force in primary schools in the future.

School-based Work

In the report, Moon gave some details of the length of school-based work; our own research through observations and discussion (see Burghes, 2004) highlights other key aspects of this work. In many countries, university teacher training institutions have had a long partnership with their university practice schools, which are usually state schools run jointly with

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the university. These schools are popular with parents as, although they recognise that their pupils will be regularly taught by trainee teachers, they know that the teachers are all experts and the links with the university also encourage innovation and enterprise.

These schools are used for

- initial observation of expert teachers, when trainee teachers (up to about 10 or 12 in a group) observe, review and discuss each lesson in depth with the expert teacher after the lesson
- demonstrations of particular teaching strategies by the university tutor, observed by the trainee teachers
- first teaching experiences for the trainee teachers.

In all cases the trainee teachers work as a group with joint planning of lessons and in-depth review of the lessons given by individual trainees.

I see this group collaboration as one of the key aspects of professional training for teachers in mainland European countries. It provides an enhanced way of training the trainees to become competent, reflective practitioners after far less practice than in the UK.

The use of university practice schools also provides a way of achieving a true partnership between university teacher trainers and school staff which integrates theory and practice which, as Moon notes, can be fairly unrelated topics with the theory given by university staff unrelated to the practice given by the school staff.

It should also be noted that this integrated practice with university staff playing a key role in the practice schools both helps the university staff to remain viable in the school situation and the schools, in return, to provide an effective test-bed for innovation and curriculum reform. This contrasts with our current policy in the UK of university staff providing the university-based component of training and a huge number of partner schools undertaking the training; there is little effective quality control and the university staff can easily be sidelined in the process.

Assessment of Training

Moon notes the development of competency-based criteria and the English system is fully given in the appendix to the English report. In England (with very similar systems in Scotland and Wales), there are now 42 Standards for Qualified Teacher Status, some with multiple parts! These are brought together with the headings:

S1 : Professional values and practice (8 statements)

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S2 : Knowledge and understanding (8 statements)

S3 : Teaching

1. Planning, expectations and targets (5 statements)
2. Monitoring and assessment (7 statements)
3. Teaching and class management (14 statements).

Some of these are quite straightforward, e.g.

S1.4 They can communicate sensitively and effectively with parents and carers, recognising their roles in pupils' learning, and their rights, responsibilities and interests in this.

Others are rather vague, such as:

S1.5 They can contribute to, and share, responsibility in, the corporate life of schools whilst others are quite crucial; for example,

S3.3.3 They teach clearly structured lessons or sequences of work which interest and motivate pupils and which:

- make learning objectives clear to pupils
- employ interactive teaching methods and collaborative group work
- promote active and independent learning that enables pupils to think for themselves, and to plan and manage their own learning.

These statements are very useful to teacher trainers, both at university and school, but their use to assess whether a trainee has passed or not is another matter altogether. The use of such statements in England has encouraged a 'tick box mentality' as each student has to be monitored, reviewed and signed off for each statement. You often see rather false teaching situations being set in schools in order for the trainee teacher to achieve particular statements. The statements also ignore the type of school in which the trainee is practising and the support given to the trainee at that school. Some of the statements are far easier to achieve at a small school located in a middle class area than at an inner city, tough comprehensive school!

The introduction of these statements of competency has made innovation in teacher training very difficult to undertake. This is in part due to the OFSTED inspection regime used in England but also due to the large amount of time spent in schools during the one-year PGCE course (in secondary teacher training, this is essentially the equivalent of 2 out of the 3 terms).

*David Burghes***Recruitment and Retention**

This topic was not fully researched in the report but, with very poor retention rates in England, it is an issue that needs urgent review. England, and to a lesser extent Scotland and Wales, have difficulty in recruiting to many secondary subjects, particularly, mathematics, design and technology, science, modern foreign languages.

The Government (through the TTA) has devised and introduced many incentives and short-cuts to teaching these subjects, in a similar way to the USA (as outlined by Moon in the Report), including 'golden hellos', work-based schemes in which salaries are paid (e.g. GTR), payment of student debts, conversion course to change to new subject, and hardship schemes.

Also, the TTA has run a very successful advertising scheme and a combination of these actions has resulted in increased applications. But we need to ask the question, 'Do these incentive schemes actually bring into the profession teachers who will enhance and motivate pupils in their chosen subject?' My judgement, at this stage, is 'Very often, No!' Some of these students see a quick way of paying off their debts and have no intention of staying in the profession a year longer than is necessary; they might also be mature people who are either attracted by a career change or who have been made redundant. Again, these are not necessarily the teachers that we want; they have entered the profession for reasons other than a love of teaching. What we actually need in teaching are intelligent, creative, charismatic people who are born communicators who enjoy their subject and like children.

So the emphasis should not be on numbers recruited but on the quality of the intake (see section above) and ultimately their retention rate. Many trainees who actually meet the criteria described in the previous paragraph find themselves in difficult schools with little support and no time for reflection and review, under constant pressure to complete meaningless paperwork and dictated to as to what they can and cannot do! The result is often that they escape to the independent sector where there is still some freedom of action, or they escape to another profession.

Again, what is not in the report is any review of the support given to newly qualified teachers. This is an important issue and one that Scotland, at least, is trying to address. They now have a Teacher Induction Scheme which:

- Guarantees a one-year training post to every eligible student graduating with a Teaching Qualification from a Scottish Higher Education Institution.

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- Ensures a maximum class commitment of 0.7 Full-Time Equivalent, with time set aside for professional development.
- Provides each probationer with access to the services of an experienced teacher as a nominated probationer supporter.
- Ensures a consistently high quality probationary experience.
- Provides remuneration for the probationary period which compares well with that of other professions.

At the end of the teacher induction scheme probationary teachers will be eligible to apply for full registration as a teacher with the General Teaching Council for Scotland. To achieve this they will have to meet the requirements of the Standard for Full Registration (SFR). The SFR and the new Scheme will together serve to ensure that those entering this challenging and rewarding profession will be given the very best start to their career.¹³

Conclusions

The report is very useful in highlighting some of the differences and similarities in initial teacher training and it does initiate a debate in good practice in training. This is both timely and important if we are to keep our position as a country which provides a good education to its children and also encourages other countries to either use or mimic its innovations.

In teacher training in England at present, a reliance on competence statements, the use of numerous schools for school practice, low entry requirements, on-line testing for numeracy, literacy and ICT all seem very much the wrong direction if we are to attract and retain the most creative and talented communicators.

The system of training has no basis of trust whereas systems in other countries place trust in university trainers, trust teachers as professional experts and expect trainee teachers to trust the judgement of the professionals. All the stakeholders work together to train and retain young professionals, providing them with the support they need.

Of course, it is not only teacher training that is in need of reform: the way in which schools operate is also in need of change. Much of what I have said above applies equally to schools. There are far too many people involved with (and far too much money is spent on) testing, regulations and paperwork instead of providing an environment in which creativity and innovation are encouraged and flair is rewarded rather than stamped on. My

¹³ Teacher Induction Scheme 2004/5, Scottish Executive

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experience in teacher training and schools in not only the countries compared in the report but also in countries such as Ireland and Hungary (which have education systems that, on the whole, governments, parents, teachers and pupils are happy with) is that we need to adopt a different ethos in which teachers and teacher trainers are valued and respected rather than tested and criticised.

If much of the funding currently provided for educational quangos such as QCA, OFSTED, TTA, etc, were to be redirected to schools and teachers, we could begin to attract and retain quality professionals.

XIII

Flawed in Principle

John Marenbon

As the title of my chapter indicates, I argue that teacher training, as practised in most European and anglophone countries, is flawed in principle. My view is a very radical one, since it calls for the disbandment of a whole profession, the so-called 'teacher-educators', with their university departments and chairs, specialised institutes, and large helpings of taxpayers' money. The following paragraphs are an attempt to substantiate it.

This report differs in one very important respect from the other, apparently parallel studies of education in the UK and abroad published recently by Politeia. The areas of education – the pre-school years, and 16+ (academic and vocational) – examined in the two previous studies are clearly necessary and important. There is room, indeed, to question how early pre-school education should begin, and the extent to which parents should be encouraged into using it, but there is certainly the need to provide some education for some children under school-age. Similarly, it may be that policies designed to ensure higher and higher rates of 16 and 17-year-olds staying on at school are ill thought out, but no one would want to scrap schooling altogether for this age group. In both cases, therefore, the only appropriate response to the comparative report would be one which took its work and findings seriously, attempting to probe and evaluate them, and to consider what are their implications for policy. Teacher training or education, the subject of the present study, is a different case. Teacher training is not merely superfluous: it is harmful. It signals no disrespect, therefore, to Professor Moon, if, despite his carefully researched report, the conclusion I draw is a negative one. This area is not one where England and Wales should emulate the best practice found in other countries. It is an area which should be eliminated entirely if schools are to flourish.

Teachers need, of course, to be educated. They need, as we all do, a good general education, and they need an excellent specialised education in whatever subject or subjects they end up teaching. And that is all the formal education or training they need to be teachers. No doubt, there is much they have to learn about teaching – but it is practical knowledge, of a sort that can be learned only through practice. A new teacher can certainly benefit from the advice of an experienced colleague, and there is every reason to have a system of mentoring, in which senior teachers would attend the classes of

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beginners and give them their criticism and advice. Moon explains that in the UK there is an increasing emphasis on practical training in education courses: but why retain the courses at all? There are, even today (and we are promised more!), universities enough and too many, which claim to provide education in a whole range of academic subjects, as well as non-academic ones. Teacher training in Britain nowadays usually follows what Moon calls the 'consecutive model', in which teachers first take a degree and then gain a specific qualification as teachers. This second stage is unnecessary. Let those who wish to teach in schools be educated in the universities and then learn to be better teachers in the course of teaching in schools.

