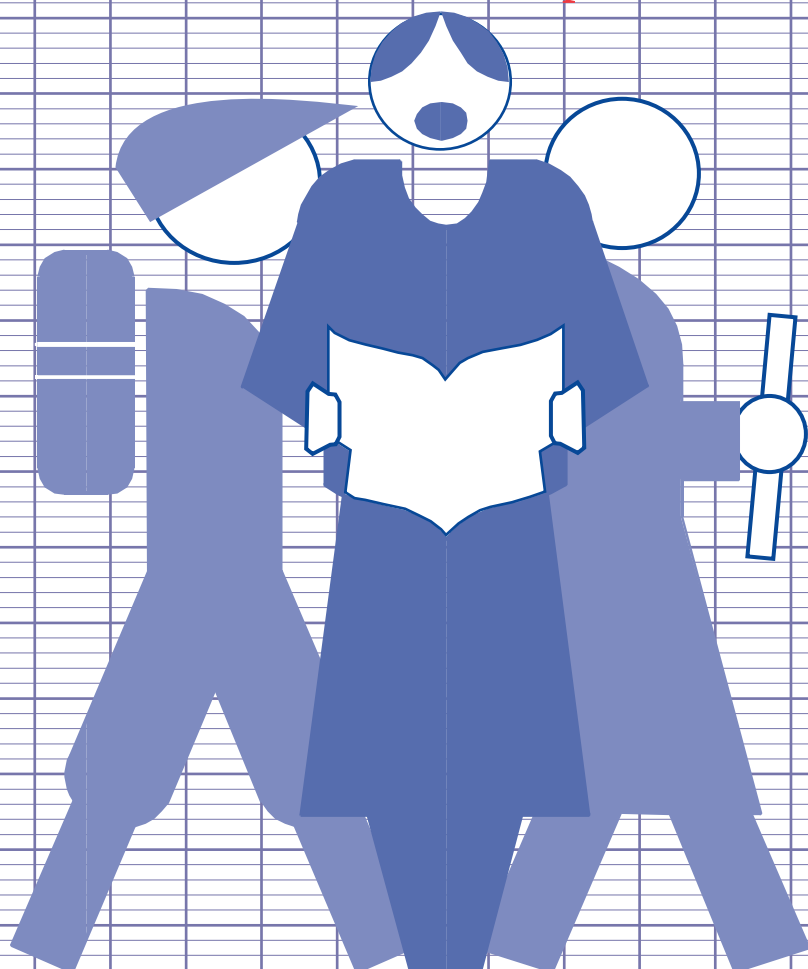


CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND INNOVATION

STAYING AHEAD

In-service Training
and Teacher
Professional Development



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*In-service Training
and Teacher Professional Development*

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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The main objectives of the Centre are as follows:

- analyse and develop research, innovation and key indicators in current and emerging education and learning issues, and their links to other sectors of policy;
- explore forward-looking coherent approaches to education and learning in the context of national and international cultural, social and economic change; and
- facilitate practical co-operation among Member countries and, where relevant, with non-member countries, in order to seek solutions and exchange views of educational problems of common interest.

The Centre functions within the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development in accordance with the decisions of the Council of the Organisation, under the authority of the Secretary-General. It is supervised by a Governing Board composed of one national expert in its field of competence from each of the countries participating in its programme of work.

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Formation continue et perfectionnement professionnel des enseignants

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FOREWORD

In 1993, the OECD's Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) initiated a new kind of study under the heading: "What Works in Innovation". The objective is to publish self-contained, empirically-based studies which offer a focused, policy-oriented assessment of developments in an area of emerging importance where significant innovation is taking place. Already published in this series are: *School: A Matter of Choice* (1994), *Schools under Scrutiny* (1995), *Mapping the Future – Young People and Career Guidance* (1996), and *Parents as Partners in Schooling* (1997). This report is the latest in the series. The intention – as with earlier studies in the series – is not to produce a technical report, nor a comprehensive review of research. It is, rather, to identify key issues in the current state of in-service teacher training and professional development and briefly to examine how they are being addressed in the eight participating countries (which have very different cultures, educational traditions and administrative structures), and to draw out policy implications as to how innovations might be built on, and practice improved.

Schools in all OECD countries are under pressure to improve learning outcomes for an increasingly diverse student population. Parents, politicians and other policy-makers are no longer content with simply broadening access to education – they also want quality programmes and teaching. In-service training and professional development have become an essential integral part of change in education systems, based on the creation of new, dynamic strategies at school level.

In-service training is commonly used in such professions as engineering and medicine – even if the quality is variable. This is not the case in many countries, however, for the teaching profession. As it is not anchored in official policy, it is often fragmentary. Teacher development has to be part of a wider programme of change, that gives clear authority for schools to do things in new ways, and enables teachers to widen their perspective to see beyond the influences that have traditionally shaped their behaviour and performance.

While the eight countries in this study (Germany, Ireland, Japan, Luxembourg, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom and United States) cover a

wide range of traditions and practices, one key finding is broadly common across them: some of the most effective methods of professional development involve on and off-site activity. They combine self-development, on the one hand, and input from sources outside the school. Other lessons that can be drawn include a need for more systematic identification of needs, a better evaluation of programmes and an improved dissemination of these evaluations.

Simply investing more resources into in-service courses will not guarantee improved outcomes for students. Investment must be accompanied by coherent, comprehensive and consistent policies, for if teacher development is to be realized in its fullest sense, it will entail more than just in-service education and training. Teachers need to be convinced of its importance.

Under the overall responsibility of the CERI Secretariat, the report was prepared by consultants Mr. John Walshe, of the *Irish Independent*, with Mr. Donald Hirsch. Mrs. Kathleen Kelley-Lainé of the CERI Secretariat supervised the project, and she and Mr. John Townshend, consultant, also contributed to the drafting. The study was made possible by the financial assistance, through voluntary contributions of the Department of Education (International Section) of Ireland; the *ministère de l'Éducation nationale et de la Formation professionnelle*, Luxembourg; the National Agency for Education, Sweden; the Federal Office for Education and Science, Switzerland; the Department of Education and Employment (International Relations Division), United Kingdom; the Ministry of Education (*Monbusho*), Japan; and the *Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft, Forschung und Technologie*, Germany.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report is about the ways in which teachers in different countries develop their knowledge, understanding, skills and techniques during the course of their careers. It looks in particular at how different types of teacher learning and development can make it possible for schools and education systems to improve and change. Teachers' in-service development is part of a wider enterprise to adapt education to new challenges and new circumstances. Its success therefore depends on an effective partnership in which not only teachers but their schools and their education systems learn together to do things differently.

Teachers are central to the capacity of schools to perform well in this new situation. No amount of policy reform will make education more effective unless teachers are a party to the change. This is clear from the eight countries under review: Germany; Ireland; Japan; Luxembourg; Sweden; Switzerland; the United Kingdom; and the United States of America.

The professional development of teachers has a multitude of objectives and takes many different forms – ranging from personal reflection in the light of classroom experiences to government-ordered courses introducing new curriculum materials. Within this range, some forms of development concentrate on the career progress of an individual within a more or less pre-set framework of professional activities. Others are more directly focused on the development needs of schools or school systems – on educational change. Although this distinction is not always clear-cut, there has been a growing interest in many countries in the latter category, and that too is a major emphasis of this report.

Professional development and educational reform have not always gone hand in hand. In many countries, the agenda for professional development has been set in relative isolation from the policy agenda. Large-scale and centralised curriculum development projects in the 1960s and early 1970s were later seen, by some observers at least, as having been “largely ineffective at improving classroom practice”, for want of follow-through in teacher development (Hopkins, 1986, p. 1). One key missing feature was the sense of “ownership” by the various stakeholders in the process.

Attempts over the past two decades to link teacher development more closely with the implementation of educational policies have coincided with decentralisation of decision making and in particular a focus on school-level change. Research on school effectiveness has shown the importance of strong leadership and coherence of purpose at the school level. Evaluation of educational performance increasingly takes the school as the key unit (OECD, 1995). So the agenda for teachers' development has become closely linked to school development strategies.

A previous OECD study stressed that slower recruitment of teachers in many countries made it imperative to strengthen in-service training activities, quantitatively and qualitatively, in order to sustain the vitality of the profession (OECD, 1982). A subsequent report examined new teacher roles and tasks (OECD, 1990) and this was complimented by a further report which identified the key dimensions of quality in primary and secondary teaching (OECD, 1994).

This report does not attempt to judge whether teacher development is excessively "instrumental" or insufficiently so. But it argues that any policies seeking to use it to support educational change need to create a delicate chemistry that results in the willing collaboration of all members of the learning partnership. Simply ordering a teacher to take a course is unlikely to change classroom practice if its recipient does not believe that this is a useful way of becoming a better teacher. Conversely, parents, employers and educational managers are disinclined to believe that giving teachers time off to study will in itself ensure that classroom practices improve in quality and relevance. An ambitious strategy for teacher development needs to involve teachers as willing and active collaborators in realising society's ambitions for education. System needs and individual needs are not at odds if the ultimate objective is to improve the learning outcomes for students.

Part one is a comparative analysis of some of the salient issues that are emerging from this experience.

- Chapter 1 looks at the context of educational change, and at how pressures from society and policy priorities are affecting the agenda for teacher development;
- Chapter 2 gives an overview of the trends in professional development in the countries concerned;
- Chapter 3 looks at the resource implications; and
- Chapter 4 draws conclusions and proposes some general policy principles.

Part two of this report describes teacher development and its relationship to other educational policies in each of eight countries. It looks in particular at innovation designed to organise teacher learning in ways that enhance the changes being made to education systems.

This short report does not seek to be a comprehensive survey of a vast set of activities that affects every aspect of school education. But by setting the experiences of different countries alongside each other, it aims to provide fresh insights for policy makers. In particular, it illustrates various approaches to the task of developing the skills and approaches of teachers in ways that further policy ends. This task is never an easy one. No country has found a perfect way of giving teachers sufficient control and ownership over their development so as to engage them in the process, while at the same time maintaining a coherent, system-wide policy strategy. But an understanding of what works to a greater or lesser degree elsewhere can help give each country ideas about how best to confront these problems in its own national context.

Part one

THEMATIC REVIEW

POLICY DEMANDS AND THE MODERNISATION OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Every OECD country expects its schools to do more for students now than in the past – ambitious educational outcomes are sought for all students, not just for a narrow elite. Many factors affect student outcomes such as their attitudes and abilities, the articulation of policy, curriculum, assessment, parental involvement, facilities, etc., but teachers are the key connection between society's expectations and what students learn. Teachers' continuing opportunities to develop professionally will influence their own practice and, indirectly, the achievement of their students.

Pre-service training cannot, of itself, be expected to prepare teachers fully to meet these rising expectations, especially against the background of a rapidly changing social, economic and educational environment. It has to be supplemented by ongoing in-service training and professional development if the ideal of lifelong learning is to be realised for members of the teaching profession.

Such ongoing development is taken for granted in other professions such as medicine or engineering, yet many countries do not place a high priority on sustained learning for teachers throughout their careers. One reason, perhaps, is the simplification amounting to a misconception that teaching is mostly common-sense, the fundamentals of which can be learned at the pre-service or induction stage.

There is, of course, no shortage of in-service training in many of the Member countries of the OECD. There is also some evidence of an emerging paradigm shift from individual to whole school development, driven partly by decentralisation and by increased responsibility on schools to decide their own needs. However, much of what passes for professional development is fragmented and fleeting. All too often it is not focused sufficiently and is too "top-down" to give teachers any real sense of ownership. It is rarely seen as a continuing enterprise for teachers and it is only occasionally truly *developmental*.

Yet schools in these same countries have to prepare young people for living in the next millennium, often with technology that is inferior to that found in pupils' own homes and with an ageing teacher work force. Reforms are being

introduced everywhere designed to promote greater student understanding and learning. But opportunities are not always provided for teachers to keep abreast of knowledge about the nature of learning and how to integrate theory with practice.

How can teachers broaden their professional role and responsibilities at a time of great change in schools and society? How can the plethora of reforms being undertaken in many countries succeed if teachers are not adequately prepared for them? How can schools be turned into learning communities if the communities' mentors – the teachers – do not get adequate opportunities for professional development? How can teachers convince students to become lifelong learners if they themselves are not?

Such issues are at the heart of much of the debate about teacher professionalism today. There are others including the needs of the system versus the needs of the individual; the structures for in-service training; whether it should be compulsory or not; how it should be paid for and certified; what role

Teacher development: some definitions

This report uses several terms to refer to the development of teachers beyond their initial training:

- *Professional development* signifies any activity that develops an individual's skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher. These include personal study and reflection as well as formal courses.
- *In-service education and training* refers more specifically to identifiable learning activities in which practising teachers participate.

Teacher development is used here as an all-embracing term, to cover not only activities in which teachers are being "taught", but also those in which they are, with their peers and others, developing new strategies or approaches.

It should be stressed that none of the above terms is used to define a wholly precise set of activities. Teacher development has many overlapping aims and forms, and it is unrealistic to try to categorise them neatly. The terminology used below is chosen according to the point being made in the discussion; the multiple use of terms reflects the complex character of teacher development.

In addition, the term *teacher learning* is sometimes used to describe a general process or objective rather than specific activities. The ideal of lifelong learning is as relevant to teachers as to other members of society. To be seen as an effective role model, the teacher must be committed to lifelong learning. Teachers need to continue learning in order to respond to the changes that are occurring in the world around them. The phrase teacher learning is used particularly in cases where there are new things that all teachers need to learn.

the private sector should play; how should it address equality and human rights issues; what models are most appropriate; what new technologies should be utilised; what evaluations are needed; and how examples of good practice should be disseminated.

These are issues not only for policy makers but for all teachers who are seeking to redefine their professionalism against the background of rising expectations and pressures, including the demand for greater accountability.

THE CONTEXT

There has been no period of time since the Second World War during which schools have been confronted with so many challenges – economic, social, educational and political:

- Economic globalisation makes change seem everywhere more urgent. Increased competition between, and integration, of the world's economies make it harder for a country to maintain those aspects of its traditional education system which appear to put its citizens at a disadvantage internationally.
- Yet while globalisation encourages every country to take seriously certain perceived shortfalls in educational performance, the changes made are not always the same. As discussed below, some countries believe that their education systems have failed to maintain, with sufficient rigour, high standards of student achievement, so that too many young adults lack the basic competencies that one expects to gain from education. But other countries judge that even though their students achieve high standards, they are being taught too rigidly and thus lack the creativity and flexibility needed in today's economies. The result is that different countries are trying to change the culture of teaching in more or less opposite directions.
- Social changes have everywhere made it impossible for schools to address children's intellectual development without also considering their social needs. One reason is because relatively high levels of achievement are being sought from children who come from a wider range of social backgrounds than in the past, when only an "academic" and privileged minority was expected to do well at school. Many countries have found that simply increasing access to people from all social backgrounds, without sufficiently adapting the curriculum or teaching styles, has led to high failure rates *i.e.* too much focus on access and not enough on quality.
- At the same time, the decline of strong stabilising social influences such as the nuclear family and full employment, and the rise of some destabilising ones such as drug abuse and sexual abuse, have had important influences on the background of children at school. Teachers cannot solve these

social problems, and rightly resist becoming social workers. Yet there is growing recognition in policy and in practice that teaching strategies need to be sensitive to the social context rather than ignoring it, and that schools need to work in partnership with parents or guardians and others outside education (OECD, 1997).

- Traditional didactic teaching methods are increasingly seen as insufficient to accomplish the educational tasks that lie ahead. Now the challenges are to involve students actively in the learning process and to allow for individual learning styles.
- These factors in turn influence and re-inforce the determination of politicians and other policy makers to introduce reforms in order to: raise standards; make the schooling process more “relevant” to the diversity of students that schools now cater for; help alleviate educational disadvantage; combat social exclusion; equalise opportunities between males and females; give parents a greater say in the governance of schools; and, decentralise some decision-making.

OTHER FACTORS

In addition to the factors described above, new technology and demography are other reasons for paying attention to teacher development.