Suppose someone were to say that concert musicians, in addition to learning to play the piano, the violin, the oboe or whatever, needed to have a long and expensive training in performance – not in performing on the piano or violin or oboe, not in performing this or that sort of piece, but just in performing in general: would we not think that he was proposing an expensive and unnecessary innovation? If his suggestion were followed, and it turned out that standards of performance were not improved, and the best performers still did not take time to study performance, and yet they seemed to perform very well, would we even hesitate before condemning the new practice? Teacher training is a comparative novelty in the history of education. Its introduction does not seem to have improved standards of teaching, and the leading academic specialists in universities, who have never been trained except in their subject, spend their lifetimes teaching students, who go on to become leaders in their fields.

If teacher training were just unnecessary, there would be good reason to condemn it as a waste of time and money. But it actually does harm, through three subsidiary effects (the third of them in itself very important), and one underlying characteristic.

First, the existence of teacher training institutions and departments often allows weak students, who would not be able to study a subject successfully in the academic department of the university devoted to it, to come away with a degree that supposedly qualifies them to teach this subject. Although this 'concurrent' approach to teacher training is now less popular than before, it lingers on, quite without reason in an age of mass university education.

Second, the case has sometimes been made that special teacher training institutions, departments and courses are needed so as to inculcate into future teachers the highly complicated legal framework of state education, the systems for providing and assessing the National Curriculum and the

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aims and methods of GCSE and A-level examining. The opposite, rather, should be the case. In so far as government needs to interfere with the business of education – and it is doubtful whether it needs to interfere much at all – it should have to adapt itself to what a generally educated and academically trained person who has had no exposure to educationalists' jargon would find acceptable. Much of the shamefully docile behaviour of teachers in face of the attack on their professionalism mounted by successive governments since the 1980s should be blamed on the indoctrination they had already received in departments and institutions of teacher training.

Third, the requirement for a specific training in teaching discourages many of the best potential teachers from teaching. Many of the brightest graduates would be willing to teach for a short time (two or three years), though probably not to make teaching their career. Such people could be inspiring and energetic teachers, and some of them might, indeed, change their minds and stay in the profession. But they would need to be able to go straight from a degree to a job in a school for teaching to be attractive to them. There are also many highly-educated older people, who would make excellent teachers (especially, perhaps, for younger children). Again, the demand that they be trained formally to do what they could already do well without training puts most of them off the idea.

These are the subsidiary reasons. The underlying characteristic of teacher training, which explains why it is actually harmful, is that, by its very nature, it distorts teaching into a means-end activity, whereas good teaching, teaching that has any ultimate human value, cannot be envisaged in these terms at all. A teacher is a custodian of intellectual values and ways of understanding which are rooted in his particular discipline. His aim is to make his pupils share these values and follow these paths of understanding. He has an end, therefore, but it is not an end that can be defined except by beginning from the terms of his academic specialism, and there are no general means, apart from the techniques that belong to the subject, for achieving it. Teacher trainers must deny these truths about education, because they contradict their claim to a function. They must pretend that there is a skill – teaching – which involves certain means in which they can give a training, and they must accordingly claim that there are some sort of general terms in which the results of teaching (rather than teaching maths or teaching history or teaching Latin) can be presented and assessed. The result is an impoverishment of education.

Teachers need a good general education and an excellent specialised education in the subject or subjects they will be teaching. They need, therefore, to take a subject course in a subject faculty (not an education

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course in an education department), and they need no more in the way of formal training. Of course, they need practical experience, but they can gain that only on the job. In an age of an ever increasing number of universities and the expansion of subject courses, there is no reason for the continued existence of the 'concurrent model', where intending teachers learn both their subjects and are (supposedly) taught to teach. Nor is there any need for the 'consecutive model', which requires intending teachers to take a special teaching course after they have finished their subject courses at university. The present teacher training courses, and the institutional structures for their provision, should be eliminated altogether.

XIV

Flawed in Practice

Alan Smithers

The trouble with teacher training is that it desperately wants to be an academic subject. Indeed, in the university environment that has emerged in this country it is obliged to act as one. Excellent teachers recruited to education departments soon find that they are no longer valued for their expertise in teaching children, but have to prove themselves in research terms. Every four years the Research Assessment Exercise remorselessly demands evidence of their research activity, with diminished prestige and lesser contracts awaiting those found wanting. Teachers as neophyte academics soon find that one way to get published is to say something different. Education 'theory' differs from scientific theory in that it is much less checkable against external reality. Hence, provided they can come to terms with the accepted obscurantist language of the day, they have a licence to say almost anything, and in some ways the more outlandish the better. The people who judge the quality of their work will, in the main, have climbed this ladder themselves so the highly practical activity of training teachers finds itself enmeshed in a web of speculative and fanciful ideas.

The false grail of education theory was brilliantly exposed at a private meeting some years ago by Paul Hirst, a philosopher who was then Professor of Education at Cambridge University. I do not know whether he developed his thesis more formally and published it, but he suggested that training a teacher is more like designing an aircraft than developing a discipline. His key point was that manned-flight had been developed through a process of trial and error. Taking their inspiration from birds the pioneers had eventually got something that would stay off the ground for a few yards. Then, by a process of shaving a bit here and an adjustment there, they developed a machine that flew some more. That iterative process has continued down the years to give us our present planes. During the early stages at least, the science of physics hardly came into it. In so far as it did, it was to help make sense of why the changes that had been made actually worked as they did. No one had sat down with the laws of gravity and said that to defy them our machine must look like this.

But that is implicitly what teacher training has been trying to do. Instead of progressively improving the processes of teaching and teacher training through a series of small modifications that have been found to work, it has

Alan Smithers

been pursuing the dream of a grand theory to underpin professional practice, in the name of creating an academic discipline. Moon's introduction to his compendium starkly illustrates the harm this has done. He speculates, astonishingly without comment, that in England the influence of 'the Deweyian reflective practitioner, pragmatic tradition' has led 'to the social role of the teacher being over emphasised at the expense of the engagement with knowledge or subject.' The laborious research which he cites with approval hardly takes us anywhere, as he seems tacitly to admit. At one point he says, 'There is little empirical evidence to suggest that any particular balance of theory and practice is more effective than any other.' Elsewhere the meaning that he takes from his lengthy extract of the international comparisons is that the pedagogy should be understood in its larger cultural context, without which the effects and value, of any particular educational intervention cannot be predicted. Yet he ends with the usual plea of an academic discipline for more research, 'More developed, analytical studies are required to be able to probe beneath the description of systems and examine some of the fundamental differences between intellectual traditions that underpin the teacher training process.'

What a monumental distraction from the real business this is. But, as we have seen in the airplane example, even if were possible to arrive at theories as good as those of physics, they still would not necessarily be of much help in the practical activity of training teachers.

Essentials for Teaching

If we avoid such cul-de-sacs and take Hirst's direct practical route what would teacher training look like? In broad terms it is possible to identify four essential elements in teacher selection and preparation.

- Teachers should have expertise in what they are teaching whether it be history or reading;
- Teachers need to know how to organise their subject for the classroom, so knowing physics may be quite different from knowing how to convey that understanding through the facilities that are available in schools as opposed to research laboratories;
- Teachers must have personal presence and develop the practical skills of leading children in the classroom;
- Teachers also need to know about the legislative framework – relating for example to the curriculum, assessment, health and safety matters – in which they will be operating.

Practical Training

If we allow that trainees have acquired the necessary expertise in what they are preparing to teach through the degrees they have taken or are taking, the second and third points strongly suggest that the training should consist largely of honing up skills through practice. Under the tutelage of experienced and practising teachers, trainees should learn to adapt their subject knowledge so as to be able to 'function' it for pupils and learn how to handle classes of children effectively. This makes it surprising that, as Moon points out, 'responsibility for teacher education is still predominantly held by the universities in all countries.' The form this university education takes, however, differs widely. In many European countries there are strong links between the pedagogical institutes and the subject departments and, as Moon points out, 'there appears to be stronger emphasis on 'subject knowledge' and 'subject didactics''. The importance attached to expertise in the subject taught is underlined by the teaching qualification being in many countries for a particular subject for a particular age range, rather than a general qualification as in England which qualifies you to teach all subjects to all ages.

In England also the education departments take on themselves a wider brief seeking to provide both 'generic and subject specific professional training' which leaves them with 'very little contact with mainstream subject/discipline based departments.' It is this isolation which has led them to doubt their status and to seek to prove themselves through slavishly following inappropriate academic models. Rather than the fourth element being about providing necessary information, it flowered at one stage to become the main part of the training through extensive contextual courses in the psychology, sociology, philosophy and other disciplines which can be used to study education. The irrelevance of the teacher training courses led to constant complaints from schools and trainees. Shaw's celebrated aphorism 'those who can do, those who can't ...' was extended with general recognition and amusement, to suggest that 'those who can't teach – train teachers!'. Moon acknowledges that attempts to rectify this in the 1990s by giving the training a stronger practical emphasis have led to 'the approval rating of courses by students increasing significantly.' But do the changes go far enough?