Information technology is not merely another subject to be added to the curriculum. Changing the way in which knowledge can be accessed can alter every aspect of teaching and learning. The provision of more computers in schools must be accompanied by adequate in-service training for teachers. Japan is an example of a country that has avoided the trap of simply providing hardware to schools. The proportion of elementary schools equipped with computers jumped from 41 per cent in 1990 to 85 per cent in 1995, by which time 62 per cent of elementary school teachers had received specific training on the educational use of computers: there is considerable support for teachers in the use of such technology from the National Education Centre.

Other countries such as Sweden are equally conscious of the need to prepare young people for the Information Society. An increasing number of countries, including Ireland and the United Kingdom, are planning to provide “cyber-schools” with state-of-the-art equipment. But technology in education has other potential uses such as reducing the relative isolation of small schools in sparsely populated areas. As well as linking pupils in such schools, it can also be a powerful tool in the professional development of teachers.

Younger teachers may be more comfortable with computers than their older colleagues and this is one of a number of reasons why demographic factors are particularly important in any discussion about in-service training. On average in

OECD countries, nearly 60 per cent of teachers are now over 40, with the biggest group (around two-fifths) aged between 40 and 49. The number aged under 30 fell in European Community countries from 18 per cent in 1985 to 11 per cent in 1993 (OECD, 1996, p. 56; and EURYDICE, 1995).

Of course, some teachers in their forties may be late entrants to the profession and it may not be accurate to assume that they have all received their initial training some 20 years ago. The 1997 *Education at a Glance* indicators provided useful data to illuminate this issue. It contained a table giving the percentage of eight-grade students taught by mathematics teachers with different years of teaching experience, based on teachers' self-reports. In eleven out of the 25 education systems surveyed more than 40 per cent of eight-grade students were taught by teachers who had more than 20 years teaching experience. The highest percentage – 62 per cent – was in the Czech Republic, followed by the French Community in Belgium at 54 per cent (see Table 1).

It is arguable that some older teachers need greater support in updating their skills and meeting the new challenges of the changing school situation than others. In the United Kingdom, for instance, many teachers received their initial training before the introduction of the National Curriculum and clearly needed preparation for the change. Other forms of assistance may be required if teachers are to avoid the “burn-out” syndrome. In Germany for instance, courses in combating stress and “burn-out” have become more popular in recent years, while in Ireland, a welfare service was introduced for teachers in 1997 and limited provision made for early retirement for those who find it difficult to maintain the high level of commitment needed for the job.

The feminisation of the profession is an issue that also needs to be addressed. Greater feminisation in many OECD countries has not always been matched by a corresponding increase in the number of females in leadership posts (OECD, 1990, pp. 28-38). In-service training has a role to play in encouraging and facilitating women to apply for promotion posts where they are still under-represented. In Ireland, for example, female teachers outnumber male teachers by four to one at primary level but have slightly fewer than half of the principalships. At secondary level more than half the teachers but less than a third of principals are women. Limited provision has been made in Ireland, and in Germany, for development courses aimed at promoting greater equality in appointments to principalships.

Demographic factors impinge on the schools in other ways. For instance the number of native-origin children is declining due to falling birth-rates in many countries but migration patterns are leading to a growth in the number of newcomers. In Sweden, for example, 12 per cent of the population is immigrant and in some schools in Stockholm half the pupils come from other countries. This phenomenon creates a social and cultural environment in schools that is quite

Table 1. **Percentage of eighth-grade students taught by mathematics teachers according to years of teaching experience (teachers' self-reports)**

	Percentage of students			
	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-20 years	More than 20 years
North America				
Canada	17	15	22	46
United States	25	14	25	36
Pacific Area				
Australia	18	19	35	28
Japan	19	25	36	19
Korea	28	29	23	20
New Zealand	17	28	34	20
European Union				
Austria	7	13	51	28
Belgium				
(Flemish Community)	10	9	32	49
(French Community)	8	8	31	54
Denmark	4	4	47	45
France	11	11	26	52
Germany	10	14	32	44
Greece	16	20	47	17
Ireland	13	18	42	28
Netherlands	13	21	42	24
Portugal	51	16	27	6
Spain	3	8	39	50
Sweden	16	15	26	44
United Kingdom				
England	19	11	39	31
Scotland	17	12	42	29
Other OECD countries				
Czech Republic	12	9	17	62
Hungary	13	10	38	38
Iceland	19	14	33	35
Norway	12	10	35	43
Switzerland	14	6	37	42
Country mean	16	14	34	36

Source: OECD (1997), *Education at a Glance – OECD Indicators*, Paris, p. 218.

different from the one for which teachers were initially trained. Additionally, all pupils are remaining in the system for much longer periods than in the past, posing further challenges for education systems and for teachers.

Against this background, how can the policy objectives of OECD countries be supported by teacher development initiatives? In the measures described in the study, five features in particular stand out (see below).

A focus on student outcomes, not just teacher competence

Professional development has traditionally focused on the characteristics of teachers and teaching. But as the effectiveness of education systems is increasingly called into question, there has been a tendency to become concerned more directly about student learning. This has affected teacher development in different ways.

In countries where there is particular concern about insufficiently high standards, attempts are being made to link in-service education and training to the raising of pupil achievement levels. This has been the over-riding objective of recent teacher development initiatives in the United States and the United Kingdom. In England and Wales, the Teacher Training Agency has made a specific point of developing a framework of teacher professional standards that refer to children's learning as well as to professional skills. The implication is clear: to be considered a good teacher, one's pupils must achieve high standards. Such an approach has led to a re-focusing of some in-service training around the application of teaching methods, especially in basic literacy and numeracy.

Another way in which teacher development has become more closely concerned with student learning is by dealing more directly with pedagogy as well as subject-matter in some countries where secondary education has been didactic in style. In Germany, for example, secondary-school teachers have tended to see their role as imparting expertise, rather than looking at the individual development needs of students. So the central focus of professional development has been to maintain a strong knowledge of one's subject. But as discussed in the chapters on Germany, Switzerland and Luxembourg below, teacher learning in these countries is being reoriented to some extent to address cross-curricular pedagogical issues, and the social needs of students, as well as subject knowledge.

Such an approach is necessary partly because the highly structured streams of academic, technical and vocational education in these countries are starting to become less rigid. More students wish to proceed to advanced levels of general education, previously reserved for the most privileged groups; but these new students need extra support. Teachers are having to learn to help students be effective learners and to reduce the risk that the weaker ones will fail. In the Lorraine primary school in the Swiss Canton of Bern, for example, teachers, parents and the principal have worked together to create a successful multicultural learning community, as the first Swiss Case Study shows (see p. 137).

A closer concern with outcomes for students raises the obvious question of whether teacher development is effective in raising levels of achievement where this is the objective. Research and evaluation to date have provided at best incomplete answers in this regard. The difficulty is twofold: determining to what

extent the quality of teaching is responsible for student achievement, and attributing teaching quality to particular episodes of teacher development. “Value added” measures of student performance – comparing achievement levels of students before and after attending an institution or programme – to some extent address the first point, but are not yet well enough developed to offer strong conclusions. Evidence on the second, the outcomes of teacher development, is discussed below in Chapter 4.

But higher achievement is not the only kind of student outcome being pursued through teacher development – and in some countries it is not the main issue for attention. There is a stark contrast, for example, between the United States and Japan. The United States worries persistently about low educational standards, especially in light of low performance on international tests. It is trying hard to create a national system that reduces diversity in order to produce common national standards – although it has found it more difficult to do so than non-federal countries with similar objectives such as the United Kingdom and New Zealand. Yet Japan, whose students do well on tests, and which has an extremely strong national system for maintaining standards, perceives that a lack of diversity and creativity within its system is the biggest problem. So its reforming efforts seek to create more flexible thinking among pupils and teachers – as described in the following section.

A redefinition of the attributes required both by students and by teachers

Young people leaving school at the end of the twentieth century require a range of skills and competencies, only some of which are imparted by the traditional academic curriculum. In work and in adult life, they need to be able to think flexibly, to relate well to other people, to solve problems and to communicate effectively. As work is based less around repetitive tasks, is less hierarchical and less stable, these kinds of attributes have become at least as important as technical or subject knowledge to those entering the adult world. The United States has, at least in its rhetoric, recognised that a system-wide transformation is needed to re-focus the education system around the production of “thinking skills”.

The growing importance of information technology in everyday life and work serves as a good illustration of the new kinds of skill that are needed. Since such technology progresses so rapidly, the important thing is to acquire the ability and confidence to learn continuously about changing applications, rather than simply mastering the use of today’s software.

It is increasingly being recognised that young people are unlikely to acquire the flexibility that is required if they are educated in an excessively rigid environment. Moreover, in order to create a learning culture in which knowledge and information are accessed and applied in new ways, the culture of some classrooms needs to change. Teachers in Switzerland, for example, are for the first

time participating in courses that encourage them to co-operate in teams rather than just teach individually. Teachers need to learn not only new skills but also new roles. The concept of team-building is also starting to play a prominent part in the teacher development of Germany.

Nowhere has the need for a cultural change in teacher roles been recognised more explicitly than in Japan. Educational reform is based to a large degree around a desire to break down some of the formality of the Japanese high school classroom, and to encourage creativity and initiative among teachers, at the same time as encouraging it among pupils. Such cultural change is not always easy to implement, as it challenges deeply-ingrained conceptions about the nature of education. University-entrance examinations in Japan are a powerful brake on moves towards diversification of high-school education. Innovative schools also have to be accepted by parents in a society that has been described by an American anthropologist as “a meritocracy shaped by an educational competition that enrolls nearly everyone” (Rohlen, 1986, p. 30). But two devices being used in Japan and elsewhere can act as catalysts that encourage teachers to take on new roles. One is increased contact with practices in private industry. The second is a dramatic rise in the presence and use of computers in schools.

Partnerships between businesses and schools have multiplied in recent years (OECD, 1992). They took root first in countries with weaker traditions of job-related learning. From the 1980s, schools in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and Australia became keen to bring some of the culture of the workplace into mainstream schooling. In Germany, with a strong apprenticeship system and Japan, with a strong tradition of work-based learning, schools themselves tended to keep separate. But now Japan is systematically trying to develop closer contact between its two strong learning cultures – that of the school system and that of the enterprise. It is doing so particularly by sending teachers on placements in industry. As in other countries where teachers have had such experience for the first time, the resulting culture shock can be a powerful trigger for change in teacher behaviour. For example, Japanese teachers who have employed an over-formal and under-effective method of teaching foreign languages have acquired completely new attitudes towards communication through the experience of working in international hotels, as the first Japanese Case Study shows (see p. 99).

The second catalyst for change – more computers in schools – cannot, by itself, affect the culture of teaching. Computers should, in certain circumstances, free up teachers' time for one-to-one tuition, much needed for individual learning. A very large investment in classroom technology, supported by reliable structures for developing teachers' use of it, has a good chance of making a difference. It is important, though, that teachers, are comfortable with the introduction of new technology in schools and do not see it as a threat. Top-down

initiatives can have limitations in their ability to alter the way teachers do things: attitudes and dispositions cannot easily be changed by government order.

A concern with student well-being

Schools have a broad mission covering young people's intellectual, social and moral development. There is no general agreement about where their mission starts and stops. However, in the light of the serious social problems today associated with adolescence and youth, society is increasingly looking to schools to provide a strong role in imparting moral values and giving guidance to young people. Moreover, schools are coming to accept that unless they have regard for students' well-being, their educational function will be impaired: children whose lives are in turmoil tend to be poor learners.

Such concerns have particular relevance for secondary school teachers in countries where secondary education has been run along highly "academic" lines – where the teacher's role is as a master of the subject, and less concerned with pastoral care than is the case in primary schools. In Switzerland, there is a particular interest in measures that change the school environment, as illustrated in the first Swiss Case Study (see p. 137). The Japanese authorities have also made a priority of changing the atmosphere in schools, in particular to reduce the level of stress and violence. But the approach here is to tackle the root cause, which is seen as an over-competitive education system, rather than by training teachers to cope with the symptoms.

Teachers need to learn to take on new roles with respect to student well-being that are not only unfamiliar to them, but also not yet fully legitimised in the eyes of society. A good example is the case of education about relationships and sexuality in Ireland, described in the second Irish Case Study (see p. 88). Its introduction is seen as a priority in the process of modernising Ireland's education system. But the need to develop it in a sensitive manner produced a huge in-service training effort: every primary school teacher in the country attended a three-day course. The course explored relationships through the eyes of the teachers as well as from the point of view of children, and thus acknowledged that a change in the teachers' social role is a more subjective process than merely learning some new course material. Another important feature was that teachers were encouraged to work closely with local parents and communities in developing this new venture.

The development within schools of a capacity for leadership and coherent planning

As governments everywhere come to recognise the importance of the school level in developing and implementing an agenda for educational change, schools

and their leaders need to learn to rise to the new challenges being handed them. Most obviously, school principals¹ may have to be trained to become budget-holding managers rather than subordinated administrators or purely educational leaders. But a move towards school-based planning can affect all staff, whose own development activities have to become more integrated with those of the school.

Three kinds of country can be identified in the present study in this respect. In the United States, the United Kingdom and Ireland, schools have always had a degree of autonomy and a sense of identity that marks their individuality. In the light of research on school effectiveness, there have lately been efforts to give them more responsibility, to strengthen whole-school development and to enhance the capacity and role of principals. In Germany, Japan, Luxembourg and Switzerland, on the other hand, schools have generally been more influenced by a centralised education ministry (albeit a canton/state-level one in the case of the first two, federal countries). This has not changed fundamentally, but cautious steps are being taken to encourage more school-level initiative, for example by encouraging Luxembourg secondary schools to adopt school plans. In these countries, teachers and principals are at an early point on a learning curve that should eventually enhance school-level initiative.

In Sweden, however, this learning curve has been extremely steep if not precipitous. It has aimed in the past five years to move abruptly from a highly-centralised administrative system to one in which schools manage their own budgets and set their own priorities (in partnership with municipalities, which have also acquired newly-devolved responsibilities). To other countries considering this route, Sweden is an interesting test case of how feasible it is for schools and their principals to take on new roles so quickly. Inevitably, the degree to which school leaders have grasped the opportunities offered to them has been highly variable according to the personality of the principal, the character of the school, and the policies of the municipal authorities. On the positive side, a substantial effort has been made by central government and by higher education institutions to provide proper training for principals. The biggest problem in the implementation has been the requirement for principals to take on an enhanced role *both* in pedagogical and in managerial matters. In the context of constant struggle to manage tight budgets, the former role is too often neglected.

One probable development in all countries in the years ahead will be a shift of attention from school principals to middle managers, such as vice-principals or

1. The term "principal" is used in this report to describe the person who leads a school, except in specific reference to a country that employs a different term such as "head teacher". Although variations in usage between different countries are partly linguistic, they can also reflect differences in the role of school leaders, who in some countries are also teachers but in others are purely administrators.

heads of departments. Research on effectiveness has tended to stress the importance of the principal, perhaps because the leadership qualities of the person in this role have in practice been so variable. But as training for principals is strengthened, attention may turn to the often much greater managerial shortcomings of heads of department and vice-principals. In large schools in particular, it will be possible to make development planning a reality only if middle managers work effectively with teachers to co-ordinate individual and collective learning within the school. The training of middle managers is already becoming an important issue in England and Wales as discussed in the country chapters below.

The development of a wider partnership

Education is everywhere becoming more of a community-wide partnership rather than an enterprise run purely by professionals. As described in two reports of the OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI), there has recently been a profusion of contacts between schools and local businesses/employers (OECD, 1992) and between schools and the families of their pupils (OECD, 1997). Such links have been important in the development of school systems, because outsiders are becoming more vocal about what they want to see as educational outcomes. Involving them in educational activity gives them a more direct stake in the process.

As illustrated in the Japanese Case Study referred to above, teachers can learn new skills through contacts with employers. In some cases this can be conceived specifically as a learning experience for teachers, as when they spend time in enterprises. In other activities, the focus is on student learning, but there may be spin-off benefits for teacher development – for example when people from private companies come on-site to help run a project or exercise. In these cases, the ideal is a genuine partnership in learning, in which educators and people from outside together develop new approaches. Such a balance can be hard to achieve. CERI's study on school-business partnerships showed that in practice, business participants often enter such partnerships as missionaries, believing that they can teach educators something about the "real world". But as partnerships progress, they increasingly learn to give due weight and value to the prior educational expertise of the professionals (OECD, 1992, p. 50).

In the case of family-school partnerships, there has tended to be a lack of attention to the development of teacher skills. Teachers are often being asked to spend considerable amounts of their professional life in new kinds of contact with parents. But they do not always receive training to take on these new roles. A significant exception is the Irish case, already mentioned, of preparing for relationships and sexuality education, in which it has been recognised that success depends as much on winning the confidence of the community as on delivering a

particular curriculum. As part of their in-service training for the programme, all primary teachers were introduced to models of consultation, with parents about the introduction of the relationships and sexuality programme.

Greater parental involvement is seen as highly desirable by many countries. Most countries participating in the 1997 OECD/CERI study have recently legislated to increase the number of parents on school governing boards – or even to create such bodies from scratch (OECD, 1997, p. 26). The pre-service training provided for many older teachers had not anticipated this changing relationship between school and family, and poses challenges for some of them.

COMMENTARY

Increasingly OECD countries are asking how schools can prepare young people for the kind of society that is likely to emerge in the next millennium when technology will become a more potent force than it is today, when employment patterns will become more variegated, when family and social values will become more unsettled. Given this scale of change it can be expected that the demands on schools and thus on teachers will continue to increase. It can also be expected that the professional development of teachers will achieve a higher priority in official thinking as a means of effecting educational reforms.

Simply investing more financial resources into in-service courses, however, can be ineffective unless they are accompanied by the formulation of coherent, comprehensive and consistent policies. The teachers must be included in the changes – strong professional teaching cultures lead to better learning among pupils. However, they need to understand the purpose of professional development, *e.g.* the “why” as well as the “what” and “how” if such involvement is to be really effective. It is important also that there is a balance between “content-driven” and “process-driven” courses.

While the challenges facing teachers will become greater, so too should the opportunities for professional development as the concept of lifelong learning gains greater currency and as new technologies open up more and more exciting possibilities for learning. Good teachers are good learners and the ultimate test of the success or failure of policies for in-service training and professional development of teachers will be their effects on learning outcomes for students.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN EIGHT COUNTRIES: WHAT IT IS FOR, WHO PROVIDES IT, AND HOW

The manner in which practising teachers learn depends on many factors such as each country's past traditions and existing institutions as well as on the way in which each system is at present being steered. Current teacher development practices are also influenced by the character and status of the teaching profession, by attitudes towards curriculum and pedagogy and by political and administrative relationships in the education system.

Each country chapter in Part two contains a section summarising the system of teacher development and how it is changing. The present chapter looks in a comparative context at salient features of these systems, especially with respect to innovation and change. It does not however attempt to be a comprehensive survey of the systems in question (greater detail about each country can be obtained from background reports prepared by national experts²).

In order to bring clarity to the discussion this chapter looks at five key dimensions of practices and trends in teacher development. First, it considers the issue of who takes the *initiative* and why. Second, it looks at the *aspiration* – what is the ultimate goal of the initiative. Third, it examines the *content* – knowledge, skills, concepts, attitudes, competencies, and so on. Fourth, it looks at *modes of delivery*, and finally it reviews the issue of *accreditation*.

INITIATIVE

Who takes the initiative in professional development – is it the teachers, the school board, the universities, teachers' centres, the Ministry, the private sector or some other agency? Ideally, in-service training and professional development should form a collaborative effort from start to finish, involving all the stakeholders in the process – the reality often falls far short of that.

2. Copies obtainable from OECD/CERI, "What Works in Innovation" Programme, 2, rue André-Pascal, 75775 Paris Cedex 16.

The sheer weight of tradition still dictates much of what happens in in-service training and development. But given the resources involved and the reform agendas in many countries, the right of teachers to largely self-selected training is being challenged. Increasingly, policy reforms are directing the kind of in-service training and professional development pursued by teachers. It is evident that individual teachers are frequently less able to set their own learning agenda, and more frequently obliged to address the needs of the system or the school. This is true particularly of the United Kingdom where much in-service training is dictated by the introduction of the national curriculum and national testing.

In Germany, school-based in-service education (*SchILF*) is increasingly designed so that the pedagogical development of a school is planned and carried out by the teaching staff with the involvement of parents' and students' representatives. In Sweden, cutbacks in public spending and de-centralisation of decision making are having major influences on teacher development locally. In Switzerland, teachers still enjoy a considerable degree of freedom to choose the courses that they wish to follow but a Training Charter prepared by the teacher umbrella organisation LCH accepts that the individual consumers of in-service teacher training have responsibilities towards their peers and that such training should no longer be regarded as simply a private matter.

This is not to say that teachers themselves everywhere are losing control over most decisions about their own professional development – far from it. What is happening is that there is a re-adjustment in the balance between courses dictated by externally imposed policy reforms and those chosen by the individual teacher at school level. Good teachers will always pursue further courses – often at their own expense – if they believe that they are useful to them in their work. Or they may operate in networks to take the initiative as they do in Japan, where as an alternative to government-sponsored in-service education, teachers have developed numerous self-initiated, voluntary associations and circles to promote teaching (Shimahara, 1995).

This adjustment in the balance between programmes dictated by policy changes and those decided at the individual level is most evident in the United States where wide-ranging systemic reform is influencing a greater proportion of in-service training and professional development. The agenda was in part shaped by the 1994 report *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future* which was prepared by the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future. The Commission was made up of a coalition of prominent educators, researchers, teachers, state and district leaders and business leaders from the private sector.

The private sector is influencing teacher development in other ways and greater contacts between the worlds of business and education are yielding interesting results. For instance, in Japan there is a growing number of temporary

workplacements for teachers in hotels and other firms while in Luxembourg both schools and industry are benefiting from comparisons of training approaches.

Even where the teachers play no part in initiating particular programmes they should be involved in the planning process. Distinctions, of course, have to be made between reported wants and real needs. Responsibility for needs' identification rests not only with policy makers but with teachers and other stake-holders within the system. A greater degree of involvement in this identification can lead to a greater sense of ownership. On-going feedback from participants in in-service training and professional development can also give teachers a greater sense of ownership – but sustaining it is dependent on their views being taken into account in the framing of the in-service programme. This involvement can be both in the design and delivery of professional development courses and is particularly important in the context of school-based programmes.

It is worth noting that the “devolution” of decisions to the school level can potentially empower principals and other school leaders, but disempower teachers. Teachers who are used to being allowed to choose their own training from a menu offered by a local or regional provider (see, for example, the second German Case Study, p. 73) may feel more closely “managed” if every course they go on must fit into the school development plan. However, insofar as such plans can be developed collectively, it is possible for there to be a considerable match between the joint agenda of the school and the sum of the needs identified by the teachers within it.

One lesson that is emerging from the countries under review is that the central agenda of change can be implemented more effectively if it can be applied to activities that teachers find useful in terms of their own development and the case studies provide evidence of this. German teachers learning new approaches to early foreign language instruction, Irish ones developing a curriculum about relationships and sexuality and Luxembourgers exploring research findings to improve the teaching of language to young children are all pursuing part of a national agenda, yet also taking a lead in developing their own skills.

ASPIRATION

The development of teachers beyond their initial training can serve a number of different objectives, including:

- to update individuals' knowledge of a subject in light of recent advance;
- to update individuals' skills, attitudes and approaches in light of the development of new teaching techniques and objectives, new circumstances and new educational research;

- to enable individuals to apply centrally-led changes in curricula or other aspects of teaching practice;
- to enable schools to develop and apply new strategies concerning the curriculum and other aspects of teaching practice;
- to exchange information and expertise among teachers and others, *e.g.* academics, industrialists; and
- to help weaker teachers enhance their effectiveness.

The balance between these various objectives depends on a number of factors including the characteristics and position of the teaching profession in each country. In Germany, for example, highly respected secondary school teachers have traditionally adopted a didactic method of teaching, seeing their duty largely in terms of imparting scientific wisdom to their pupils. So professional development there has been seen to a large degree in terms of a teacher taking responsibility for keeping up-to-date on subject knowledge.

But in countries like the United Kingdom and the United States, where the development of the child has figured prominently in teachers' preoccupations relative to the transmission of knowledge, styles of pedagogy have been comparatively more important.

The more that education systems require teachers to learn new subject-matter or skills related to curriculum or other initiatives, and the more involved teachers become in addressing whole school development needs, the less time, provision and encouragement remain for developing their personal learning agenda. This has been the case in England and Wales since the late 1980s where the introduction of a new curriculum dominated in-service training over the following few years and it remains the biggest single influence on course content. In the United States, an even more demanding programme of in-service training and development is needed to implement the idea of systemic reform. In many countries, existing subject-oriented curriculum courses are being supplemented by courses on technology, on dealing with social problems, with violence and with other matters that are becoming more pressing in the education system.

A further way in which individual teachers' interests are giving way to collective objectives is to compensate for a "deficit" model of pre-service training. Rather than asking "how can teachers develop their professional competence further", it is sometimes asked "which teachers lack necessary competence?" In Japan, formal teacher preparation provides only minimal grounding in teaching which makes professional development critical for Japanese teachers to maintain and promote professional standards. Japanese professional development is embedded in a social context in which peer teachers are committed to creating and re-generating craft knowledge of teaching (Shimahara, 1997a).

In the United States the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future found that about a quarter of newly hired teachers lacked qualifications for their jobs. The United Kingdom authorities have increasingly highlighted the inadequacies of a minority of poor teachers, particularly since a new system for inspecting all schools was introduced in 1993. In some cases, weak teaching is attributed to the use of inappropriate methods and in England, for example, national centres have been established to promote sound teaching of literacy and numeracy. Such approaches are generally too recent in the United States and the United Kingdom to have been properly tested, so it is too early to judge the potential effectiveness of efforts to improve weak teachers.

Yet another way in which the individual agenda is being made subservient to the collective one is in the promotion of school-focused development. Teacher development is becoming more of a collective enterprise, oriented around the needs of the school. This trend exists to some extent in all of the countries in this study, although it can take different forms. For example, in the United States, where principals have focused on administration in the past, an important priority is for them to take more of a lead in co-ordinating the school's pedagogical mission and thus achieve more coherence in teacher development. This can be difficult to achieve in a country where, as has been noted, "teachers are largely responsible for their own professional development" (Hawley and Hawley, 1997, p. 238). In England and Wales, on the other hand, the same goal requires administrators who are teachers to put more emphasis on the managerial aspect of their role. But everywhere, there is a growing desire to ensure that as much teacher learning as possible relates to the school's objectives. This does not imply that learning must take place on site, or be organised by the school, although that is also happening to a greater extent, as discussed below.

These trends have been worrying to some teachers and their trade unions who tended to regard in-service training as an opportunity for the individual, linked to career development. Increasingly it is seen more as an obligation than an opportunity, and more closely linked to teachers' ability to perform their existing jobs rather than a means of enhancing their overall prospects.

CONTENT

The rapid advance of knowledge makes it all the more important for teachers to attend refresher courses, especially those teaching scientific or technical subjects. Up-to-date curriculum materials can to some extent prevent the passing on of obsolete knowledge, but insofar as teachers need a good general understanding of their subject, periodic updating is essential. In Japan, teachers attend curriculum study seminars five, ten and 20 years after induction. In the German state of Bavaria, a central academy for in-service training – as described in the

second German Case Study (p. 73) – issues course schedules to schools every six months, and teachers themselves can decide in which ones they wish to participate. In the United States, the weakness of many teachers in subject knowledge has led to initiatives to ensure that they themselves understand what they are meant to be teaching, such as the “teacher as learner” model.

But the very fact that knowledge moves on so fast is transforming the way in which education systems regard knowledge transmission. In the context of lifelong learning it is becoming ever more important for children not merely to acquire information today, but to learn to access it tomorrow. So education is becoming more about teaching the skills of lifelong learning, and less about imparting subject-based knowledge. As a result of this change, there is at least as much need for teachers to develop new skills and techniques as to update their knowledge.

This change is being reflected in the balance of development activity being undertaken by teachers. In Germany, there has been a gradual shift towards learning inter-disciplinary pedagogical topics, initiated in 1970, although traditional subject-focused courses continue to constitute a major element of professional development. A similar trend has been in place in Luxembourg since 1990, oriented around national priorities including for example the development of innovative approaches to independent learning.

As discussed in Chapter 1 above, the considerable agenda for in-service development of teacher skills arises from a redefinition of attributes required both by students and by teachers. In particular, there is a need to adopt teaching styles that encourage young people to think more flexibly. The University of Linköping’s Problem Based Learning Project (see the second Swedish Case Study, p. 125) is an example of how teachers can learn such new styles. The starting point is to get pupils to set more of their learning agenda, formulating what they want to know rather than simply waiting for teachers to decide what they want to tell them. Such “open” approaches to learning have in the past been partly discredited by a lack of rigour in their application, and the appearance that teachers were simply relinquishing their responsibilities. To work well, they need careful planning, and the kind of active preparation of teachers that the Linköping project aims to organise. Other examples of active learning are reviewed in a recent OECD publication that describes situations where students individually or in groups exercise a relatively high degree of initiative and control over their own learning (Stern and Huber, 1997).

Another important phenomenon that prompts a considerable amount of new skill learning among teachers is the problem of school failure. Teachers in Germany have increasing opportunities to learn how to help children in socially difficult situations that put them at risk. In a number of countries, considerable attention is being given to the capabilities of teachers in instilling basic founda-

tion skills like literacy and numeracy, according to methods that have been demonstrated to work. This effort is particularly important in a country like the United Kingdom where the perception that a large minority of children do not adequately master basic skills has prompted a national literacy and numeracy project. But it is also significant in countries that have more general confidence in the performance of their education system, yet where language and literacy have become important issues because of immigration. Luxembourg for example is trying to improve language skills in early childhood, and the first Case Study shows that it has borrowed expertise from the United Kingdom as part of its effort to do so.

MODES OF DELIVERY

There are many ways in which teachers can learn; the continuum ranges from self-study through to collaboration with colleagues to formal courses of study. The form of “provision” and the type of provider both have an important influence not only on the nature of the learning that takes place, but also often on the learning agenda.

Some forms of in-service education and training provision entail a “top-down” approach, in which education authorities provide courses in those areas where they wish teachers’ competencies to develop. Conversely, a “bottom-up” style may start from the needs of a school or a group of teachers, and tailor courses and development activities to fit. A third type of approach, increasingly common in some countries, could be characterised as “bottom-across”: collaboration between networks of teachers, often in different schools, can help to spread good practice across the system.

No single model can meet all training and development needs. Information needs can be met by short courses where ownership is of relatively little importance. But where the aspiration is to bring about attitudinal change a bottom-up model may be more appropriate as it allows for a greater sense of ownership. A mismatch between models of in-service provision and desired outcomes should be avoided. In practice, every country has a combination of many different forms of provider and provision. The following categories can be distinguished.

Provision organised by the education authorities

By taking part directly in the organisation of teacher development, central, regional and local education authorities often hope to translate desired policy objectives into changes in the classroom.

One common form of provision is the “teachers’ centre”, a publicly-provided or supported institution that offers courses directly to individual teachers. In

some educational systems, such centres tend to dominate. National and prefecture-level centres in Japan, regional centres in German *Länder*, the thirty two cantonal institutions in Switzerland and a national centre for primary education in Luxembourg each tend to be the focus of course provision (in Japan, however, there is also a parallel development of teacher networks and other voluntary study circles). In Sweden, regional resource centres are being established where, it is hoped, the various providers will collaborate in the provision of professional development programmes. In Ireland, with the help of European Union funding, education centres have become more numerous. In the United States, where local education authorities have a less well-developed role in organising the curriculum, their provision of in-service training is also less developed, and universities tend to play a bigger role as providers.