Not only are the universities a questionable environment for teacher training, but they are also inefficient. Approaching 30 per cent of those successfully completing the courses are not in teaching the following March. If we take out also those accepting posts in independent schools and further

education, the loss to the maintained sector rises to a third (Smithers and Robinson, 2001). Why this should be is not fully understood. In some cases, undoubtedly, the shock of the difference between university life and the realities of the classroom will be too great for them to bridge. But it also seems likely that some students just wanting another year at university. This could be because they are deeply involved in university activities, for example the students union, or because they are uncertain what to do afterwards.

School-based Training

Both a proper understanding of the practical nature of teacher training and the inefficiencies of the university/school divide indicate that the training should be located mainly in schools rather than the universities. England has been moving in that direction with a minimum of 24 weeks specified to be in school out of a 36-weeks postgraduate training course. But this still leaves the universities in the driving seat since the funding is channelled through them.

Alongside the university courses, two school-based routes have grown up: school-centred initial teacher training (SCITTs) in which consortia of schools provide the training; and employment-based routes (EBRs) by which well-qualified trainees, both from this country and overseas, are employed by schools and paid a salary while working towards qualified status. Analysis of the Teacher Training Agency's performance profiles (Smithers and Robinson, 2003), however, shows both are currently small, with 86 per cent of the 30,583 final-year trainees in 2001-02 being in the universities and colleges. About 10 per cent (3,133) were on EBRs, but the 41 SCITT between them catered for only 1,050 trainees (3 per cent). This compares with the 1,400 trainees at Manchester Metropolitan University alone. But the SCITTs (no data are currently available for EBRs) have a much better employment record than the universities, with 82 per cent of the trainees employed in maintained schools in the year after successfully completing.

The sheer number of teachers that have to be recruited and trained each year probably explains why the universities, for all their inadequacies, are still largely in control of teacher training. With over 30,000 teachers to be found every year there have to be major conduits. The 74 universities and colleges involved in teacher training, on the spot as they are to receive applications, provide major channels in the way that would be difficult for the 21,440 schools, though it should not be impossible to devise some mechanism. Given the evident advantages of school-based training it should be government policy to re-balance teacher training in favour of schools.

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A step in this direction would be to allow the EBRs to grow in response to demand. The schemes have proved very popular both with schools and trainees. For example, a school with a maths vacancy is able to find someone with the necessary maths expertise and train them up to qualified status; someone with the necessary maths expertise is able to take employment in a school and receive a salary while being trained. But there have been restrictions both with respect to subject and age of entry, and the number of places available has been limited. Employment-based routes should be allowed to grow in response to the demand from schools, so the full extent of their potential contribution can be realised. Although on the surface more expensive than university training, when the actual teaching the trainees do and the lower wastage rate are taken into account they emerge as likely to be the more cost effective.

Fund the Schools

An important feature of EBRs that the government should seek to extend to the rest of teacher training is that in them the money for training is channelled mainly through the schools. This puts them in the position of being able to hire from universities and other providers what they cannot offer themselves – the framework knowledge we have itemised as bullet 4 springs to mind. Funding via schools enables them to commission the support they see themselves as requiring, not leaving them to receive what others think they should.

Under present arrangements, for the great bulk of teacher training, it is the universities and colleges which are funded. The schools traditionally provided training practice places on a grace-and favour basis out of a commitment to education. Since schools have had their individual budgets they have come to be more business-like and have negotiated arrangements for sharing the training costs. But the problem remains one where the schools are still obliged to go to the universities who are the paymasters. How much better for the costs of training to be included in the schools' budgets. Schools could then, in concert with other schools, buy in from the universities what they needed in terms of lectures and assessment.

It is likely that many of the existing partnerships between the universities and schools would flourish anew under such arrangements, but there would now be a continuing reality test for the training process. Instead of university lecturers indulging in flights of fancy for research assessment purposes, the schools would be inclined to pay only for services that made their life easier by genuinely improving the quality of their trainee teachers.

Alan Smithers

Conclusion

Moon suggests that most of the countries in his study are content for teacher training to be based in the universities. This could be because in them the training consists of stronger support from the subject departments and more subject-focused pedagogy. One lesson for us might be that subject departments in British universities should become more involved in the training of teachers. But other countries suffer teacher shortages as we do. A recent study by the European Information Network (Eurydice, 2002) found that 21 of 31 countries reported shortages, and concerns were expressed about the quality of the teachers who were available.

A more important lesson may, therefore, come from within our own system in the early success of the employment-based routes. The government should be looking for ways of increasing the proportion of teacher trainees on them. This would not only be more efficient in securing more teachers for the investment in training, but also curb the wilder excesses of the pseudo-academicism that has grown up in the name of teacher training.

XV

Entirely Flawed

Chris Woodhead

Professor Moon asserts that 'the case studies show significant diversity between countries and some areas of congruence.' I would put it the other way round. There are some differences in detail, but in essence each of the countries studied in this report has adopted a very similar approach to the training and accreditation of its teachers. Aspirant teachers must, for example, have a degree before they can begin their professional studies, or, if they are to train on the concurrent model, A levels or their equivalent. Each country requires some study of the subject that is to be taught, some general professional study, and some time spent in school. The proportion of time allocated to each element varies, but not a lot. 'The responsibility for teacher education', as Moon notes, 'is still predominantly held by universities in all these countries'. And, the most significant fact of all: if you want to teach in a state school in any of these countries you must obtain accreditation from the state. Schools are not free to choose the individual they judge to be the best candidate for their vacant post irrespective of his or her qualifications; individuals, who may be qualified through a life time's experience as, for example, a musician or a carpenter, have nonetheless to jump through state-determined hoops.

What may be a significant difference does not emerge from what are essentially bird's eye, quantitative analyses. This is the time devoted to 'subject knowledge' and what Moon calls 'subject didactics'. Other European countries 'appear', he tells us, to emphasise these elements more than we do in England, and links between education departments and 'the wider academy' are, not surprisingly, stronger in these countries than they are here. He reports these possible differences, but makes no comment upon them. If real, they are highly significant. You cannot teach anyone anything if you do not understand what it is you are teaching, and, as inspection has repeatedly shown, many teachers don't. The lack of contact, moreover, between subject 'experts' in departments of education and the lecturers – subject specialists - who should be their colleagues in the wider university, can allow enthusiasms to flourish (consider, for example, the exotic growths in English and Mathematics that have sprung up in the fertile soil of 'subject didactics') that critical scrutiny from those outside the education departments might just have squashed. The more isolated the department of

Chris Woodhead

education, the more likely it is that fanciful stances are taken, if only to secure a distinctive identity and role for the 'expert', and, conversely, the less actual subject knowledge the student is likely to be taught.

'The descriptions', Moon writes in the most interesting section of his introduction, 'do not always make explicit important but subtle differences between countries that may profoundly influence the training process'. His example of these differences is taken from a study by Broadfoot and Osborn (1993) which found that 'French primary teachers place more emphasis on basic skills and academic knowledge than English teachers for whom a major concern is the development of intelligence and an all round education'. In that he reports this difference of 'emphasis' without comment, one can only assume that Moon believes that intelligence can be developed and an 'all round' education achieved by illiterate and innumerate students who know nothing about anything. He continues: 'English primary teachers also seek to achieve a basic complement of non-cognitive objectives including notions such as desire to learn, socialisation and personal development'. Again, there is no comment, no attempt to distance himself from the basic absurdity of the belief that 'personal development' can, for example, be divorced from the acquisition of knowledge. He concludes, and the confused thinking and failure to understand his own responsibility as a Professor of Education for the mess we are in is a nice illustration of why a university dominated system of teacher training is never going to deliver the teachers we need: 'A clear message of the study was that pedagogy needs to be understood in terms of the larger cultural context and that without such understanding, the effects, and hence the potential value, of any particular educational intervention cannot be predicted'.

But this so-called 'cultural context' does not spring fully formed from the ether. It is created by those academics, like Professor Moon, who have responsibility for training the nation's teachers. English primary school teachers have been taught to value the soggy goals of 'personal development' over the teaching of knowledge. A later 1998 study by Broadfoot and Ward, he tells us, reveals that 'despite the introduction of the national curriculum and advocacy of more teacher centred approaches English teachers remained individual and child centred in their pedagogic styles'. This is hardly surprising given the dominant ideology at each stage of training.

For Moon, these 'distinctions represent the strengths of different traditions that influence teacher education in each of the countries'. The thought that the 'tradition' has been created by teacher educators does not appear to have crossed his mind. And in his mind each tradition has equal validity. 'In

Comparing Standards: Teaching the Teachers

Chris Woodhead

England, and in the USA, the Deweyian reflective practitioner, pragmatic tradition has come to dominate teacher education programmes. In France and Germany and much of continental Europe, a more knowledge-focused interest in didactics and pedagogics has been central to the education and training process.' He asks with naïve wonder whether in England and the USA 'the social role' of the teacher might have 'been overemphasised at the engagement with knowledge or subject'? It just might. Right, Moon concludes, what we need is more research, which, of course, is what researchers always say. He wants 'to probe beneath the description of systems and examine some of the fundamental differences between the intellectual traditions that underpin the teacher training process'.