The trend in England and Wales in recent years has been away from teachers' centres. Local authorities in England and Wales, who previously structured in-service provision to reflect what they considered important, have had to compete with other providers to sell courses that are selected according to the priorities of schools and the terms of training grants originating from central government. Some local authorities have effectively withdrawn from provision (see the second UK Case Study, p. 154), while some have continued to dominate provision, but only by catering for the "client" rather than setting their own agenda, as the first Case Study shows (see p. 153).

The dissemination of expertise and policy priorities originating from central authorities does not have to be delivered directly by teachers attending institutions provided by that authority. According to the "cascade" method, it is, in principle, possible for one set of trainers to teach a wider set, and so to pass down some key messages until they reach classroom teachers. Japan's situation illustrates some of the conditions under which a cascade method is particularly apt, allowing centrally-devised approaches to be passed down through up to four tiers. Japan's strong national centre can directly reach only a small proportion of this large country's teachers; there is also a strong administrative structure supporting top-down initiatives. In the United States, some forms of cascading are being attempted under very different cultural conditions. One example is the objective of having at least one "accomplished" teacher in each school "certificated" in the practices and competencies that the authorities are trying to disseminate throughout the system. This represents a bold attempt to start improving the system's hitherto weak capacity to implement across-the-board changes in schools. However, there are 106 000 schools in the United States and, to date, fewer than 1 000 teachers have been awarded certification from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards – reform will take a long time to work its way through the system.

But how good are “cascade” forms of teacher development at creating the kinds of change that are being aimed at? Can the spirit of policy objectives be maintained in the process of handing them on through intermediaries? Much depends on what is being handed down. Information, say about specific aspects of curriculum design can be relatively easily transmitted. But where fundamental changes in the teaching culture are required, this technique is less likely to work. When England and Wales used cascade methods to support the original introduction of a national curriculum, it was found that for many teachers, understanding and “ownership” of the new approach became highly diluted (Harland and Kinder, 1992). It was not enough to instruct these teachers in new methods: they would not adopt them unless they became “sold” on the changes.

These difficulties are not an argument against approaches that originate from the centre, but show that in many circumstances they will achieve little unless they are combined with bottom-up initiatives working in similar directions. Moving in that direction is the German Land of Hesse, where central training institutions are being reorganised into six regional pedagogical centres. As well as transmitting central priorities, these centres will help individual schools to develop their own plans.

Third-party external provision

Universities and other higher education institutions have long had an important role in the development and transmission of educational expertise and knowledge. In most countries, they play a key role in organising pre-service training, although in Japan the teacher preparation that universities provide remains minimal in enhancing initial readiness for teaching (Shimahara, 1997a, p. 9).

Universities, in general, provide a variety of courses for teachers in service. One role of such institutions is to allow teachers to stand back from their everyday teaching experiences and to develop a more in-depth understanding of educational subjects. Masters’ degrees have been a particularly popular mechanism for doing so. But as teacher development becomes more directly influenced by the needs of education systems and schools, higher education institutions are having to adapt in order to maintain their influence. In particular, for example:

- Universities offer a number of short courses, tailored to particular needs rather than structured around university degrees. In Sweden, there is intense competition between institutions and even among departments within single institutions to sell short courses to schools. In the same country, however, some institutions are more keen to develop longer programmes, that can look at the multiple development needs of a school together, rather than giving training to individual teachers in isolated

modules. These are more expensive because they involve a greater commitment of university resources.

- Teachers are in some cases learning to apply research skills to good use within their schools, with the help of universities. In Japan, a small but increasing number of teachers are able to spend one to two years in universities to pursue their studies and prepare to carry out action research within their schools. However, growth in Japan is inhibited by cutbacks and by the fact that universities mostly admit full time students. In Ireland large numbers of teachers enrol, at their own expense, for part-time post graduate courses which have grown in range and volume over the past few years.

Universities are not the only third-party institutions that assist with teacher development. In some countries there is an increasing role for consultants. The country studies indicate that consultants still account for a relatively small volume of all teacher development provision, even in countries like England and Wales, where their supply has been increased by the dismembering of the national inspectorate which followed the creation of OFSTED, and where demand has potentially grown by the devolution of decisions over training to schools. Insofar as they influence the system, their effect appears to be somewhat random and fragmented. In the United States, some independent organisations promoting educational change, such as the Coalition for Essential Schools have had considerable influence – although again not systematically across all districts.

A final type of independent provider that should be mentioned is teacher unions or associations. Subject associations (*e.g.* science teachers, geography teachers) are a major source of teacher development in most countries, organising courses and seminars, disseminating information to members and so on, often with little official financial assistance. Such associations would benefit in particular from training and access to the Internet, and for a relatively modest outlay a ministry could facilitate groups of specialist teachers across the country. Teacher unions also play a role, notably in Ireland and Switzerland. As the first Irish Case Study illustrates (see p. 87), such training can be popular among teachers, who are pleased to be taught by their own representatives and colleagues. In the Irish case the courses were designed and provided by the teachers themselves who can draw on their own ongoing practical experiences in the classroom. Rather than be too grounded in day-to-day classroom exigencies, such courses should lift the sights of participants and should be designed in ways to promote the necessary range of outcomes for continuing professional development. In the case of Switzerland, organisation of training by teacher associations has been the traditionally dominant method of provision, with the education authorities themselves only recently taking responsibility for teacher development.

Self-organised school development

In some forms of school-based development, the “provider” is the school and its teachers rather than an external organisation. The setting aside of special days for whole-school development in countries like England and Wales has made such self-organised activity more common. Teachers and school leaders can benefit from meeting together periodically to review their objectives and devise new strategies.

However, conducted in isolation, school-based development is in danger of becoming introspective, and replicating weaknesses that already exist in the school as an organisation. Some of the most effective methods of school development therefore combine on and off-site activity and combine self-development with external assistance.

In Sweden in particular, school development is increasingly regarded as an active partnership between schools and universities. The reference point is a commonly agreed set of principles that state that the individual and collective needs of teachers should be planned in talks between school leaders and teachers, both individually and collectively. This has created a movement towards models of whole-school development that are commonly planned in conjunction with universities. One project, involving more than 40 researchers and 500 teachers in ten municipalities was aimed at facilitating and supporting the development of collective reflection as a way of empowering teachers and school leaders. Such techniques aim to allow teachers to see their problems from a less individualistic perspective, yet also to put their learning to direct practical use.

A notable feature of efforts in both Sweden and the United States to make schools into “learning organisations” is that they increasingly attempt to bring students into the process of changing the learning culture of the school. At the same time as teachers are developing new approaches, students are encouraged to take positive attitudes to learning as part of the same project. Strategies to create teaching techniques in which students become more pro-active and enquiring require simultaneous changes of attitude among teachers and students. In practice, getting students to take a more positive attitude towards learning is a noble and universal ideal that is not always easy to achieve. But the idea of making students part of a joint project for change is a powerful one, which can help motivate students by treating them as partners.

Networking and inter-school collaboration

A final means of providing teacher development is through contacts between teachers, both within and among schools. A large amount of informal networking may occur in schools when teachers exchange ideas, although in some cultures individual teachers have traditionally considered such staff room-based learning

of lesser importance. This is generally more applicable to secondary than to primary teachers.

Networking among schools and teachers is particularly strong in Japan and is developing in the United States, a country where mechanisms for administratively-driven reform are the weakest. Reform movements encompassing large numbers of US schools across districts, states and the nation rely to a large extent on such networks. These movements involve a substantial amount of exchange of information outside any formal administrative structure. As well as such school reform networks, teacher support networks facilitate voluntary exchange of information and expertise. The North Dakota Study Group, the Southern Maine Partnership and many other such groupings are an alternative to centrally-provided training or university-based coursework for many American teachers with the commitment to organise their own development.

It is also becoming common in the United States for teachers to help each other directly to achieve change in the classroom. For example, in District 2 of New York City, teachers visit each other's schools, systematically observe each other's classes and provide feedback. A related trend, seen in many countries in this study, is the use of mentoring, particularly for new teachers. Both networking and mentoring involve making use of the expertise of serving teachers to help develop the skills of others. It is also worth noting that serving teachers can potentially be used as trainers on courses: in Switzerland, such practice is popular as it helps win the confidence of learners, but the degree to which it can be practised is naturally limited by teachers' classroom responsibilities.

ACCREDITATION

The accreditation of courses involves costs for the individual and for the system and has benefits for both. But accreditation also raises fundamental questions about compulsion and/or incentives for teachers to pursue in-service and professional development courses. Some countries such as Spain, Portugal and Luxembourg make career advancement (of primary teachers only) contingent on participation in such programmes.

In the US "certificated" teacher status is being developed in recognition of those with particular strengths who are able to play a special role in their schools. Teachers pay a 2 000 dollar assessment fee but are rewarded through full or partial fee payment, salary bonuses and increases, other financial benefits, expanded roles and other professional incentives. In Switzerland, the idea of new credentials related to senior functions within the school is under active consideration.

In some countries, there is renewed effort to create qualifications that are more oriented around competencies needed by experienced teachers or school

managers. The Teacher Training Agency of England and Wales has developed a framework of professional standards, which could potentially lead to qualifications at every level – already there are courses for potential headteachers (principals) which will form the basis of a mandatory qualification. More controversial would be to oblige classroom teachers to obtain a qualification after, for example, five years in service to certify that they had the required skills of an “expert teacher” but policy has moved on since this was originally proposed some years ago. Such a measure would have related closely to the “deficit” model of teacher development, forcing those who lack necessary skills either to obtain them or to leave teaching.

A move towards more certification of skills for teachers in service could help to bring more coherence to the many forms of education and training on offer. As in other fields, it could also make it easier for teachers to gain wider recognition for development that takes place in the context of their own everyday jobs, and therefore reduce the dichotomy between school-based development and career development.

However, the potential burden of certifying teacher competencies, especially in education systems already creaking under the strain of numerous extra requirements including the assessment of pupils, is likely to be a disincentive. In balancing the advantages and disadvantages, the priority in any new certification systems would need to be to avoid complex and bureaucratic new procedures, and as far as possible to integrate certification into the process of teacher development itself.

COMMENTARY

Overall, this “who decides” “what is it” and “what’s it for” approach can make it easier to take decisions about the most appropriate form of in-service training or development. It places teacher development need not just in the context of school development needs but also takes into account local, regional and national needs. It recognises that teachers have different needs at different points in their involvement in the education system. And it accepts that no one model of in-service development is adequate to meet all training needs.

There is a common view that a high proportion of teacher development in the past had little effect on teaching and learning in practice because it was too far removed from the teacher’s everyday environment. One advantage of on-site courses is that they are more likely to bring together colleagues who can discuss how to improve their own situation rather than learning principles in the abstract. The ideal is to combine such on-site development with a sufficient amount of externalised learning to enable teachers to reinforce practical experiences with

theoretical understanding. Of course, in many cases limitations of resources prevent such a balance from being achieved.

The best environment for learning depends to a large degree on the nature and aims of the programme in question. Courses to update subject knowledge can often be most easily delivered in university institutions. But efforts to change the ways in which teachers think and the style in which they teach need to be based more around the school. Externalised courses may give teachers an understanding of new approaches, but not the authority to practice or disseminate them in their everyday work. This consideration underlines the fact that teacher development is not just about individual teachers *learning how* to do things differently, but also about groups of teachers *agreeing* to do things differently.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

Member countries of the OECD who collectively spend about \$1 trillion a year on education, invest varying amounts of time and money in in-service training and professional development of teachers. It is never easy in any area of the public service to find simple answers to two key questions: are resources adequate and are they being deployed productively? But at a time when public education systems are having to deploy scarce resources to meet ambitious objectives, some judgement needs to be made about whether investment in teacher development is yielding desired benefits.

Not all the time or the money devoted to professional development can be readily measured or aggregated. Nor is all the money spent on training courses, on supplying cover for teachers absent on training, or on other activities relevant to professional development classified under a common heading.

Nevertheless, it is worth looking briefly at the existing evidence on how various countries allocate resources – public and private – to teacher development. This gives some approximate idea of the scale of resources involved. Different patterns of resource spending, moreover, have important implications for the character of teacher development in each country.

PUBLIC INVESTMENT

The most comprehensive survey of the share of government budgets allocated to in-service training was published by the EURYDICE European Unit in 1995, covering EU and EFTA/EEA countries (EURYDICE, 1995, p. 19). Only three countries reported spending more than one per cent of their government's education budget on in-service training – Norway, Portugal, and Sweden (see Table 2).

The Norwegian figure at around 2 per cent may be the highest of those surveyed but throughout the world, few countries match the provision in Israel where teachers are entitled to a sabbatical every seven years during which time they receive two thirds of their salary with the option of teaching part time to make up the remainder.

Table 2. **Approximate share of budgets allocated to in-service training**

	Education budget as per cent of GDP	Per cent of the education budget spent on in-service training
Austria	5.4 (1991)**	± 0.5 per cent
Belgium (Fr)	5.4 (1991)**	At least 0.12 per cent
Belgium (Fl)	5.2 (1989)*	About 0.12 per cent
Denmark	7.4 (1989)*	Funds are distributed through educational networks – <i>Folkeskole</i> : school authorities must provide for in-service training in their budget – <i>Gymnasium</i> : <i>idem</i> ± 0.6 per cent
France	5.5 (1990)*	
Finland	5.49 (1993)**	0.12 per cent
Germany ¹	4.2 (1991)**	0.14 per cent in 1991
Greece	2.8 (1988)*	
Iceland	5.4 (1992)**	0.85 per cent (1992)
Ireland	6.6 (1988)*	
Italy	5.7 (1991)**	0.16 per cent (1994)
Luxembourg	4.4 (1989)*	0.5 per cent (1993)
Netherlands	6.5 (1993)**	± 1 per cent of funds for primary and secondary level staff are available for in-service training
Norway	6.4 (1992)**	± 2 per cent
Portugal	5.73 (1993)**	1.34 per cent (1993)
Spain	4.77 (1993)**	0.94 per cent
Sweden	7.8 (1990)	± 1.5 per cent
United Kingdom ²	4.7 (1988)*	Not relevant due to decentralisation to local authorities
United Kingdom (Scotland)	6.9 (1993)**	Not relevant due to decentralisation to local authorities

1. Old *Länder* only.

2. United Kingdom: England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Source: * UNESCO Statistical Year Book 1992.

** EURYDICE national units.

A low figure, however, does not indicate necessarily a low level of activity. In Germany, for instance, the identifiable amount devoted to teacher development now amounts to only about 0.2 per cent of the education budget in the case of Bavaria, with similar estimates for other states (see country chapter, Part two, p. 63). One important reason for the low figure in Germany is that very little use is made of substitute teachers, for colleagues tend to cover for the absent teacher, or children are sent home. This contrasts with practice in some other countries of replacing absent teachers with substitutes. In the German situation, the cost is to some extent borne by students and their families, in terms of reduced learning time and extra responsibility.

Governments are using public funds for in-service provision in different ways. In England and Wales and in Ireland, central government uses the distribution of

training money to schools not only to list its priorities but also to give a weighting to each, in terms of the money attached to each purpose.

But there is an important difference between the handing of money to schools with these labels attached and the direct provision of central courses by education authorities. In the former case, *schools* and their managers tend to exercise considerable control over the organisation of training, in some cases under rather broad central headings (50 per cent of central-government training money in England and Wales is broadly labelled “school improvement”). In the latter case, where central institutions directly supply courses free of charge to teachers who wish to take them up, *individual teachers* tend to retain more freedom. So there has in many countries effectively been an alliance between governments and school managers to develop a new axis of control over teacher development. This weakens the power of the individual teacher and of the professional trainers who tend to dominate central institutions, in favour of policy makers and those working at the school level to support policy objectives.

PRIVATE INVESTMENT

Private investment is also helping to shape elements of teachers’ professional development, whether it is in the form of teachers paying fees to attend courses, owners of schools initiating programmes, foundations investing in development activities or commercial companies putting resources directly into schools. This investment is even harder to measure than that of government and is more varied from country to country. It is made in many ways that are beneficial to the schools but in some that raise ethical issues for teachers.

In every country individual teachers invest time and money voluntarily in professional development. This can be done through individual study at university for post-graduate work for which the teachers pay tuition fees or done through networks. For instance in Japan networks of teachers regularly hold conferences and workshops and publish magazines sold at commercial bookshops to disseminate information about their activities. These networks are increasingly using new technologies, especially the Internet.

A certain proportion of schools in many countries is still privately run – even if the state pays most of the bills – and the school owners frequently provide their own in-service training. This is true of Germany and of Ireland where, for instance, the Christian Brothers, the country’s largest teaching order, has been involved for several years in running in-service courses related to the teaching of technology in schools.

In the United States the private sector has taken a direct interest in what happens in schools for a long time. Its involvement with others in a coalition of concerned groups and individuals resulted in the establishment of the National

Commission on Teaching and America's Future in 1994. From this Commission and other organisations such as the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, far-reaching reform proposals have grown that are directly impacting on teachers' professional development.

In Japan, closer links with the private sector are leading to placements for teachers, especially in hotels, where they learn about the importance of customer care (see Part two, p. 99). Such placements are developmental and can be illuminating for both schools and for industry.

Hong Kong, China, which is not included in this study, has a very successful computer network of teachers of English called *Telenex*. The network has a database component and a communications component and provides valuable support to teachers in their development as autonomous professionals. It was established at the initiative of Professor Amy B.M. Tsui from the University of Hong Kong, China, who shared the concerns of private sector employers about the state of English language teaching in local schools. She convinced them to part fund the project, thus providing a good example of how the private sector can assist teacher development.

However, the growing partnership between schools and the private sector can raise ethical issues for teachers when companies are targeting schools for strictly commercial purposes. Schools in many countries are inundated with material which may have educational benefit and help teachers' development but where the underlying message is an advertising one. Equipment and materials suppliers play a role in the training of teachers especially in the computing area where some companies provide extensive ongoing support for teacher development (although, admittedly, concentrating on using their equipment). This is true also of companies marketing products of an environmental nature. There is a strong case for working out models of good practice between the education service and representatives of the computing and other industries.

TIME

Time is also an investment, whether it is time paid for by governments, teachers or the private sector. The true cost of the investment must necessarily take into account who is paying for the time, in cash (e.g. through hiring substitute teachers) or in kind (e.g. by teachers who study outside their normal working hours or by the private sector mentoring a teacher on workplacement).

Certainly one of the biggest variations in the countries under review is the timing of teacher development activities. In Japan, teachers are trained on Thursday afternoons, in Ireland the majority of primary teachers receive some training during the summer holidays, in England and Wales on special school closure days, and so on.

These approaches to timing are not just a matter of opportunistically finding the right number of hours to conduct a particular activity. The structure of the timing can obviously affect the activity itself but the key issue is the objective of the initiative. Some of the most fundamental changes derive from when teachers are well removed from day-to-day teaching as the examples given in this report about teachers working in industry or attending post-graduate courses show. But this off-the-job activity is time consuming. On the other hand, it can be difficult during a few hours after school to achieve the level of engagement in learning and detachment from everyday pressures that may be needed. Closing down schools for full days (as in Sweden and in England and Wales) has considerable advantages in terms of providing time for teachers together to think about their development strategies. But in practice, statutory "INSET days" have too often been seen as time to fill rather than planned in response to a particular need. In Sweden, where these in-service days have existed since the 1950s, their use became highly institutionalised until recent decentralisation caused school principals to think more carefully about how to deploy scarce time and money for training.

In a survey of the use of training days in England and Wales,³ it was found that there was insufficient coherence between how different days were used throughout the year. One possibility would be to group them together into a single week a year with a strong theme, rather than spreading them out. This is beginning to occur in Sweden, where efforts are being made to create more in-depth approaches to whole-school development. In England and Wales, it is rare for school closure days to be grouped. The most frequently cited reason given by heads and teachers for not doing so is that parents would not like it: effectively they would have to provide childcare for a full week-long block rather than for an occasional day.

But English and Welsh schools also tend to take the view that coherence is still possible when teacher development is spread over the course of a year, as long as it is well managed and planned. This style reinforces the importance of strong school-based management. In Switzerland, an emerging view is that short courses can be useful only if well-sequenced in alternation with classroom experiences in which the principles learned are applied. So the organisation and management of such sequences can be as important as the content of the courses themselves.

3. Survey of Continuing Professional Development (1995), Research Study Conducted for Teacher Training Agency, MORI, London, June.

The following examples illustrate further patterns of time allocation:

- Swiss teachers spend an average 100 hours per year on in-service training. About half this time is spent in special in-service training institutions where the quality of courses varies considerably and where some are largely recreational. In addition, there are training sessions conducted internally at the school where there has been a noticeable shift from individualised training to collective (faculty) training. The volume of individually organised training fluctuates widely. Several cantons (*e.g.* Bern, Basel-land, St. Gallen) have regulations requiring teachers to document the completion of a specified amount of training (*e.g.* 5 per cent of yearly working hours). Most cantons offer one-off paid sabbaticals for long-serving teachers for 3-6 months. This relatively high amount of learning time contributes to the need for a large number of substitute teachers, who presently make up about 20-30 per cent of the active teaching force.
- In Sweden, “study” days have long enabled teachers to undergo five days’ training per year during term. But a recent extension to 104 hours per year for “competence development” and school development involves teachers working the extra hours during the school holidays.
- Irish teachers by contrast have traditionally been willing to learn during school holidays – an estimated 60 per cent of primary teachers voluntarily attend summer courses each year but they can take three extra vacation days during term in return. Increasingly, however, they are obliged also to participate in curriculum related courses during term-time, with little substitute cover provided.
- Japanese teachers are able to participate in in-service education and training every Thursday afternoon, when schools are closed. They also spend substantial amounts of time during their induction year in out-of-school (30 days) and in-school (60 days) training. A small percentage is released for 1-2 years to study for masters’ degrees at universities.

An important corollary of whether learning takes place in teachers’ own time is that voluntary or spare-time activities tend to be more oriented to teachers’ individual needs and choices. In Luxembourg, Switzerland and Germany, most development is voluntary, and involves teachers choosing the courses that interest them. Ireland’s move away from almost total reliance on a mainly voluntary system based in the holidays was closely linked to an attempt to focus learning more on system objectives. In short, the allocation of time tends to influence perceptions of control and ownership, and so helps determine who sets the agenda.

COMMENTARY

The investment, as we have seen, in in-service training and professional development is quite extensive, whether it is investment by the individual, by the school, by the Education Ministry or by the private sector. That investment is likely to increase in many countries as the demands on schools increase and new courses are introduced.

Few countries devote the time or the resources to a systematic examination of teacher learning, despite this considerable investment made in in-service and professional development programmes. Yet it is important that the cost, organisation and benefits of a crucial element of educational development are transparent to all the stake-holders in education and to the taxpayers. The Netherlands is an exception and provides a useful model: it is involved in a process of evaluation of the existing system, which will be completed in the year 2000 and which will deal with the financing, administrative structures and improvement of the quality and operation of in-service training systems (EURYDICE, 1995, p. 30).

A key question is the effectiveness of different professional development programmes – their quality, relevance and impact need to be addressed. However, in many countries it seems that the outcomes are not evaluated in a rigorous manner. What evaluation is carried out is often limited and poorly disseminated so that models of best practice are not readily available to policy makers or to practitioners.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

In today's world of learning, the stakes are higher than ever before. Young people who succeed in acquiring lifetime learning skills will be the economic and social winners in a newly information-rich society. Those who fail will be excluded from many of its benefits. So the performance of schools and teachers is being watched closely – it has become everybody's business. And the learning undertaken by teachers themselves has become a critical part of the situation, also with high stakes. If teachers succeed in adapting to new challenges, by collectively developing new objectives and competencies that match the challenge of change, they will be held in high esteem. If they are perceived to be failing, the criticism and demoralisation of teachers that has been growing in some countries could become an irreversible spiral.

As governments look for a closer relationship between investment in teachers and outcomes for students, the pressure for evaluation is growing. In countries such as the United States and England and Wales, future support for teacher development is likely to be made increasingly conditional on demonstrable outcomes. The case studies show how different forms of professional development can achieve desired results in different circumstances. For instance cascade teaching in Bavaria has been used successfully in the introduction of radical changes to the curriculum in non-selective high schools while school-university collaboration in Sweden is being used increasingly in whole school development programmes.

But lack of clarity and inadequate planning place limits to how far policy initiatives can use teacher education and training as a tool to change practice in schools. In England and Wales, early training in the curriculum was weakened where teachers did not accept that the techniques they were being taught were the right ones. Research by Cohen and Hill in the United States indicates that professional development that is fragmented, not focused on curriculum for students, and that does not afford teachers consequential opportunities to learn, cannot be expected to be a constructive agent of state or local policy (Cohen and Hill, forthcoming).

In this context, teacher development has become much more than a personal matter for each individual teacher. It has become an integral part of change

throughout education systems, based around the creation of new, dynamic strategies at the school level. It is striking that in all of the eight highly diverse countries in this study, these common threads are present.

Success will depend on a variety of factors, many of them highly specific to individual countries. But three critical factors are common to all countries. First, the degree to which the learning partnership referred to in the executive summary succeeds in forging a commonly supported mission among a multitude of interests. Second, the leadership displayed by the school principal and third, the degree to which teachers and education systems are able, when it is desirable, to escape the negative bonds of their cultural past.

MAKING THE PARTNERSHIP WORK: OWNERSHIP, CONTROL AND COHERENCE

The evidence presented in this study shows that teachers' practices, attitudes and competencies cannot be changed either by legislative order or by standardised courses designed from above. Even though in some countries education ministries have the authority and the influence to oblige teachers to take a lead from central directives, such models of teacher development cannot in themselves create the initiative at the school level that is increasingly being sought. On the other hand, simply handing development resources to schools will not in itself create the coherence of purpose that is needed across education systems. So a balance needs to be sought, in which teachers feel some "ownership" in their development, yet are still part of a co-ordinated strategy for change.

A consensus is emerging among researchers on the characteristics of effective professional development which should be:

- experiential, engaging teachers in concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection that illuminate the process of learning and development;
- grounded in inquiry, reflection, and experimentation that are participant-driven (that is, learners take responsibility for posing questions and exploring answers);
- collaborative and interactional, involving a sharing of knowledge among educators and a focus on teachers' communities of practice rather than individual teachers;
- connected to and derived from teachers' work with their students;
- sustained, ongoing and intensive, supported by modelling, coaching and collective problem solving around specific problems of practice; and
- connected to other aspects of school change (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1996, p. 202).

Two other characteristics of effective professional development that are seen as important by researchers are that it is based on evidence and research of what is effective in teaching and learning and that it is specific rather than generic. To this list could be added the embodiment of principles of adult learning which is different from that of student learning. Some of the insights gained from the newly developing study of adult learning – andrology – could be usefully incorporated into in-service training courses for teachers.

What is beginning to emerge in many countries is a change in focus in the nature of staff development. The use of newer processes does not necessarily exclude the application of more traditional approaches – in essence the shift describes a change in practice in which certain processes are used more and others less (Sparks and Hirsh, 1997, p. 12). Schools that improve their professional development manage to balance whole school activities with the specific needs of particular individuals or groups of teachers. There is a continuum of professional development activities from which to choose those most suited to the tasks in hand. What is most critical is the match between learning processes and the goals of the staff development effort.

In many of the examples observed in this study, the enthusiasm of teachers has been generated by ensuring that they are involved. Good teaching is not just a matter of being efficient, developing competence, mastering technique and possessing the right kind of knowledge. It also involves emotional work – it is infused with pleasure, passion, creativity, challenge and joy (Hargreaves, 1997, p. 108). An important element in maintaining enthusiasm is the construction of a long-term project for development rather than a series of highly-specific courses to which teachers are assigned by their managers. School-based development in Sweden carried out in conjunction with universities aims to take such a long-term perspective, and to make in- and out-of-school experiences complementary. In Japan, elementary schools are very active in promoting in-house in-service education based on peer collaboration, planning and management. In the United States, the individualist model of professional development has been dominant but the networking among teachers that is part of the reform movement similarly builds on the voluntary enthusiasm of teachers.

It would however be misleading to pretend that happy and willing teachers inspired by a new world of learning opportunities are the norm. Too often, teachers feel unduly criticised, increasingly pushed around by their managers and half-hearted about the brave new world that is being proclaimed around them. Working to make teachers feel involved in rather than excluded from the choices facing their schools should be a priority in every country.

PROVIDING LEADERSHIP

In achieving this goal, the role of managers will be crucial. A first wave of management reform in schools has emphasised strong leadership. Principals have for the first time had to learn to act like managing directors, in setting and implementing goals for the organisation, along with their management teams. In the process, teachers have sometimes felt excluded from decision-making and over-managed. Devolving responsibilities to the school site does not automatically result in better professional development – what are required are pedagogic and administrative leadership qualities in the principal.

In order to develop a professional community the principal has to be able to make the connections between the external context (the changing demands of the labour market, the fast moving global market), the new modes of professionalism required to meet the challenges of teaching and learning for the 21st century, and the community quest for learning which finds expression in the internal world of the school. The effective principal must be firmly rooted in the school but must also bring to the school a clear understanding of that external context and the emerging professional challenges (Riley, 1997).

So a second wave of management reform will need to emphasise the development of a participatory learning organisation, in which everybody plays a willing part in the mission. The writing of development plans for individual teachers will become less important than the spirit in which teachers engage in such plans, and the coordination of various learning activities. Middle managers will have a crucial role to play.

ESCAPING NEGATIVE CULTURAL BONDS

A second critical factor will be the degree to which teachers can devise new ways of doing things, escaping where necessary the strongly-held traditions and inclinations that influence them. The clearest example are teachers who see their role simply as imparters of knowledge with little or no “pastoral” role *vis-à-vis* the pupil. The country chapters (Part two) provide examples of how teachers are being urged to adapt to changing circumstances. Japanese teachers are being told to become more creative; Swedish teachers in urban areas have to cater for a much more heterogeneous student intake than previously; Americans, to become more intellectually rigorous; Germans, to become more concerned with the human side of their pupils’ development rather than just their acquisition of academic knowledge. None of them find it easy.

The culture of schools also has to be taken into account in any discussion about teachers’ professional development. In many schools the dominant culture is one of individualism which can lead to isolation while in others, there is what has been called a *Balkanised* teacher culture – one made up of separate and

sometimes competing groups, jockeying for position and supremacy like loosely connected, independent city states (Hargreaves, 1992, p. 223). The ideal is a culture of collaboration which requires broad agreement on educational values but which also tolerates differences within limits. This collaboration should not, of course, be confined to the school level but should include all the stake-holders in the education process. Collaboration with universities and other higher education institutions allows teachers to become “reflective practitioners” as shown in the Swedish case studies. School-based teacher research and research in a higher education institution should be regarded as complementary not competitive; only then will partnership and equity develop (Nicholls, 1997, p. 114).

One potential error that can be made in trying to change teachers’ cultural approaches is to adopt an excessively “how to” method of development. Instructional courses can only be part of the picture. A British teacher who adopts a particular approach to teaching reading will not necessarily change as the result of a short course consisting of a lesson-plan guide to an alternative method that he or she does not believe in. Nor can Japanese teachers expect to learn creativity through cascade training. Rather, cultures can be changed by exposing teachers to new experiences and by involving them in constructing a common new project for their schools. The role of outsiders is becoming central to this process. Teachers who spend time in industry or other external settings gain new perspectives. The most obvious example is international contact through exchange programmes. University staff who come into a school can also bring a fresh approach to problems, as can private consultants. In other words, the culture of an education system or a school cannot be changed if it feeds off itself, whereas, can benefit from exposure to outside forces.

TEN POLICY PRINCIPLES

It is beyond the scope of this report to give detailed policy recommendations, applicable to a wide variety of countries tackling a vast array of educational issues. However, the following principles based on the report’s findings, are worthy of consideration by all countries.