Forget research. The differences are already crystal clear. Let's dwell instead on the testimony of this senior academic who cannot see what is obvious to everyone outside the world of teacher training. The Deweyian 'reflective practitioner' tradition is responsible for the underachievement of generations of children and it is the lecturers and professors in the teacher education departments of our universities who have done more than anyone else to ensure that new teachers are indoctrinated into this tradition before they set foot in the classroom.

Of the countries studied, France and Germany appear to focus most sharply (and sensibly) upon subject knowledge and teaching skills. But we can't be sure and even in these countries there are problems. A lack of detail in Moon's descriptions means that apparently innocuous phrases could in reality hide a multitude of sins. French students, for example, spend 66 per cent of their time on 'professional studies' which include courses on 'pupil's acquisition of knowledge', but this, at least, is after having spent three years taking a subject degree. It could be fine, but it could mean anything. It could be the body of waffle known as 'how children learn' that primary 'practitioners' in England value so highly. In Germany, students training to work in secondary schools spend a minimum of two-thirds of their time on their subjects, but they also have to attend courses dedicated to 'the politics of education, psychology, sociology and pedagogy'. 'This', Moon notes, 'reflects the perceived need for theoretical underpinning of professional practice'. No country is, it seems, uncontaminated by the enthusiasms of the professional educationalist.

The extent to which England has been contaminated is clear from the details of the University of Sussex course which Moon helpfully provides. I quote: 'This course enables you to become a professional teacher...Topics include child development, special educational needs, teaching and learning styles, comparative education in developing countries and presentation skills'.

Does one need to know anything about child development to teach? The answer, think of Piaget's perverse influence, is that it is probably better not to know. At some point, perhaps, a teacher faced with a particular pupil, may need to know something about a particular educational need. But not in a one year course where time is at a premium and the survey is going to be so general and theoretical as to be meaningless. The reference to 'teaching and learning styles' merely reinforces the sense that such training is a ragbag of contemporary fads. What is a 'learning style' and why have so many educationalists responded so uncritically to the highly questionable (and, within the world of psychology, much questioned) theories of Howard Gardner? Comparative education in developing countries? Why? Because it is deemed necessary in this politically correct world to genuflect to the third world or because someone seriously believes that this information will help the student in a Sussex classroom become a better teacher? And, finally, what is the difference between a 'teaching style' and a 'presentation skill', assuming, that is, the terms mean anything? If it were not so serious, it would be comic.

As would the attempts of politicians to inject some common sense into these absurdities. I can understand the thinking. Define the outcomes sufficiently tightly and the focus must become more sensible. But it has not happened. The 'competencies' Moon appends to his analysis of the Scottish system demonstrate the problem. It begins well with a proper emphasis on subject knowledge, but that emphasis is rapidly undermined by a manic determination to include everything. So students must 'demonstrate a knowledge of, and the ability to play a part in, personal and social education, health education, education for sustainable development, enterprise, and, when appropriate (but not, of course when not), vocational education'. They must be able to 'justify what is taught from knowledge of the learning process, curriculum issues, child development in general and the needs of his or her pupils in particular'.

These competencies are, moreover, either eminently sensible statements of the obvious (students must be able to 'motivate and sustain the interest of all pupils in a class') or distinctly suspect (students must 'respond to gender, social, cultural, linguistic and religious differences among pupils' and 'encourage pupils to take initiatives in, and become responsible for, their own learning'). Once again, the political will has been corrupted. The 'experts' have won.

My reading of these analyses has done nothing to make me re-think my position on teacher training. Governments can tinker with the curriculum teacher training institutions are required to follow, but it is tinkering. The

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amount of time the student must spend in school can usefully be increased, but the influence of the university education departments remains paramount and there is not a great deal to be learnt from practice elsewhere because the whole world seems to be in the same mess.

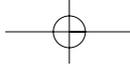
Mess? Hasn't my successor as Chief Inspector, David Bell, reported that we have the best generation of new teachers ever? He has. I can only report that I was always highly sceptical of the reports produced by HMI/OFSTED teacher training division. Too many of the inspectors in this team were a product of the teacher training world; too few were prepared to question their own deep-seated assumptions. Things may have changed, but somehow I doubt it. Talk to headteachers who run school based teacher training schemes and they make the same complaint: very few inspectors look at what they are achieving with enthusiasm or even impartiality. Criteria that may be appropriate for a traditional, university education based course are applied rigidly and inappropriately. The basic assumption is that the training of teachers demands specialist expertise that school teachers cannot possibly possess. Mr Bell ought in my view to read between a few lines, and, until he does, I for one am not prepared to accept his panglossian pronouncement.

The most interesting initiative at present is one that Professor Moon mentions only in passing – the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP). Graduates training under this initiative can work in schools licensed to employ them and induct them into teaching. Essentially, this is a variation on School Centred Initial Teacher Training. But, predictably enough, these alternative schemes are subjected to onerous regulation from the TTA and the number of students allowed to train on them is severely restricted so that only around 10-15 per cent of trainees are on school based schemes.

The thinking upon which these programmes are based is, in my view, hard to challenge. Teachers need a secure knowledge of (and enthusiasm for) the subject(s) they are to teach to a level that is appropriate given the age of their pupils; they must master the craft of the classroom; and they must be human beings of some maturity, probity and wisdom. The latter cannot be taught. The craft of the classroom is best mastered in a classroom. The issue of 'appropriateness' is crucial to the knowledge base. You do not need to be Wittgenstein to teach in a primary school, and it is probably better if you are not.

Teachers may or may not, therefore, need a subject degree and their training ought to be located securely in the classroom. The educational (political, sociological, psychological) theory which to a greater or lesser extent is to be

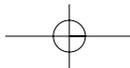
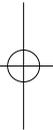
found in each of the systems studied in this report though, less pronounced in some, is at best a distraction and at worst damaging. The regulation and inspection serves to stifle the initiative and enthusiasm of headteachers who want to train new teachers and discourages, in particular, mature entrants to the profession. It is time to deal with a problem that has festered for years, and the change needs to be radical.



Part III

Conclusions and Recommendations

Sheila Lawlor



XVI

Conclusions: the Comparative Analysis

Very significant conclusions emerge from the detailed examination of the individual countries with which the system here can be compared. In particular, the evidence suggests that teachers in this country, particularly those who become primary teachers having qualified (mainly) through the BEd, enter and conclude their training at a far lower academic standard than that required elsewhere. This is true of standards for entry, standards on the training course itself (especially in regard to the emphases on subject teaching) and standards to qualify. For those who qualify through the university subject degree and PGCE, the evidence suggests they may be ill-equipped to teach at primary school, (or some may be teaching subjects at secondary school which they have not taken to degree standard) while the postgraduate certificate of education may not be a sensible preparation for teaching.

This chapter begins by summarising and commenting on the information provided by the comparative analysis about English teacher-training. It asks three questions: what are the standards at entry? What are the standards of the courses? And what are the standards of the qualifications gained at the end of them? The second part of the chapter compares standards in England with those in the wide range of other industrial democracies surveyed in Part I and considers some of the issues which arise.

(i) England

(a) Standards at entry

BEd Courses

Candidates for primary school teaching, especially those whose training is through the education course leading to a BEd, are not obliged to reach the same general level of education on leaving school in vital subjects, as candidates in many other similar western industrial democracies. The standard required to start is pitched at a level lower in terms of the overall standard of the school leaving examination, the level which must be reached and the number of subjects to be taken.

PGCE (Postgraduate Certificate of Education)

Candidates for the PGCE, who have taken a university subject degree at the end of three years study in the subject(s) they will teach, may have very

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different standards. The degree is normally classified and awarded on the basis of a written exam (and other criteria), though the standard may vary – as will that for initial admission - depending on the institution. This means that, although subject study concluding with a good degree will ensure a high standard in the subjects to be taught (provided of course these coincide with the degree subjects), different universities will have different degree standards. A further problem arises in that secondary teachers may not have taken the subjects they teach or a related subject to degree level.

The teaching qualification which then follows, the PGCE, normally required in order to qualify to teach, also varies in standard. A tiny proportion follow other on the job training routes.

Not only is there variation in the standards of degrees and that for initial admission, but subject graduates who intend to teach at primary school may not have covered to a sufficiently rigorous level the subjects of the primary curriculum. They are obliged to study maths and English to GCSE level only and the subjects of the primary curriculum need not necessarily have been taken to A level standard.¹⁴ Candidates for teaching will then tend to take the professional postgraduate certificate in education course, leading to the PGCE.

(b) Standards of courses*BEd*

The courses do not sufficiently emphasise essential subject teaching or the subjects of the primary curriculum, and there is insufficient emphasis on making up for the low standards at entry. This is partly because the weighting given to non-subject or 'professional' studies means that far less time is devoted to teaching the subjects themselves which are fundamental to the primary curriculum. The proportion of time spent on teaching school subjects may not be adequate to equip trainees for competent teaching at school or compensate for the lower levels at entry.

Subject degree and PGCE

It is not clear that the PGCE is a sensible use of time, or that spending a proportionately large period of time on dubious sociological and psychological theories is the best basis for training teachers. Trainee teachers find the practical element of the course helpful, though the remainder of the course appears to be both general and non-subject based.

¹⁴ A level: A complete A level consists of one AS and one A2 or a compressed A2 level course or 2 AS levels.