- Needs-identification studies should be carried out on a more systematic basis in order to bring greater clarity to the discussions and decisions about what is expected from particular in-service training and professional development initiatives.
- Teacher development programmes should balance the need to achieve system-wide policy objectives with the need for teachers to maintain a sense of ownership over their learning.
- School-focused development should not be insular or introspective. Contacts with higher education, with teachers in other schools, and with

organisations/groups for example, should create opportunities for broad reflection on one's teaching objectives, strategies and development.

- With the support of outsiders, some of them not from the education service, teachers should strive to develop new ways of thinking and behaving that address new challenges in fresh ways.
- Teacher development should be balanced between out-of-school learning, classroom practice and collegiate discussion on site. All three elements need to be co-ordinated.
- In partnership with their immediate manager, every teacher should take responsibility for ensuring that different aspects of their development are part of a coherent whole.
- Teachers, schools and educational authorities should each make a contribution, in terms of time or money, to the development process, in order to create a common investment.
- Central authorities should take some responsibility for maintaining, regulating or certifying an adequate supply of external courses of recognised quality.
- Teacher development should be oriented to fostering a culture of lifelong learning, rather than focusing solely on subject knowledge or particular aspects of pedagogic techniques.
- There should be more systematic evaluation, not relying solely on questionnaires filled in by teachers but through use of other techniques such as observation, video-recording, qualitative surveys, and follow-up studies of programmes in the classroom with the focus on student outcomes.

Evaluation is difficult but that should not prevent attempts to determine how successful, or otherwise, particular courses or initiatives are. The results can provide a feed-back loop into the design of further programmes and the re-design of existing ones. They can be used also to justify the use of taxpayers' money in an area that is becoming more important. Not only is evaluation weak in many countries but the dissemination of examples of best practice is patchy at best. Better dissemination could inform practice in other schools in the same country and in other countries.

Improved planning, more involvement of teachers, better evaluation and dissemination will all strengthen the concept of professional development which must be seen to begin with pre-service training and continue through a teacher's career. Professional development is not simply an "add-on" or a "quick-fix" to be applied when a particular problem arises.

COMMENTARY

Two critical factors help determine whether teacher learning is supported by the cultural change needed to achieve desired results in school practice. These are *authority* and *perspective*.

First, is learning combined with the commitment and authorisation to change practice in schools and classrooms? Centrally-led initiatives to change schools by teaching new skills and habits may not be followed through into practice because they are not sufficiently grounded in the curriculum, do not give enough opportunities for teachers to learn or because the school culture is not open enough to change.

The lesson that many countries are learning is that teacher development and school development must go hand in hand. Some Swedish teachers have in this sense undergone a dramatic transformation in the way that they learn. Rather than thinking in terms of the individual courses, they are developing projects for school change in which the learning of skills and the development of a new strategy for school practice occur as part of the same exercise.

But secondly, even in countries where top-down development comes with the assumption of authority for change, teachers may be stuck in an old mould unless they widen their perspective. In Luxembourg, Germany, Switzerland and Japan, teachers have traditionally operated in a narrowly-defined professional framework that is relatively impervious to influences from outside the national or regional education system. In such circumstances, simple exposure to other norms and influences can have striking results. Japanese teachers who spend time with private sector employers have returned to their schools with greatly changed perspectives as the second Japanese Case Study shows. Teachers in Luxembourg, who have in the past been the model of self-sufficiency, have started to think differently as a result of talking to teachers from other countries, and to each other. In Germany, curriculum change has been driven partly by a greater contact with parents and with others outside the education system.

A general conclusion about the impact of teacher development is that it is very clearly a necessary condition for educational change, it is not, by itself, sufficient. When launching a policy initiative, more is needed than just announcing courses in which teachers will receive instruction. Teacher development has to be part of a wider programme of change, that gives clear authority for schools to do things in new ways, and enables teachers to widen their perspective to see beyond the influences that have traditionally shaped their behaviour.

Part two

COUNTRY CHAPTERS

GERMANY: DEVELOPING NEW METHODOLOGIES WITHOUT ABANDONING TRADITIONAL FORMS

OVERVIEW

During the last twenty years in-service provision in Germany has expanded rapidly and has become increasingly diverse. Provision is mainly by the states (*Länder*), all of which have set up central institutions to plan and organise courses. In recent years, there has been a growing emphasis on school-based professional development and the *Länder* are re-organising their organisational and institutional structures to encourage a more bottom-up approach.

While attendance at in-service courses is basically voluntary, teachers are participating in ever greater numbers. There are several reasons for this: dynamic advances in scientific knowledge are outpacing teachers' own knowledge and techniques; the open society and the growing influence of new media are making children and adolescents more aware and less passive in their responses to teaching; schools and teachers are under increasing pressure from employers and society to re-evaluate their aims and pedagogical tasks.

There are political, cultural and socio-economic differences between the *Länder* which affect their educational policies and organisation, including in-service provision. However, there is remarkable similarity in the institutional structure and much common ground in policies and practice. The German Education Council's (*Bildungsrat*) 1970 Structure Plan for the German Educational System (*Strukturplan*) provided a framework and a set of aims which still largely determines the direction of change. In essence, the Plan set in motion a process of review of the balance between academic and practical education. It initiated a move away from academic, subject-focused, traditional in-service training – although this continues to constitute a major element of professional development – towards inter-disciplinary pedagogical topics. New developments such as the use of information technology, early introduction of foreign languages, and innovative forms of co-operation with employers have resulted in corresponding initiatives in teacher development.

The standard organisation of in-service provision in most *Länder* is the “cascade model” whereby trainers are themselves trained in central institutions to introduce new curricula or new pedagogical approaches and to then train teachers in their regions. This has been effective in driving through changes, for example in the development of new ways of teaching less motivated pupils. Increasingly, this approach is being complemented by more school-based initiatives, which are designed to bring teachers, parents and pupils together in planning for the individual school’s development. The role of the principal becomes crucial when schools become the focal point of professional development and the training of principals has become a major priority for central in-service institutions in the *Länder*.

In-service education in Germany is a complex and reasonably flexible system of differentiated but closely co-ordinated structures which has considerable advantages over both centralised, unitary systems such as France or Japan, and highly decentralised systems such as those of the United Kingdom or the United States.

THE CONTEXT

It is difficult to generalise about Germany’s educational system because, in the federal constitutional structure, education is a matter for the *Länder* and the federal government has little say. The *Abitur* is recognised as a benchmark in all the *Länder* and there is an institutional forum, the KMK (*Ständige Konferenz der Kulturlminister der Länder der Bundesrepublik Deutschland* – the Council of States Education Ministers) which ensures common standards for mutual recognition of certificates. Nonetheless, the *Länder* guard their autonomy jealously and their educational aims, priorities, and procedures do vary substantially.

Some important features of the German approach to teachers’ professional development are:

- In-service training is seen as one part of a process. This comprises initial higher education in one or more disciplines, plus education and social sciences, followed by a two-year school-based induction – integrating study seminars and classroom instruction – during which student teachers are gradually brought to the stage where they can take a whole class without supervision. The process is completed by lifelong learning and training.
- There has been a substantial expansion of in-service provision over recent decades, partly as a response to policy and partly as a spontaneous teacher reaction to scientific progress and to new social challenges affecting pupils and learning conditions.

- There has also been a move towards school-based in-service developments, sometimes linked with school plans.
- The main providers of in-service courses are the *Länder* themselves working closely with the schools, although religious organisations, universities and industrial firms also provide specific courses.
- The new *Länder* (from the former East Germany) have retrained their teachers following reorganisation of their in-service organisation and institutions along the lines of, and with the assistance of, the former West German *Länder*.

POLICY INFLUENCES

In-service education in Germany has constituted a “Third Phase” of teacher development since the 1970s. The impetus came from discussions and recommendations of international commissions such as the German Education Council (*Bildungsrat*) which identified teacher training as the key issue in educational reform in its 1970 Structure Plan for the German education system. Reform was to:

- close the gap between academic and practical education; and
- offer a universal basic education aimed at the development of personal autonomy and civic responsibility, a commitment to scientific knowledge and the full achievement of the abilities, interests and special needs of the individual student.

It was recognised that teachers would need help in meeting these new goals. Since then, in-service provision has greatly expanded and has broadly followed the main lines recommended in the report.

The heads of in-service institutions and those officers responsible for in-service provision in all the *Länder* meet regularly and they focus on issues arising from research or developments in their schools. As a result, the in-service agenda is remarkably similar even in *Länder* under different political control and is moving towards the whole school perspective foreshadowed in the Structure Plan. This movement is stronger in some *Länder* than in others.

A substantial proportion of in-service work in Germany, especially in Bavaria and Baden-Wurtemberg is, however, still accounted for by the traditional approach to professional development whereby individual teachers improve their qualifications in a specialist area. In all *Länder*, in-service training is provided to accompany curricular reforms. But this is increasingly supplemented by more general courses focused on social problems affecting teachers of all levels and subjects, or by cross-curricular issues such as environmental education and information technology.

Change

There is an emerging consensus about the direction and some of the main features of change. One significant shift has been the move towards seeing the individual school as the focus of professional development. School-based in-service education (*SchILF*) is designed so that the pedagogical development of a school is planned and carried out by the teaching staff with the participation of parents' and students' representatives. This means that the school first decides on a teaching forum whose initial objective is to treat topics like "co-operation with the school and with parents"; "general education problems"; "organisational development"; "school as a learning system"; etc. The solutions and overall objectives for the specific school's development are determined afterwards. This "what is/what if" analysis serves as a basis for outlining a medium-term course of action to determine the objective.

SchILF acts to link school-based, regional and centralised in-service education in which the teaching staffs have an active role in the planning and design of the in-service education programme. School-based in-service education efforts have encouraged teamwork and engendered in-service education in other areas such as communications and co-operation, particularly with parents. Noticeable dimensions to this form of in-service education are group dynamics; personnel management; personnel development and organisational development.

The roles of school administrators and of the school board also change through school-based in-service training. School administrators take on intensified management and coordination tasks, thereby also opening up avenues for school-based reform discussions, development and accords. These, in turn, assist in the implementation of in-service development and of change through collaborative efforts at the school. The school-based activities are supplemented by in-service education for the administration and board which helps to achieve school development "from the ground up" that has the potential to be well-rounded, viable and durable.

This approach to school-based in-service education involves a long-term process, which must not only be put in motion, but kept running as well. There has been an expansion of school-based in-service provision, though not as strong as in some other countries because of the highly centralised organisation of educational provision within each *Land*. However, even in the most centralised *Länder*, in-service providers are increasingly responding to school-based demand and developing more flexible arrangements for meeting them.

The *Länder* have specially trained moderators to assist the schools. In this respect, the *Länder* use different approaches. The moderators can be in-house or outside consultants. The key concern overall, however, is that each school discov-

ers its own integrity as a system, and, out of that system, develops and articulates its in-service education needs.

All of this has highlighted the need for training of principals as the key to school improvement. School management, not only for principals but also for inspectors and others, has grown in importance.

Another development has been the need to strengthen the personal development of teachers (as opposed to their knowledge) as children bring their problems into school and social change impinges increasingly on schools. The additional pressures on schools are occurring at a time when the teaching force is ageing, and it is no coincidence that courses in combating burn-out and stress have become popular. There has also been a move away from subject-focused courses for physics, maths, and modern language teachers towards courses designed to cater for the needs of whole school teaching staff on more general themes.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN GERMANY

Providers

In-service courses are provided by the *Länder* themselves, usually through institutions that are specifically set up for this purpose and that work closely with the schools. Religious organisations often have their own in-service institutions and universities and industrial firms also provide specific courses. In Rhineland-Pfalz, for example, the *Land* has negotiated an agreement with the universities under which teachers may attend courses free of charge provided that the *Land* authorities sanction them as appropriate.

The in-service institutions in the various *Länder* generally have a small full time staff, usually drawn from the ranks of experienced teachers. They also draw in experts from the universities as well as trainers (*studien-seminare*) who are involved in the school-based induction phase of teacher training. The university experts and outside trainers are employed on a part-time basis to teach the bulk of the in-service courses. They function essentially in a top-down mode, as disseminators of curriculum and policy developments. However, there is a growing awareness of the importance of school-based professional development and many central institutions are making impressive efforts to respond to school demands for help. The staff of the institutions help organise in-service events at the schools and also offer their facilities for week-end courses for whole school staffs.

In Hesse, for example, the central institutions are being reorganised into six regional pedagogical centres which will combine top-down dissemination and training roles with a bottom-up relationship with local schools. In 1999, all schools in Hesse will have to produce school plans and the regional centres will have a key role in preparing them for this task. A new school law gives schools more

autonomy and pilot schemes are under way to test approaches to whole school planning. In 1997, a two-day conference of all in-service staff, inspectors and mentors of the (school-based) second stage of initial training was held on the subject of how to assist schools in developing school plans. Most schools organise occasional “professional days” with the help of the central in-service institutions which focus on issues of concern to the whole school. Most other *Länder* are also moving in this direction.

Bavaria, on the other hand, has a complex, four-level, structure. There is a central institution, seven regions – administering the secondary technical (*realschule*), grammar schools and upper vocational schools – and 96 local school boards which administer in-service provision for primary and secondary non-selective school. School-based in-service work constitutes the fourth level.

The Bavarian central in-service college at Dillingen is a major institution of higher education with boarding facilities for 250 teachers and with academic and technical facilities to rival a university. It resembles the National Education Centre of Japan in its function as a teachers’ staff college for Bavaria. It focuses, like its Japanese equivalent, on specialised courses – especially the training of principals and inspectors – and on the training of trainers who then “cascade” these courses through the regions and local school boards (see Case Study 2, p. 73).

Rhineland-Pfalz is smaller and has a less complex structure than Bavaria; its central in-service institution houses an administrative unit which co-ordinates four regional campuses, each of which has roles in regional dissemination and school communication and each of which also specialises in one or more fields for the whole *Land*. The campus at Boppard, for example, covers several important fields such as the training of trainers, training principals, deputy principals and inspectors, and foreign language training for the whole *Land*. The smallest campus specialises only in traffic awareness courses, but like Boppard it has a regional role. The in-service institution produces a twice-yearly programme of about 450-500 courses. These are offered by the *Land* in-service institution and by other public and private institutions, including the Churches’ own organisations.

Most *Länder* have similar institutions. The Eastern *Länder* set up similar institutions after reunification. Some *Länder* are reviewing the organisation of in-service work because of budgetary restraints and in order to decentralise provision to regional and school levels.

Form and content

The Federal Government can only advise and because of the lack of a national system of education central policy, needs the agreement of all the *Länder*. Consequently the KMK operates only with the unanimous support of all the *Länder*. In 1997, after lengthy discussions, the KMK issued a final agreement on

the mutual recognition of teachers' qualifications and the priorities for teacher development. The starting points for this agreement were the need to conform to European Union laws on the mutual recognition of teacher qualifications and the need to integrate the new *Länder* of East Germany into the KMK agreements on mutual recognition of teacher qualifications (which determines teachers' status within the civil service and therefore their salaries).

The agreement sets out six general areas of in-service provision for the whole of Germany. These are: curriculum innovation; subject didactics; the pedagogical use of new media, including information technology; psychological and pedagogical support for the development of the teacher's own personality; support for team-work, co-operation and counselling; and help for schools with special social problems.

The Federal Government also supports special experimental projects in the school system of the *Länder*. Both the *Länder* and the Federal Ministry of Education place great emphasis on in-service courses linked to new curricular content and teaching methods. It is not uncommon for the Federal Ministry to fund half of the cost of pilot projects such as the introduction of foreign languages into primary schools (Case Study 1, p. 71). There have been joint projects on the use of information technology in classrooms, on teaching German to the children of new immigrants, and on environmental education. In recent years, more courses have been introduced dealing with social problems, such as drugs, child abuse, violence, and the role of the media.

All the *Länder* offer a wide range of courses which broadly fall into the following categories:

- courses introducing new teaching techniques or curriculum content;
- courses designed to expand and consolidate the pedagogic, psychological, didactic and specialist knowledge and skills teachers need to do their job;
- courses designed to offer teachers the opportunity to acquaint themselves with academic research and findings related to their subject or to their pedagogical specialisms;
- courses of further education enabling teachers to offer new or additional teaching subjects;
- specialist courses for principals or inspectors which are compulsory in some *Länder* for those teachers taking up posts for the first time in such areas;
- courses dealing with general social problems affecting schools and with problems arising in particular types or levels of schools.