*Conclusions and Recommendations***(c) Standards of qualifications***BEd*

It is not clear to those outside the institution that the system of qualifications is one in which there can be confidence. The qualification is the responsibility of the awarding institution which must satisfy itself that departmental regulations are met. But neither the regulations themselves nor the criteria for the courses inspire confidence that would be teachers are in a position to teach the subjects.

PGCE

The standard of the PGCE qualification is set by the individual institution and the expectations or the assessment model used may vary. There may, for instance, be a written examination and continuous assessment as well as assessment by the teachers supervising the practical training. There are further problems in that candidates are expected to have met the criteria laid down by the Teacher Training Agency, which can in practice lead to qualification merely by 'box ticking'.

(ii) International Comparisons*(a) Standards at entry*

What are the minimum academic standards for admission to initial teacher training in this country and how do these compare with those expected in other countries?

In general, the minimum academic standard for entry to teacher training is set in most countries in this study by the school leaving examination at 18+: where this examination is taken at different levels (e.g. the academic, the general or the professional) teacher trainees tend to be expected to take the most academic level. The standards of training and indeed teaching will therefore reflect the initial standard at entry. Across the countries of our study, although the minimum standard of entry varies, the continental countries in general have higher standards at entry than those in this country.

This impression emerges on three different counts. First, the obligatory school leaving examination at 18+ is pitched at a higher standard than the A level.¹⁵ Second, candidates are obliged to pass in a greater number of subjects (each of which is pitched at a standard higher than A level standard), many

¹⁵ For an analysis and discussion of the standard of curriculum and qualifications in the comparator countries, see *Comparing Standards, 16-19*. (2002)

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of which will be on the curriculum at primary school. Third, applicants are obliged to reach higher standards than are required here, in the vital subjects of maths and native language. In short, there will be fewer subjects taken at A level, these need only be taken to a lower standard, and they may not even relate to the school curriculum.

A comparison of the overall standard of the school-leaving examination, the grades needed, the number of subjects expected and the admission requirements in England and the other countries studied, will bring out the point.

Candidates in England to be admitted to the training for the BEd, the principal route for primary teaching, need only a GCSE maths and English and A level passes (C grade) in just two subjects. For secondary school teaching, candidates tend to take a university degree followed by a PGCE. Here the required standard at A level will be set by the university entrance requirements.

Candidates in the continental countries of our study are subject to more demanding standards of entry, set by the school-leaving level, which appears to be higher. France, Germany, the Netherlands and Switzerland, each have a more rigorous school-leaving exam – in terms of the sweep of knowledge examined in depth, the breadth or number of subjects examined, and the nature of the examination itself, with timed written, oral and practical papers. From the USA, SATs offer a different approach to more rigorous examining.

In France, the baccalauréat with French, maths, a foreign language, science, history, geography and sport and possibly a classical language, is obligatory. In Germany, candidates must have the Abitur with compulsory German, maths, at least one foreign language, and a ‘strong’ option with subsidiary subjects which include one science and one of the humanities. In the Netherlands candidates must have passed the school-leaving examination at 18 at one of 3 levels. The exam is at different levels for university or higher professional, secondary education or pre-vocational - VWO (preparatory academic education, for university education), HAVO (for senior general secondary, preparing for higher professional education) and VMBO (pre-vocational secondary education). In Switzerland, all candidates for teaching in schools up to lower secondary (i.e. pre-school, primary, or lower secondary) must have a school leaving certificate (matura) from a gymnasium school, before being admitted for training at the Hautes Écoles Pédagogiques (HEP). Alternative routes exist, but candidates must take preparation courses and admissions examinations. For those intending to teach upper secondary level, candidates need to have the equivalent of a

Conclusions and Recommendations

degree in their specialised subject obtained from a university or a ‘haute école spécialisée’. There are different rules for those teaching in commercial or vocational schools.

The other Anglophone countries tend to reflect some of the patterns here, where what are often confusing criteria for entry may allow for a lower standard. New Zealand, where candidates should have the equivalent of 3 A levels, appears to suffer from some similar problems such as confusing criteria for entry and an education system which bears some of the marks of gesture sociology. In Scotland candidates need to have the equivalent of 3 A levels. Candidates for primary teaching are admitted on the basis of SCQF (Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework) awards in three subjects at level six, the equivalent of grades BB or CCD at A level, and SCQF awards in two other subjects at level five the equivalent of A/B grades at GCSE. Candidates must have the equivalent of GCSE English at grade C and GCSE maths at grade B.

In the USA standards at entry vary from state to state, and school leavers who intend to teach must meet university entry requirements, where, for a teaching course, subjects such as English, maths and science and a foreign language, would be included. Students will be expected to have a high school diploma and also US colleges require that all their applicants take one or more standardised tests, usually the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) or the American College Test (ACT). For example, in Washington State, a student would need to be qualified in maths and English and have had high school classes in English, maths, science, social science, foreign languages and fine, visual or performing arts. The high school diploma is broadly based, and the standard is patchy though the SAT can be a rigorous test, which can assess both breadth and knowledge. It is difficult, however, to make an exact comparison between the US and other countries with regard to standards of entry because of the lack of any national school-leaving examination, such as A levels in England and Wales and the baccalauréat in France.

To conclude: the evidence suggests that the standard expected for entry into teacher training in England – as measured by the school leaving exam – is pitched lower than in comparator continental countries. Entrants to teaching here are not expected to be as well-educated as entrants in continental countries, a fact which suggests that teaching staff will be less well-educated and less prepared for teaching. While subject specialists with subject degrees may be equipped to teach their degree subjects in secondary school, the general academic standard will reflect the admissions standards of the university and these vary in rigour, and may reflect the lower levels required for initial teacher training.

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(b) Standards of courses

What of the training and the emphases of primary and secondary training? What standards are expected – especially in the subjects to be taught – and how do they compare with those of comparator countries? Do they make up the ground already lost at entry of lower standards?

Across the countries of the study the most common route for secondary (or upper secondary) teaching is through a university subject (or mainly subject) degree that is then followed by a one (or two) year professional course. For primary teaching, the preparation tends to take place in higher education institutions where subject study and professional studies are taken simultaneously. In France, however, all candidates are obliged to have a university subject degree, whereas in Germany and Switzerland training takes place in university or higher education institutions.

In England, subject teaching does not have the same priority or emphasis in the BEd courses. These contain a mixture of subject studies, curriculum subjects (national curriculum for primary or specialised subject studies for secondary), pedagogical and educational studies, and practical teaching skills. Indeed, not only is there no stipulation about the time to be spent on subject teaching. But the links with subject departments or teaching by subject specialists in these departments appear to be non-existent. Certainly, given that a fair percentage of time (up to one third) must be spent on school-based training, what remains is divided between subject and professional studies. A further twist comes from the regulation that trainee teachers must qualify under three headings, again suggesting that subject knowledge is not paramount. The three headings stipulated are professional values and practices, knowledge and understanding (where the teachers should be 'confident and authoritative in the subjects they teach' and understand how pupils progress) and teaching skills (such as planning, class management, monitoring and assessment). By contrast, other countries place greater emphasis on mastering the subjects to be taught, often by the subject specialists in the subject facilities.

France requires all candidates for both primary and secondary to take a subject degree following 3 years study (*licence*) in a university before applying to train. For more highly qualified candidates with an *Agrégation*, there will have been four years of study to *Maîtrise* level. This is followed by professional training over 2 years with individual courses for nursery/primary, secondary, technical and professional. Each stage is marked by a selective examination, with subject knowledge being examined by written papers in stage one, and a dissertation that can be subject based,

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being submitted for stage 2. In total 66 per cent of the time is spent on professional (including subject) studies and 33 per cent on teaching practice.

In Germany trainee teachers attend a 4-year university course, where for intending primary teachers most time is spent on the subjects to be taught. Although primary teachers may teach all the subjects, they focus on 2 or 3 during university training with the rest as subsidiary. Intending secondary teachers spend c. 40 per cent of time on each of two main subjects and 20 per cent on general education. The second stage takes place over 24 months, with a ratio of 35 education sessions to 25 subject didactics sessions. German teachers, therefore follow a university course where the subject teaching in at least two subjects is taken to degree level for Gymnasium teachers and is given by the subject departments, with psychology of learning, pedagogy and other professional subjects taught for a smaller number of hours.

In Switzerland teachers for upper secondary or Gymnasium teaching at Matura level, take a university degree course in a specialist subject, with two subjects taken to degree level followed by one year's professional training. Trainees for pre-school, primary (*maître généraliste*) and lower-secondary (*maître semi-généraliste*) attend higher education institutions, the Hautes Écoles Pédagogiques (HEP), and courses include subject studies, professional training and practical training. For lower secondary, 40 – 65 per cent of time is for subject study, 15 per cent for professional training and 20 per cent for practical training. For primary teaching the breakdown is similar.

The Dutch appear to place greater emphasis on subject teaching for upper secondary, where teachers take a subject degree – amounting to 25 per cent of trainee teachers. For the remainder, lower or general secondary, vocational and adult, the four year training course at the teacher training institutions allocates 25 per cent of time to teaching practice and splits the remainder, 75 per cent, evenly between subject studies (where one subject is taken) and professional studies. For primary school teachers, trained in the same institutions, the courses cover subjects to be taught and professional studies, leading to the qualification for primary teaching. Here again, 25 per cent of time is allocated to practical work and the remainder split between subject and professional studies.