To take a practical example, the in-service programme of Bavaria is planned a year ahead by a broadly representative commission presided over by the

Bavarian head of in-service programmes. This commission reviews curriculum innovations and new social developments for which teachers need support. It also receives instructions from the Bavarian Government on new initiatives, for example, the need to introduce media education into schools in 1997-98. At the same time, feedback from teachers, inspectors and in-service institutions is considered, as is the level of teacher demand for previous courses. Some of the new initiatives can be incorporated into the subject-based curriculum and therefore into traditional in-service courses. Some require new approaches and thus there has been a considerable emphasis on counselling courses for teachers who may specialise in dealing with pupils' psychological or social problems. The content of school-based in-service work is more difficult to determine as it is a matter for the school alone and is not communicated to the centre. However, it seems to cover some of the same ground as central provision, with an emphasis on social problems facing particular schools.

To some extent the content of in-service training reflects the nature of the political majority in the *Land*. In those *Länder* which are normally SPD controlled, there is an emphasis on preparing teachers for work in comprehensive schools and on blurring the sharp lines between different types of secondary schools, whereas in Bavaria and Baden-Wurtemberg much of in-service provision is still categorised by school-type. For the most part this is a matter of presentation but it does affect the content of some courses.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

Teachers are expected to attend courses in the afternoon, at weekends or in the holidays; or teachers cover for each other; or in individual cases pupils miss classes. Most in-service courses are locally organised for out-of-school time attendance. Principals have discretion over the release of their staff from teaching to attend longer in-service courses and there is some concern at both Ministry level and among parents and teachers over the loss of teaching time given to some pupils. About 3 per cent of all planned classes are not taught but in one of these *Länder* approximately 30 per cent of all classes were estimated to have been lost due to teacher absence on in-service courses. In Rhineland-Pfalz, teachers have the right to six days' release per year with the permission of their principal, and another six with the permission of the regional authority. Courses usually last for three to five days but specialised courses at the central institutions can last longer. Similar arrangements apply in Bavaria.

The amount spent on teacher development varies from one *Land* to another. Despite sometimes lavish accommodation and equipment, expenditure on in-service courses is relatively low because teachers are not covered for absence on courses and schools do not get a specific budget for professional development. In

Bavaria in 1992, it amounted to 0.2 per cent of the state's education budget and observers thought that it was still at around that percentage in 1997. A similar percentage is spent by the Land on in-service courses in Rhineland-Pfalz. There is some additional expenditure by religious and voluntary bodies and by the teachers themselves.

The option, of course, remains for teachers to pursue in-service education independently through a self-study programme. Ideas and help are available through correspondence course materials and the services of the German Institute for Correspondence Courses (*Deutsches Institut für Fernstudient*) or from a series of broadcasts from a radio college on educational topics. These broadcasts are complemented by other in-service materials and discussion sessions.

BENEFITS AND EVALUATION

Top-down initiatives can produce results very quickly. Over the last few years, Bavaria has implemented a new curriculum, linked with a new approach to collaborative teaching in the *hauptschulen* (secondary non-selective schools) where many of the social problems affecting students' learning have been most acute. The aims of this initiative are to focus on the needs of the least motivated students, using a task-oriented, learner-centred, inter-disciplinary approach. This approach requires teachers to work in teams and to organise field work, work placements and other active learning situations. It also requires them to work with parents and other adults outside schools.

To prepare teachers for this radically new approach to their work, 96 local school inspectors and 200 school-based trainers were offered special courses at the Academy of In-Service Training at Dillingen and they in turn trained 6 000 teachers in local centres. The courses at the academy included an introduction to adult education techniques for the "cascaders". The first evaluations of both the in-service training and the work in schools have been very positive.

The work of the Academy is reviewed in Case Study 2 while the first Case Study describes the substantial in-service effort in Rhineland-Pfalz accompanying the decision to introduce all primary school pupils to a foreign language in grade 3.

CASE STUDY 1

EARLY INTRODUCTION OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (ENGLISH OR FRENCH) INTO PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN RHINELAND-PFALZ

Following a five-year project involving nine schools which ended in 1995, all pupils in primary schools in Rhineland-Pfalz are introduced to a foreign language in grade 3. The pilot project and the ongoing implementation of the policy have required a substantial in-service effort during which around one-sixth of the

9 000 primary teachers have taken a two-year part-time course and 160 have so far been certificated. The pilot project was partly funded (50 per cent) by the Federal Ministry of Education. The evaluation report showed positive support from pupils and teachers involved in the pilot but a mixed response from secondary teachers.

The focus of the primary school programme is on linguistic and cultural awareness rather than acquisition of the foreign language. When schools draw up their plans, all teachers have to participate and this approach takes pressure off those who are uncertain of their linguistic competence. There are no specific foreign language lessons, rather, the language and culture of the country whose language is studied are integrated into other curriculum material. There are therefore no specific curriculum, tests, or grades for class work. Initial opposition from some primary teachers and principals and a few parents has largely dissipated as the course has proved itself but a few secondary teachers still express some reservations, though fewer than at the outset.

The extent of pupils' exposure to the foreign language must vary from class to class, depending on the linguistic confidence and competence of the teacher but it seems that this has not so far posed great problems. The intention appears to be to introduce foreign languages gradually into the primary curriculum by a "softening-up process" whereby primary teachers' competence is raised and good practice is established.

The in-service programme follows similar lines, linking pedagogical courses with a focused effort to raise the linguistic competence and inter-cultural knowledge of the teachers. Its aim is to qualify the primary school teacher to teach in the area of "integrated modern language teaching". The content of the course includes four two or three day seminars on:

- the theory and practice of modern language teaching in primary schools;
- the language theories appropriate to the language acquisition of primary pupils;
- the *didaktik* (teaching methodology) of foreign languages for primary classes; and
- aspects of inter-cultural learning and studies of topics from the literature of the target language (fairy tales, fables, poems) and from regional studies.

This is complemented by two three-day seminars treating special problems and topics of modern language teaching in primary schools (for example, cross-curricular teaching); by two three-day seminars on linguistic skills; by once-a-month English classes in the various regions; and by personal study. The *Lingua* programme of the European Union partly finances two-week study visits to France or England which are an optional part of the in-service course. A more intensive programme to improve the linguistic competence of primary teachers will begin in 1998.

As for all in-service courses in Rhineland-Pfalz, participation is voluntary and takes place mainly outside class teaching hours. Teachers receive a certificate upon successful completion of the course, which involves attending a substantial proportion of the course sessions and taking an oral examination in the target language which can be entered at the point when the teacher feels ready.

In a typical primary school in Rhineland-Pfalz last year, all children were introduced to English from grade 3. Seven teachers at the school (out of twelve), including the principal, had followed the in-service course and most seemed positive about it although they recognised its limited nature. Only one teacher from the school had participated in the officially organised study visits to England under the *Lingua* programme. However, the school had arranged its own exchange with an English primary school which had been visited by several teachers, parents and pupils. The children appeared to be eager to communicate in English, had good accents, and were competent within a limited register. Teaching was mainly in the form of singing, conversational exchanges and role-playing and the school had invested time and money in developing teaching materials and displays to support this approach.

CASE STUDY 2

BAVARIAN ACADEMY OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The Academy was founded in 1971. It is one of two major central institutions responsible to the Bavarian State Ministry of Education, Cultural Affairs, Science, and the Arts. The other is the Centre for Educational Research which comprises three separate state institutes, for Pre-School Education and Family Research; for Research and Planning of Higher Education; and for School Education and Educational Research (SISEER). It is with the SISEER that the Academy of In-Service Training has the strongest links. The Academy also has close links with the State School Inspection Service.

The Academy plans, organises, and co-ordinates the in-service training of all teachers in Bavaria. It collaborates with the SISEER on determining the content of in-service courses, and with all the other specialised central and regional in-service providers in establishing the in-service programme. These include state institutes for physical education, road safety education, and the media and information technology, as well as institutes run by religious communities which provide mainly courses in religious education. The Academy itself carries out the in-service training at the centralised level in all other fields and co-ordinates the activities at regional and local levels. It has a full-time staff of 30 teacher trainers who are all qualified teachers with at least ten years experience in schools. In addition, other teachers, university researchers and experts from all fields of public life are invited to contribute. The Academy is housed in a magnificent

building which includes the baroque library of the Jesuit order, founders of the theological faculty for which the institution was originally established. It has many seminar rooms and well equipped specialist rooms as well as 235 single study/bedrooms.

In such a highly differentiated educational system, the Academy has the advantage of being able to provide a system-wide perspective and to cater for teachers from all types of school. Around 15 000 teachers attend courses annually at the Academy. A booklet listing all course programmes is issued to every school every six months. The participation of teachers is voluntary except for staff who have been newly appointed to posts as principal or inspector or mentor of initial training in schools. Most of the courses take place in school-time and teachers are released to attend with the permission of their principal.

In Germany, a distinction is made between professional training, which is required of all teachers, and further qualifications which are designed to extend the range of subjects taught or to qualify teachers for a higher level of work. The compulsory courses referred to above come into this professional training category as do courses to qualify teachers to teach German to non-German speaking pupils, or English in vocational schools where the subject was not formerly taught, or to act as counsellors in secondary schools. The Academy is unique in Bavaria in offering such qualifications and has a status equivalent to a university in this respect.

The Academy functions as the apex of the professional development system in the *Land* and trains for the leading roles in administration and teaching. In collaboration with the SISEER, it functions as an instrument for implementing curricular changes in Bavaria and also for introducing new approaches such as team-teaching. When the Bavarian Government decides to introduce new subjects such as new human rights subject matter within political studies, or media education, cascade training is implemented by training the local trainers at the Academy.

It is an agent of innovation at the service of the Ministry although it enjoys considerable operational autonomy. Only about one-fifth of its work is related to curriculum innovation coming from the Ministry or the SISEER. Much of the rest is determined by the Academy itself in response to teacher and school demand. In this respect, it has been able to meet the growing demand from schools for help in developing school-based professional development. The Academy's full-time staff are encouraged to go into schools to help and schools are able to request specific support from other experts which the Academy will arrange to have provided. About 40 schools used the Academy in 1997 for residential week-end meetings of their whole staff. The current priority of the Academy is to develop this bottom-up school-based professional work as a complement to (but not a replacement of) the top-down function of implementing central initiatives.

COMMENTARY ON TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN GERMANY

Germany has a complex constitutional structure in which educational decision-making lies principally with the 16 *Länder*. The *Länder* also co-operate to achieve coherence between their systems. In the field of teacher development, this is achieved by regular meetings of the responsible individuals in each *Land*. The *Länder* differ in the nature of political orientation and this affects the policy direction of their educational systems but similar structures and institutions exist throughout Germany.

In effect, each *Land* has a centralised education system with central control and organisation of in-service provision. Some are more centralised than others in this respect but there has been a move almost everywhere to more decentralised in-service organisation and to more school-based planning and provision. In some *Länder*, this has led to a redefinition of the role of the central in-service institutions. However, it is most unlikely that this movement will be taken as far as in some other OECD countries. The *Länder* will almost certainly retain a central organisation for in-service provision and a mainly top-down strategy for implementing curriculum change and central educational policy changes. German schools do not have the degree of autonomy enjoyed by those in Britain. Some moves are being made to enhance the role of principals in appointing new members of school staffs, but these are unlikely to go as far as they have in some other countries, nor are they likely to lead to principals acquiring the range of responsibilities of their British counterparts. But school-based and other bottom-up initiatives in professional development are being encouraged and a new balance between centralised strategic organisation and planning and local initiative will emerge.

In-service education is mainly voluntary in Germany but has grown rapidly over the last twenty-five years in response both to central initiatives and policy developments and to demands from teachers needing help in new situations. Provision of courses has diversified in response to changes in demand. Despite this expansion and diversification, in-service provision appears to be relatively inexpensive in Germany mainly because no cover is provided for teachers who attend courses. Teachers are encouraged to attend out of school hours but if they are absent for a week's course either their colleagues take the classes or in individual cases pupils miss lessons. This is a sensitive issue which is carefully monitored by principals, parents and local inspectors. School-based in-service provision may lessen the incidence of teacher absence and this may be one of its attractions to the authorities.

The content of in-service courses has moved away from traditional subject-based methodology (*didaktik*) towards school-wide and even system-wide issues,

reflecting the changing situations in which teachers work and the different demands made of schools. One of the strengths of the German educational system has always been its close links with the world of work. In this area too, the changes have been radical. The dual system has come under strain from the rise in unemployment. At the same time employers have made it clear that their expectations of young people entering employment have changed: attitudes and disposition are considered as important as cognitive knowledge and skills. Employers stress positive attitudes to work and further training, the ability to work in teams, and other personal qualities. Teachers need help in developing these attitudes in their pupils and employers are increasingly interested in supporting teacher development through workplace secondments and other links.

IRELAND: ESTABLISHING IN-SERVICE TRAINING AS A PRIORITY

OVERVIEW

The Irish education system has expanded dramatically over the past three decades during which time the state concentrated its investment in teacher training at the pre-service level. In-service training was not a priority although there had been a tradition of teachers attending week long courses on a voluntary basis during the summer holidays.

That situation is now changing. The summer programmes remain but, in addition, courses are provided during school term, mainly to acquaint teachers with curricular changes and to keep them abreast of developments in teaching methodologies. Since the early 1990s, there has been a steady increase in the number of such courses which are predominantly of the “short-burst” variety.

The Department of Education established an In-Career Development Unit (ICDU) in 1994 to bring about greater coordination of in-service provision among the variety of providers and to prioritise developments. Advisory committees have been established for the primary and secondary school sectors. In addition, successive administrations have promised a Teaching Council on a statutory basis which, if established, could have important inputs to make to the planning of in-service education.

As of yet there is no structured scheme of release from the classroom with substitute cover for teachers who wish to pursue full-time post graduate studies. Nor are the incentives and rewards for teachers who obtain qualifications from voluntary participation in certificated in-service courses considered by the profession to be adequate (Coolahan, 1994, p. 87).

THE CONTEXT

Several societal, political and educational factors have contributed to the development of in-service training among Irish teachers and to a greater awareness of the need for professional development:

- The availability of significant Structural Funds from the EU under the Human Resources Operational Programme has allowed for a long-overdue expansion of in-service provision. Priority has been given to the Training of Trainers programme with the objective of having in place a corps of teacher-trainers who would be capable of delivering training as resources permit. Capital funds have also been made available by the EU for the development of Education (formerly Teachers') Centres around the country.
- The steady increase in the number of young people remaining in the education system- 84 per cent now complete senior cycle at age 17 or 18 and the official target is to reach the 90 per cent level by the end of the decade. New programmes have had to be introduced to cater for the diverse range of student abilities and these necessitated in-service provision. This holds true also for teachers engaged in a number of initiatives specifically targeted at the disadvantaged.
- The concept of partnership in education has taken root firmly in Ireland. The National Parents' Council (NPC) is consulted on most major educational decisions while at local level virtually all schools have boards of management comprising representatives of parents, teachers and school owners. Development programmes for boards and for the wider body of parents are a priority. The NPC uses some of the financial assistance it receives from the Department of Education to run its own Parents' Programme.
- Political concern over the growing drugs problem in deprived areas of the cities has prompted drugs and alcohol awareness programmes in schools for which teachers have had to be trained. Priority has also been given to the introduction of a Relationships and Sexuality Education programme into all primary and secondary schools and considerable resources have been allocated to in-service training for teachers (see Case Study 2, p. 88).
- A factor inhibiting development, however, is the length of the school year in Irish secondary schools where classes are taught for a maximum of 167 days a year. The fact that Irish secondary school pupils are in school for fewer days than their counterparts in many developed countries makes it difficult for schools to close while their teachers are engaged in planning exercises or attending short in-service courses. Irish primary school pupils are taught for a maximum of 183 days a year which is closer to the OECD average.