The Anglophone countries, Scotland and New Zealand have a less categorical approach to subject teaching and again share some of the diffused approach of this country. Scotland, in addition to the university subject degree and teaching qualification, allows teachers to qualify through an education degree (BEd) or a combined degree, which leads to a subject

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degree with teaching qualification. New Zealand's trainees, other than those who enter teaching after a subject degree, qualify through a basic qualification, the Diploma in Teaching over a three year course, or a Bachelor in Education course offered sometimes in combination with other degrees (e.g. BA and BSc). In the United States where each state sets its standards and accreditation requirements¹⁶ (an accreditation certificate allows the teacher to teach in the state's maintained (i.e. public) schools), the 'credential' is subject specific or multi-subject for primary school teaching. However the level, though pitched to the minimum standard of the bachelor's degree, will vary depending on the university and the nature of the course taken. Concurrent teacher preparation courses combine teacher preparation with courses for a degree such as BA or BS where half the weighting can be for the subject¹⁷. Primary teachers normally take a liberal arts course and secondary teachers major in the subject they intend to teach and follow a single subject credential. The subject degree route for graduate entrants is followed by professional or on the job training courses. Here graduates can move to teaching after taking their degree with teacher preparation courses after the degree (pre-internship, internship, post-Baccalaureate).

To conclude. The emphasis on teaching trainees the subject(s) they will teach is more pronounced in most of the countries of our study than in England. One consequence will be higher standards of subject knowledge for teachers in the subjects taught at school, building on higher standards of entry. In the continental countries subject teaching accounts for *at least half* (though often more) of the taught teacher preparation courses for all trainee teachers up to lower secondary level. This subject teaching may often be the responsibility of subject specialists in the universities (as in Germany). For those intending to teach the upper secondary level, a university subject degree is required before beginning professional training. In France all teachers must take a university subject degree before beginning their professional training.

In England, there is no stipulation as to the amount of time spent on subject teaching or no obligation for systematic subject teaching. Nor is there any

¹⁶ Around half the colleges with teacher preparation programmes have accreditation through the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, an expanding system of accreditation recognised by states as a full teaching license. Graduate entrants will be expected to have reached a minimum standard on general education courses.

¹⁷ Though each institution determines its own courses, the illustration (appendix 12) from Central Washington University, suggests a breakdown of credits where a teacher preparation course may give slightly greater emphasis to subject studies for secondary teaching but probably shares the same problems for primary preparation as this country.

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expectation for such teaching to be conducted by university subject specialists. Indeed the English education departments, as the report makes clear, are far more isolated than their counterparts elsewhere. The weighting is left to the individual departments and it seems from the examples given that the professional and practical elements are as much the focus of the courses as any subject teaching.

The other Anglophone countries such as Scotland and New Zealand may also suffer from an over- mixed focus. Though the rules vary in the US from state to state, the illustration suggests an approach not dissimilar to here.

(c) Standards of qualifications

Some of the more rigorous countries of our study uphold a transparent examination system, where candidates take a formal written examination as well as additional oral or less formal assessments. In this way it is quite clear whether they have reached, or failed to reach, the required standard of knowledge and mastery of the subjects taught. This system is absent from the qualifying examination for teaching here (though the subject degree examination is normally written, timed and classed, with some other assessment). Instead the teaching qualification, BEd or PGCE, is awarded on the basis of the judgements made of the candidate by those responsible for teaching the students, according to the dubious rules laid down by bureaucrats.

Taking a broad view of the more rigorous examples, the rule is an initial examination. In France all teachers take a three year university degree course leading to the *licence*, which is followed by a two year professional training course at an IUFM, with a competitive written examination after the first year and a final assessment (including a dissertation) after the second year. This involves practical and oral tests and a written dissertation '*mémoire professionnel*', a record of attendance for secondary and a mixture of texts on the options for primary. A further, higher teaching qualification, the *Agrégation*, is awarded on the basis of a competitive examination for which candidates must, as a minimum, have a *Maîtrise* (after four years university). Germany's candidates take an exam at the end of the first, university based phase of teacher education, known as the first state examination.¹⁸ This is a written examination in at least 2 subjects. The second phase, a two-year practical training course at teacher seminars and teacher education training schools, concludes with the submission of a dissertation on the didactics of one subject studied at university. Candidates are also examined in a

¹⁸ This will be after 3-4 years for primary, 4-5 years for secondary, 6 years for upper secondary.

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practical lesson and in oral examinations, after which they take the second state examination.

Switzerland's candidates take regular exams throughout their course with an examination at the end of each of the three stages of training: the introduction (one semester long), the professionalisation (3 semesters for *maître généraliste*, and one for *maître spécialisé*) and the specialisation phase (3 semesters for *maître généraliste* and one for *maître spécialisé*). The basic standard for teaching diplomas, the exam proceedings and the final 'deliverance' of the qualification is prescribed by the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK). For primary and pre-school teachers the tests include oral, written and practical assessment, and for lower secondary level, specialised knowledge, educational theory and teaching practice are assessed. Teachers at Matura schools must have a university subject degree in two subjects, followed by one year of full time training, when the teaching diploma is issued on the basis of an evaluation of the achievements.

In the Netherlands, the position with regard to qualifications is more diffuse. Candidates conclude their training by being assessed for the qualification on the basis of a portfolio of evidence of competences achieved (e.g. reports of observation in the classroom, students' diaries of progress, final self-evaluative reports, observations by the mentor). Each institution can determine the contents of its course provided it sets targets for final attainment or competences. There is no national examination and no national curriculum for teachers' education in the Netherlands and the three training routes lead to different qualifications

In the Anglophone countries, apart from the subject degree followed by professional training (a route common to each), the qualification and assessment system also appears less rigorous and more diffuse.

In the United States, each state sets the standards of what needs to be covered and the institutions prepare trainees to meet these standards. An accreditation certificate allows the teacher to practise in the state's public schools with a variety of qualifications allowed towards accreditation. The bachelor's degree in education tends to be the minimum, with primary teachers advised to major in liberal arts and work towards a multiple subject credential, and high school teachers majoring in the subject they will teach and following a single subject credential. Candidates without a degree will take courses for a Bachelor's degree (e.g. BA or BS) combined with teacher preparation coursework. But not all teachers are qualified or have majored in the subjects they teach, and research suggests that one quarter of

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secondary teachers have neither a major or minor in their main teaching field – especially the case for 30 per cent of maths teachers. In other subjects it is estimated that about half the high school students taking physical science and 21 per cent taking English are taught by 'out-of-field' teachers.

For the Scottish concurrent model - the education degree or the combined degree (where courses lead to a named subject degree and a separately awarded teaching qualification in that subject) - the assessment varies from university to university and is decided by the individual institution. The standards set out in the regulations (circular 13/98) must be met. For New Zealand's three types of teaching qualification - the Diploma in Teaching (for primary and Maori medium), the Bachelor of Education (for primary and early years and secondary subjects such as PE and Technology) and the Graduate Diploma of Teaching – the examination varies. Whereas for the Bachelor of Education there is a mixture of assessment and exams, for secondary school teachers with a subject degree, the Graduate Diploma of Teaching involves no written exams, and assessment is by observation and essay.

To conclude. The standards on which the qualification for teaching is based are measured very differently in the countries of our study. On the whole, the continental countries use rigorous and transparent written - and other - examinations that the candidate must pass. By contrast in this country, and in some of the other Anglophone countries, a mixture of assessments based on official criteria and targets and subjective judgements by those involved in teaching the candidates, appear to be more widespread. This can make for a lack of clarity or rigour in the standard measured.

XVII

Conclusions: the Commissioners' Reports

Conclusions and Recommendations

(i) Common Concerns

The commissioners share a number of common concerns (though their solutions differ):

1. The centralised system in this country is one, unlike elsewhere, which tends to undermine effective teacher training of a high standard. Its flaws are reinforced by a competency-based assessment model and inspection.
2. One fundamental weakness is the inadequate standard of subject knowledge essential to primary teaching. The system does not prevent primary teachers entering teaching with inadequate subject knowledge, due either to the low standards at entry or to inadequate emphasis on the subjects during the course. This contrasts with other countries, especially those on the continent.
3. British education departments (where both primary and post-graduate training takes place) tend not to have the strong links with the subject departments or wider academic community. This contrasts with the continental examples.
4. Recruitment and retention. The training system does not necessarily attract those most able and suitable for teaching and there are problems of retention.
5. School based training is popular and the commissioners support such training. They differ over the extent to which the schools themselves should take full responsibility for training those already qualified in subject knowledge (and the funding which goes with it), or whether there should be a group of practice schools working in 'partnership' with university education departments.

On these matters there is common ground, as there is on the principles for reform based on greater emphasis on the subject knowledge essential for good primary teaching, followed by a period of professional training which should be of a practical nature. But the future role of the university education departments is contentious, and this reflects a wider debate in the UK. Burghes suggests that in future university education departments should co-operate with a number of practice schools to ensure that theory and practice work hand in hand. By contrast, Woodhead and Smithers consider that because of their impact and their commitment to apparently dubious research, the education departments should be removed from the process of training teachers. Because the commissioners differ on this, the role of the education departments will be discussed separately, taking into account these differences.

(ii) Where the Commissioners agree

On a considerable number of points the commissioners agree about the weaknesses of the English system. They are:

The system is over-centralised and dirigiste, and as a result standards are lowered.

The system itself and its organisation is over-centralised and dirigiste. At each turn it reinforces a set of wrong, if not damaging, criteria, e.g. through its competency based assessment model and inspection. It is dirigiste and both the content of training and the assessment model are over dominated by the state and its bureaucratic process. As a result trainees may be taught (or expected to master) the wrong things and the system may be damaging to teaching (Woodhead and Smithers), with little room left for flair and initiative (Burghes). This is partly due to the state's control of the system and the qualifications (Woodhead), to the competency-based model for assessment (Woodhead and Burghes) and to the inspection regime itself (Woodhead and Burghes).

Although other countries share the problem, of a state-dominated system in that to teach in a school candidates must have state accreditation and schools are not free 'to choose the individual they judge to be the best candidate...' (Woodhead), nonetheless differences do emerge in what is expected by other centralised systems.

Here, not only are the obvious emphases dubious, but also the aim of inculcating the legal framework, the system for assessing the National Curriculum, and the aims and methods of GCSE and A level examinations, are wrong. The government, far from attempting to indoctrinate teachers should seek to adapt itself to what the educated and academically trained person would find acceptable – one who has no exposure to the educationalists' jargon. The fact that teachers have since the 1980s behaved in a docile fashion in face of the attack on their professionalism owes much to the indoctrination in university education departments (Marenbon).

Competency-based assessment has drawbacks

The attempt to define output through a series of competencies, though possibly intended to ensure a sensible focus, has not necessarily succeeded. To Woodhead the list for Scotland illustrates the problem: irrelevant, diffuse, tautological in stating the obvious, or at worst damaging. The example from Scotland suggests it suffers from an attempt to include everything, from what should be a matter of the obvious to teachers ('to motivate...pupils') to the 'distinctly suspect' (Woodhead).

The framework of competency-based criteria of standards is wrong for

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assessment (Burghes). The criteria seem indiscriminate, in that the relatively straightforward and those central to teaching are mixed with the vague (e.g. 'contribute to, and share responsibility in, the corporate life of schools'). Whatever their role in initial training – and they may have some use to the trainer, their use in assessment is problematic, encouraging a 'tick box' mentality as each student has to be monitored, reviewed and signed off for each statement. They also lead to 'false teaching situations' devised in schools, and they can also ignore the type of school in which a trainee is practising (Burghes).

Inspection is part of the problem

The weaknesses and inflexibility of the competency-based model are exacerbated by the inspection régime (Burghes). The competency-based criteria, tend to make innovation difficult to undertake, a result partly of the OFSTED inspection regime and the time spent on PGCE courses (2 out of 3 terms equivalent) (Burghes).

More generally, the weakness identified by Woodhead, tends, he suggest, to be reinforced by the inspection régime (HMI teacher training division). He suggests that many of the inspectors are themselves the product of the teacher training world and reluctant to challenge their own assumptions.

Required standards of subject knowledge are too low

The low standards of subject knowledge required for primary teaching remain a matter of the most serious concern. To begin with, the standards set for entry to teacher training are too low, and certainly lower than in some of the neighbouring comparator countries.

There are grave problems of standards at entry, especially for primary teaching. In many of the other countries surveyed, to enter training candidates must take a more rigorous academic course in the subjects vital to the curriculum, and reach a standard higher than A level in a number of subjects as well as in maths and native language. Here, however, trainee primary teachers need only to have reached GCSE level in maths and English (Burghes) and the two A levels may be of a lower overall standard.¹⁹

For entrants at PGCE level, given too the 'diverse range' of undergraduate degrees before the PGCE for primary training, entry qualifications differ radically. The majority of trainee teachers who enter for PGCE have no maths or English beyond GCSE for five years preceding entry to a one-year course and so have relatively low qualifications (Burghes). This may also apply to other trainees who lack the foundation needed for primary school teaching and is

¹⁹ *Comparing Standards, 16-19*

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problematic where too little subject (or remedial) teaching takes place during the BEd courses.

The low standards in basic subject knowledge at primary school mean that primary teachers often fail to understand what they are teaching – 'as inspection has repeatedly shown, many teachers don't understand what it is they are teaching' and it is impossible to teach something which is not known or understood (Woodhead). This position is in contrast with other models such as the French one, where there is also greater emphasis in the classroom at primary level on basic knowledge and skills, whereas in England the 'social role' of the teacher is emphasised. One substantive difference is that the time devoted to subject knowledge appears greater in European countries than in England, a weakness reinforced by the comparative isolation of teacher training departments.

Because of the existence of teacher training institutions and education departments, weak students, who would not be up to studying a subject in the academic department of the university devoted to it, can come away with a degree that supposedly qualifies them to teach the subject (Marenbon).

Other countries place a greater emphasis on subject knowledge. Not only are the entrance requirements in the continental countries set at as demanding a level as for those who intend to follow a subject degree course at university, but the teaching is often in the university subject department and the examinations the same as those taken for subject specialists. The emphasis on subject knowledge for trainees will be greater than here where the emphasis on other peripheral subjects may be disproportionately greater (Woodhead and Smithers).

Education departments are too isolated

British education departments (where both primary training tends to take place as well as the post-graduate training for those with subject degrees) do not tend to have strong links with the subject departments or wider academic community. This contrasts with the continental examples.

Whereas in many of the European countries the importance attached to the expertise in the subject taught is underlined by the teaching qualification being for a particular subject for a particular age range, in England there is a general qualification which qualifies to teach all subjects to all ages (Smithers). There is 'very little contact with mainstream subject/discipline based departments' (Smithers).

The comparative isolation of education departments and lack of contact with the wider university allows 'dubious enthusiasms to flourish, at the expense of teaching subject knowledge ... The more isolated the department of education,

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the more likely it is that fanciful stances are taken, if only to secure a distinctive identity and role for the 'expert', and, conversely, the less actual subject knowledge the student is likely to be taught (Woodhead).

There are grave problems of recruitment and retention

The obligation for qualified candidates to take the official training qualifications serves as a deterrent to able, qualified candidates. The Government's own recruitment drive, through advertising and other means, may have increased the numbers, but the quality is dubious.

The training qualification is seen as a deterrent to able, qualified and potentially inspiring teachers, who are discouraged from entering teaching by the additional (and unnecessary) requirement, including well-qualified graduates and able older people. Though such people could be energetic and inspiring teachers, they cannot easily go straight from a degree to a job in school which would make teaching more attractive, even if not intended for a lifetime (Marenbon).

Even where there are applications for teaching, they may not be from those who would make good teachers. There remain difficulties in recruiting teachers of an adequate standard to teach secondary subjects such as mathematics, science, modern foreign languages, or design and technology (Burghes).

Retention too is problematic and the system is inefficient and expensive. Already within the first year after training, 30 per cent of those who complete the courses are not teaching (i.e. by the following March). Combined with the other losses (e.g. those who take posts outside the system), the figure is nearer a third (Smithers). Indeed despite the proven popularity and success of the employment-based training routes (see below), the standard model is very much the education/teacher training department route with more than four-fifths of teachers trained this way.

The need for school-based training

The commissioners accept the role of school based training, though they differ on the precise model or structure for the future. To begin with, there must be secure knowledge of, and enthusiasm for, the subject(s) to be taught to a level suitable for the age of the pupils. Once the foundation is in place, training can take place in school.

The craft of the classroom must be mastered in the classroom (Woodhead). But there are certain things which cannot be taught - maturity, probity and wisdom, characteristics which a good teacher will develop (Woodhead). The graduate teacher programme, for graduates who have qualified by taking a three or four

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year undergraduate subject degree, allows trainees to work in schools licensed to employ them and induct them into teaching. Nonetheless the two school centred models (SCITTs, where schools provide the training), and the employment based routes (EBRs, where well qualified trainees are employed by schools and paid a salary while working towards qualified status), remain small.

As matters stand, the main route to teacher training is the postgraduate course, which accounts for over 80 per cent of final year trainees in universities and colleges (2000-01 figures). A minimum of 24 weeks is specified in school out of a 36 weeks training course. This route is not as successful as others for retaining teachers in the first year (Smithers). Also there are some doubts about whether the university education departments should still have the dominant role where funding goes through them (Smithers).

The employment-based routes have a better employment record than the universities with 82 per cent employed teaching in maintained schools in the year following training. The problem remains though of too much regulation from the TTA and DFES which means that too few students are allowed to train on them (Woodhead).

The commissioners agree that the present division is problematic, but differ about the solution. Smithers suggests that given the practical nature of the courses and the inefficiencies of the 'university/school divide', training should be in schools, rather than in universities, which is the direction in which England has been moving. Burghes, by contrast, explains how the school based model tends, however, to leave the education departments dissatisfied or 'sidelined', dividing those who bear responsibility during the practical (school based) training (Burghes).

(iii) Where the Commissioners disagree

Whereas the commissioners agree in their assessment of many of the faults of the present system, there is fundamental disagreement between them in their evaluation of the emphasis which teacher education/training departments bring to the education of teachers.

The emphasis is wrong (Marenbon, Smithers, Woodhead).

The system is inimical to true educational values (Marenbon). The very nature of teacher training produces an emphasis that is not merely wrong, but damaging. It distorts teaching into a means-end activity, whereas good teaching cannot be envisaged in these terms at all. The teacher is a custodian of the knowledge and understanding of each subject and the intellectual values which it brings and the pupil, in turn, is taught these things. The individual

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specialism cannot, therefore, be reduced to a check list of general aims, theories or skills (Marenbon). However, teacher trainers must pretend there is a skill – teaching – which involves certain activities in which they can give a training, and that there are general terms in which the activity of teaching and its results can be presented and assessed (Marenbon).

This issue is perceived as lying at the heart of the teacher training problem. It is seen to have taken the wrong route and has attempted to create an academic discipline by seeking a ‘grand theory’ to underpin professional practice, a particular failing of the system in England (Smithers).

The isolation from subject departments has led to education departments seeking to prove themselves ‘through inappropriate academic models’, a central focus of which has been to provide psychology, sociology, philosophy and other disciplines as a basis for studying ‘education’ (Smithers).

The qualification itself is seen as problematic, both very general in that it is for all subjects for all ages and seeks to provide ‘both generic and subject specific professional training’. This makes for ‘very little contact with mainstream subject/discipline based departments’. As a result of this isolation trainees follow inappropriate academic models. As a result, instead of the fourth area (legislative framework, the curriculum, assessment and so on) being covered practically and sensibly, it becomes a main part of the training through ‘extensive contextual courses in psychology, sociology, philosophy and other disciplines which can be used to study education’ (Smithers).

One result of the emphasis on the ‘social role of the teacher ... at the expense of ... knowledge or subject’, has been that excellent teachers recruited to education departments are no longer valued for their expertise in teaching subjects to children, and so turn to research to prove themselves ‘as neophyte academics’ (Smithers). The attempt to become an academic subject has been reinforced by the funding regime. To be published they must ‘say something different.’ And provided they ‘can come to terms with the accepted obscurantist language of the day, they have a licence to say almost anything, and in some ways, the more outlandish the better.’ They are, in turn judged by others who have climbed the same ladder ‘so the ... practical activity of training teachers finds itself enmeshed in a web of speculative and fanciful ideas’. The whole process is reinforced in turn by the funding system (Smithers).

The emphasis or ‘culture’ of ‘the social role of the teacher’ contrasts with other systems, where a ‘more knowledge focused interest’ has been central to teacher education programmes. The problem identified by Moon as ‘the Deweyian reflective practitioner’ lies behind what appears to some commissioners to be

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the indoctrination of potential teachers by the education departments of the universities. Ultimately such courses may be counter-productive given that time ‘is at a premium’ and the courses reflect contemporary fashions (Woodhead).

The balance is wrong (Burghes).

For Burghes, by contrast, the balance between the university and the school should be formalised. As matters stand, in the UK university staff provide ‘the university based component’ of training and ‘a huge number of partner schools undertake the training’ with little ‘effective...control’ of the quality and often a failure to relate theory to practice. The use of university practice schools would, he suggests, help to redress the balance. Where such a model exists overseas, the schools are popular with parents who know the teachers are experts and that ‘the links with the university also encourage innovation and enterprise’. The use of such schools could lead to ‘a true partnership’ between university teacher trainers and school staff which integrates theory and practice.

What role should university education departments play?

The emphasis and approach to training teachers lies at the heart of the fundamental difference about the role of the university departments. Although all commissioners accept that school based training is here to stay, there is strong disagreement about the role of the university education departments which are thought to have either too little, or too much control (depending on perspective).

Among some commissioners there is the view that teacher training, or education, is not merely superfluous, but harmful and should be eliminated entirely if schools are to flourish (Marenbon). They suggest it is inefficient. For although school-based training has become dominant in England (24 weeks out of a 36 weeks for a postgraduate training course), this division of time is not reflected in the framework for funding or responsibility with the universities still retaining their control because the funding goes through them (Smithers).

By contrast, David Burghes also considers the present model to be going in the wrong direction, but for quite contrary reasons: the relative autonomy of schools for school practice, the use of numerous schools for school practice and the added disadvantage of university education departments being sidelined.

XVIII

Recommendations

1. Standards at entry must be raised

Primary teachers

The academic standards of entrants must be raised for all primary teachers. Candidates for primary teaching should have A levels (or their equivalent) in two or more academic subjects – either those of the primary curriculum (e.g. English, history or geography, a science subject or religious studies) or an ancient or modern language. Ideally, candidates should be expected to reach AS level standard in mathematics and English. Where candidates are well qualified to train, but have not taken maths or English AS level, a qualifying course and examination should be arranged during the first year of training by the university subject departments, which would also teach and examine.

The admission arrangements of individual universities or training institutions will vary, but at the very least they should demonstrate the minimum standards required of two or more A level passes in the academic subjects of the curriculum.

Secondary Teachers

All prospective secondary teachers should have a degree, part of which at least should be in, or close to, the subjects they will teach at secondary school

2. Standards of subject knowledge for teachers should be raised

Primary Teachers

Aspirant primary teachers should be taught the subjects of the primary curriculum to a far higher standard than they are now with greater emphasis on subject teaching. To this end there should be three routes to primary teaching.

- (i) Multiple subject courses run by the subject departments of the universities, which would be responsible for such teaching and awarding the qualifications. Universities should be invited to organise such courses for primary teachers, where candidates are taught 3-4 subjects of the primary curriculum. The subject departments should set and mark the examinations and the levels should be approximately first/second year university standard.

- (ii) A subject degree, part of which should be in or close to the subjects to be taught at primary school. Subject specialists could be particularly helpful for teaching the older pupils and to ensure good subject teaching throughout the whole school.
- (iii) For mature entrants whose educational and professional background already equips them for primary teaching, an accreditation body of head teachers and others could award accredited teacher status having interviewed, tested and considered the educational and professional background of applicants.

This three-track approach to training with an emphasis on subject knowledge could be organised so as to allow teachers to be prepared for teaching either the younger primary age (nursery to age 7/8), the older primary children (ages 8-11), or the whole age range.

Secondary Teachers

As indicated above, secondary teachers should be university graduates in subjects on, or related to, the school's academic curriculum. Usually, at least an upper second class degree or better should be expected.

3. The concurrent route should be replaced by a consecutive route for all training. After mastering the subject, aspiring teachers should choose between two models of professional training, either the employment (school) based model or the university practice schools model.

Once the subjects to be taught have been mastered, the next stage is to learn – and practise – the craft of teaching. Though this will take place over a lifetime, the first stage is the practical induction into teaching. Already practical training is fundamental, but the question now is whether such practical training should be full-time. Where should responsibility lie, and who should receive the budget? Should the present arrangements, where responsibility is divided between schools and university education departments, with funding channelled through the latter, continue in some form or other?

Two options should be open, with reform along the following lines:

First, the present employment (school) based training model should be developed and restrictions ended on subject, age and entry and the number of places available. All graduates, who have qualified by taking a three or four year undergraduate subject degree, should, if they wish to teach, have the opportunity to take their professional training in schools licensed to employ them, which will then induct them into teaching. The training budget would go directly to the school to follow each trainee.

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Second, where a group of practice schools works closely with a number of education departments, responsibility for training and the budget should be shared. The aim would be to give trainees the chance to observe and learn from the experienced teaching of expert teachers and the opportunity for a university tutor to demonstrate particular ways of teaching. University practice schools would allow the education departments and the schools to work together and the teacher training team to be involved in the practical training. The training budget could be divided in proportion to the responsibility between schools and education departments.

4. The qualifications for being a teacher should be based on proficiency in the academic subjects of, or related to, the school curriculum. Academic institutions, not officials, should decide who is qualified to teach.

The Government's attempts to micromanage the training of teachers through a central dirigiste system of directive and target has been an expensive failure: the problem of recruiting and retaining able and educated teachers is a matter of national concern. The existing arrangements are a testimony to the failure – from the attempts to base qualification on a series of outcome-based and competency criteria, to the expensive arrangements for inspection and assessment, regulation and the involvement of other official bodies.

Instead, full responsibility for subject teaching should go to the university subject departments, not just for secondary teachers (as now) but for primary teachers too. Each university should set its own final examination, through which the candidates will, in the first instance qualify. As now, some universities will have higher standards – from entrance to degree. Candidates for teaching would, to begin with, be obliged to be passed by the subject departments as well as having met the minimum standards of entry.

Next, responsibility for the professional induction into teaching, in school, should be in the hands of those responsible. Where training is the responsibility of the school, the preference of most of the commissioners is for the school-based model. Here, head teachers will be best placed to certify that the teacher has successfully completed the induction course. (Where additional training support is needed they will have the resources to pay additional advisers or experienced teaching staff). Where the practice schools model is in operation, the selected groups of schools and education departments would divide funds and responsibility.

In each case the trainee would have the freedom to choose the model.

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5. The present wasteful deployment of funds on a series of official bodies which seek to direct and control each aspect of training should be ended.

With responsibility for subject standards and qualifications vested in the university subject departments and those for professional qualifications in the hands of the people responsible for professional training, the present bureaucratic arrangements could be ended. The funding currently provided for educational quangos such as QCA, OFSTED, TTA and other bodies should be redirected to schools and teachers, to help attract and retain the best professional staff. The budget should go directly to the training institution for school based training – i.e. the entire training budget per capita and the associated costs presently spent on the teacher training agencies, inspectorate division, curriculum and qualification bodies.

This sum should be fairly calculated and follow the trainee, entirely in the case of school based training, or in the case of the practice-school/university education model, pro rata to each institution. The upshot would be that schools could then buy in whatever additional help is needed or for the other model, the university education departments and practice schools would be in an equal partnership. There would need to be parallel cuts in the numbers of officials, either through natural wastage and redeployment in other agencies, or redundancy.

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