POLICY INFLUENCES

Up to 1994 the limited in-service provision available to Irish teachers was provided directly by department inspectors or by a variety of other providers who offered the courses largely on the basis of perceived needs. There was no systematic identification of needs. The OECD in its review of Irish education in 1991 had recommended that the inspectorate abandon its direct responsibility for organising in-service and concentrate on monitoring and evaluating such courses (OECD, 1991, p. 97).

The availability of EU funds allowed for a four fold increase from 1994 onwards in the annual amount spent on in-service. The inspectorate relinquished its role in organising in-service that same year and the department set up the In-Career Development Unit (ICDU) which is seeking to “steer” in-service provision in a more systematic fashion.

Increasingly the type of in-service training provided for Irish teachers is geared to curricular changes and to school development. The ICDU invites applications for the annual summer course schedule and lists priorities. The actual administration of the applications, funding, etc., has been contracted out to the Marino Institute of Education in Dublin but department inspectors monitor the programmes which are held in Education Centres, colleges of education, hotels and other venues around the country.

Change

A White Paper on Education published in 1995 acknowledged that while some very good work was being done in in-service training, frequent criticisms were that much of the provision was fragmented and that teacher participation was voluntary (Department of Education, Ireland, 1995, p. 127). It stated that in-service professional development was largely provider-driven, with decisions on priorities and the content of courses being made by the providers, usually in response to perceived needs.

It indicated that future policy would ensure that the systematically identified needs of participants – teachers, parents, and boards of management – would be the primary influence in determining the aims and content of programmes. It contained a commitment to formulate, in active co-operation with the partners in education, a strategic framework for development with explicit, achievable objectives, specified target groups and criteria for evaluating the impact of in-career programme.

This strategic framework would provide the guidelines for schools and clusters of schools, as appropriate, to enable them to identify and respond to their

particular needs. Structured staff development initiatives would be an important part of each school's approach to enhancing the quality of educational provision.

A number of specific issues were identified as being of particular importance in order to bring about effective change. These were:

- participation in development programmes by all 4 000 primary and secondary school principals by the end of the decade;
- in-service training to accompany current curricular changes at both primary and secondary school levels;
- programmes in the creative and performing arts;
- training for teachers of students with learning difficulties and special needs;
- course modules on gender equality as an important feature in all programmes; and
- the promotion of more collegiality and co-operation among teachers in the development of whole-school approaches to educational provision and school planning.

From a situation where its inspectors ran courses, the department now largely confines its involvement to the setting of national priorities, budgetary allocation and monitoring of programmes locally. The ICDU has responsibility for these tasks. Apart from the advice available from the advisory committees the unit also works in co-operation with Implementation Groups set up to advise on the timing of further curricular changes.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN IRELAND

The status of teachers in Ireland is quite high and the profession continues to attract good quality applicants. Their pay levels are generally higher than in most OECD countries but so too are class sizes. Pre-service – whether of the concurrent model for primary teachers or the consecutive model for most secondary teachers – was described as being of a “good and appropriate model” in the 1991 OECD review of Irish education. There is, however, a recognised need for a more structured induction year followed by a pattern of in-service courses or, as they are referred to in Department of Education literature, in-career courses (see OECD, 1991).

The needs of more established teachers also have to be addressed. In common with other OECD countries, the greater proportion of Irish teachers is in the age range 35-55. After three decades of rapid expansion in student numbers, the enrolment peak was passed in the mid 1990s. Ireland is entering a period of decline in numbers attending full time primary schools, while the growth in secondary schools has levelled off. The result is that there are relatively few

permanent openings for newly qualified teachers. Despite the introduction of an early retirement scheme in 1997, few older teachers are opting to leave the profession before they reach normal retirement age. Many need to update their skills and knowledge in new areas such as school based assessment. There is also a need for improving relationships within schools, with pupils, with other teachers, other professionals, parents and adults generally.

The need for professional development is recognised among Irish teachers. While they are not obliged to attend courses during the summer, about 60 per cent of the country's 20 000 primary teachers do so for four hours per day for a week at a time. In return, they get three Extra Personal Vacation days which they can take during school term. Secondary teachers do not have a similar entitlement but also attend summer courses in large numbers: these are usually run by subject associations on a voluntary basis.

Another form of professional development takes place in universities. It is estimated that at any one time about 700 teachers out of a work force of 40 000 are enrolled on part-time post-graduate programmes at university. In the past, many masters' degree programmes were not aimed specifically at teachers but that has changed and the number and variety of courses prepared especially for teachers has increased rapidly in recent years. Teachers' participation is voluntary and few receive assistance from their schools for tuition fees or obtain study leave. They are entitled to additional allowances for masters' degrees or doctorates but not for specialist one year post-graduate diploma courses such as in remedial education.

Providers

The ICDU has overall responsibility for the organisation of in-service training related to the many curricular initiatives being introduced into schools. Much of this work is contracted out to Training Programme Support Services. Nine such teams have been established, covering areas such as the Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme and the Leaving Certificate Applied (alternative programmes to the mainstream Leaving Certificate programme which is followed by the majority of secondary school students); Civic, Social and Political Education; the Health Promoting School Network; Relationships and Sexuality Education; the Music Support Team; and the Transition Year.⁴ As well as running courses these support teams organise seminars and workshops and issue newsletters. The

4. The Transition Year is an optional bridge for 15-16-year-olds before they begin the two year Leaving Certificate cycle. It seeks to "promote the personal, social and educational development of pupils and to prepare them for their role as autonomous, participative and responsible members of society".

teams have a large degree of autonomy. They comprise trainers who contact schools directly to organise in-service training for their teachers. Because of the brevity of the secondary school teaching year and the absence of paid substitution the teams seek to organise such training with the minimum disruption to schools.

The creation of the support team for music, for instance, has given a much needed boost to a minority subject in secondary schools. The small team of trainers has prepared material including an information booklet for principals and guidance counsellors; worked with groups of teachers from clusters of schools; and dealt with individual teachers' concerns during school visits. In the autumn of 1997, every secondary school music teacher received a copy of a new resource folder which will be added to from time to time. Other significant providers of in-service courses are:

- *Education Centres.* The first of these – formerly known as Teachers' Centres – was opened in 1972 with the aim of providing a meeting place for teachers to discuss work related issues, to act as a resource centre and to provide in-service courses. In 1996, a plan was announced to develop and upgrade the Centres on a phased basis with assistance from the European Regional Development Fund. There are currently 21 full time centres and nine part time centres and this expansion greatly increases the infra-structure for in-career provision as it is called in Ireland. The intention is that each centre will develop expertise in a particular field and will share that expertise throughout the system.
- *The Education Partners.* The ICDU provides funds to organisations representing parents, teachers and school managers to run in-service courses. The Irish National Teachers' Organisation which represents primary teachers gets the bulk of this money – about Ir£430 000 in 1997 – which it uses mainly on summer courses and on training for school principals. The National Parents' Council runs a Parents' Programme for parents representatives on boards of management and for other parents. School Management bodies provide training for newly appointed principals as well as ongoing management training.

In addition, a variety of institutions and organisations is involved in the provision of in-service courses. This includes the universities and colleges of education which often provide courses in "out-centres"; subject associations which run courses for secondary teachers; some regional health boards which offer life-skills programmes; and the Department of Health which is involved in a Health Promoting Schools project. Some private providers with expertise in specialist areas such as information technology receive funds from the ICDU to run summer courses for teachers.

Form and content

Different models of in-service and professional development programmes are available to Irish teachers. They range on a continuum from short one-day courses to post-graduate programmes. Traditionally, the emphasis in most courses has been on updating the knowledge base of teachers in particular subjects. Increasingly, however, new theories of teaching and learning are being recognised in these courses, as is the need for whole school development. They range from:

- *Short courses held during school term.* These are generally characterised by a “top-down” approach, they are usually of one day’s duration and are used mainly for the dissemination of information about curriculum changes. They often comprise a formal lecture, followed by workshops and a plenary session. Some of the Education Centres have introduced interesting initiatives which have a different methodological emphasis and which are used to identify and explore issues facing teachers or principals.
- *One-off courses.* Usually held during the summer, they are still very popular. A typical summer schedule for primary teachers would include twenty hours spread over five days in a choice of subjects such as art and craft; classroom management; early childhood education; gender equity; science; school review, planning and organisation; pupil assessment; music; and special needs. The Department’s ICDU, with the assistance of the Advisory Committees, sets out the priorities but other courses are also approved.

Mary Immaculate College of Education in Limerick, for instance, provides summer courses and draws on its own staff and outside expertise. In 1997, it ran courses in subjects such as first aid in the primary school; video production; photography; puppet making for the primary school child; exploring the religious education of the senior infant child; swimming and water safety; the principal teacher and remedial provision:

- *Summer courses for secondary teachers* are usually run by subject associations to update their members on curricular developments. The Association of Teachers of English runs a week long summer course and five Saturday sessions during term. Until 1995 little department funding was available to the association but that has since changed. Other subject or specialist associations also receive financial assistance for occasional conferences during term. For instance, funding is available for the annual conference of the Institute of Guidance Counsellors which comprises workshops and lectures as well as normal institute business. Participants are given leave from school to attend the conference.

- *Extended courses.* A recent pilot project in physics and chemistry is a good example of longer, school based in-service where planning and implementation were controlled centrally but where teacher development took place in the school situation and where specific teacher needs were identified by the teachers themselves and addressed accordingly (Ní Chártaigh *et al.*, 1996). Colleges of education, universities and Education Centres also offer extended courses. An example is “Positive Approaches to Teaching” which is offered by Mary Immaculate College of Education in Limerick one night per week over a twenty week period.
- *Training of trainers.* The model is used increasingly at primary and secondary levels. Teachers are selected for their specific skills and expertise and assigned to small teams for their subject areas. Once their training is complete they are available to train other teachers in a cascade effect.
- *School leadership programmes.* There is a recognised need for training in management in Irish schools. The role of the school in Irish society is changing. There are pressures for new programmes, new teaching methods, new assessment procedures and new expectations of the school principal. It is worth noting that seniority is an important factor in determining which teachers are promoted to middle management posts in secondary schools. While this may avoid friction in the staff rooms it is not necessarily conducive to the best people being promoted.

The school leadership programme was introduced in 1994 by the Secretariat of Secondary Schools – a school management body – to help schools develop a framework in which to situate staff development. There are three phases in the programme. Phase 1 is directed at principals and vice principals and is a two year programme with six days training during each year of the programme. Phase 2 involves three two-day modules for staff over a one year period while Phase 3 focuses on whole-school development:

- *Whole school development programmes.* A relatively small number of schools is engaged in extended Whole School Development programmes with Education Centres or universities. For instance, the Drumcondra Education Centre in Dublin works with a number of schools for a minimum of a year. The work begins with surveys of the attitudes of students, parents and teachers towards the schooling process and is followed up by teachers reflecting on what they are doing and setting up planning teams to achieve identified goals. The National University of Ireland, Maynooth works in a somewhat similar fashion with schools in its hinterland. It provides long duration courses involving school principals and class teachers in Whole School Development. Clusters of schools co-operate and the programme includes a Training of Trainers dimension.

- *Post-graduate courses.* Education departments in universities and colleges of education offer one or two year full time or part time courses. The majority are part time where modules are taken outside school hours and/or during school holidays. They include higher diplomas in areas such as special or remedial education, curriculum and assessment, administration and management as well as M Eds and PhDs. The programmes tend to be provider driven in terms of planning, content, etc. However, they also allow participants opportunity for reflection and action through, for example, course work, project work and thesis (Hyland and Hanafin, 1997, pp. 144-171).

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

Unlike Britain, Sweden and some other countries, there is no fixed minimum number of days allocated to in-service development for Irish teachers. Curricular related in-service training is provided, as required, during term, mainly by the department's training support services. The need for such courses has increased significantly because of the considerable volume of curricular change in Irish schools. Attendance at such curricular related in-service training is generally obligatory. Substitute cover, which is expensive, is provided in exceptional circumstances and is not encouraged by the department. It is estimated that the average time spent on in-service training by primary teachers is 22 hours each per year and slightly less than that by secondary school teachers.

Voluntary participation on summer courses is, as we have seen, quite high, running at about 60 per cent for primary teachers. The courses are free or charge modest fees and the Department of Education pays the running costs of some in areas such as management of schools, and dealing with disadvantaged pupils. It also pays modest expenses to secondary teachers who attend courses during the summer. Primary teachers have no such entitlement but instead benefit from the three extra personal vacation days during term. The 1991 OECD Review of Irish education had recommended that a policy for career-long education and training should be essentially similar for all categories of teachers.

Over the period 1994-99 some Ir£37 million is being expended on in-service training for teachers of which 75 per cent comes from the European Union. While the current level of spending is a considerable increase on the pre-1994 position, it still represents only 0.7 per cent of the budget for teachers' pay. By contrast the provision for in-service training for civil servants which currently represents 0.75 per cent of their pay is set to rise to 3 per cent as part of the Government's Strategic Management Initiative.

- An indication of the priorities is shown by the following breakdown of department spending on in-service courses in 1996:

- relationships and sexuality education: £Ir 1.8 million;
- leaving certificate curricular reforms: £Ir 745 000;
- remedial education and special education: £Ir 395 000;
- primary teacher courses, including summer courses: £Ir 670 000;
- further education teacher courses: £Ir 210 000;
- civil, social and political education (CSPE): £Ir 215 000;
- substance abuse prevention programme: £Ir 120 000;
- transition year: £Ir 640 000;
- parent training: £Ir 210 000.

The 1997 in-service spending included continuing support for the above as well as increased resources for Leaving Certificate subject reforms and for a new programme aimed at the disadvantaged called “Breaking the Cycle”.

BENEFITS AND EVALUATION

A variety of methods of evaluation is used during and after in-service provision but it is accepted by the department that there should be more systematic evaluation of programmes. Evaluation of the summer courses is largely carried out through the participants filling in questionnaires. This is supplemented by the monitoring of courses by the department's inspectors who are regionally based. Given the scale of the summer course operation, however, and the relatively small number of inspectors, their evaluation is inevitably limited.

The school leadership programme already referred to was evaluated by a team from the University of Limerick and included a survey of participants, observation of module presentations, visits to schools and interviews with principals and teachers (Leonard *et al.*, 1996). It found that the presentation of modules was outstandingly successful and that participants had learned a great deal in terms of new knowledge and attitudes.

The evaluation uncovered certain difficulties that were faced by virtually all schools participating in the programme. Among these were: 1) a tension between several of those features and ideas associated with the programme – collaboration, collegiality and broad conceptions of teacher professionalism – coexisting with traditional elements of school culture, *e.g.* teacher privacy, isolation and narrow conception of teacher professionalism; 2) the absence of existing roles and structures within schools to support the principal's role as a leader of change; 3) some aspects of the national context affect the programme adversely, for example, teacher opposition to the concept of middle management in schools and friction regarding issues of teacher time at school.

The ICDU is introducing a more varied approach to evaluation including structured interviews or, in appropriate circumstances, direct observations or the use of video or audio technologies in training sessions. Where independent consultations are used, the process of conjoint evaluation will be encouraged. This includes the partners – the programme developers, those who deliver it, the participants, their schools and their pupils as well as the independent consultant. It is intended that more emphasis will be given to evaluating the impact of programmes on the life of pupils in schools.

The first Case Study provides an interesting example of a teachers' union, with state funding, running in-service courses for its own members. The second describes some of the complex and time consuming preparations for the introduction of a new programme on Relationships and Sexuality Education into all primary and secondary schools. It is too early to evaluate the results of the programme, but the in-service arrangements indicate the necessity to prepare teachers adequately for the introduction of sensitive and potentially controversial courses.

CASE STUDY 1

TEACHERS STAY AHEAD

The biggest teachers' union, the Irish National Teachers' Organisation (INTO) has received considerable financial assistance from the ICDU since 1994 to run in-service courses, both, during term and, primarily, in the summer holidays. An assistant general secretary of the union has been assigned responsibility for the courses which are very popular among the union's members. The Association of Secondary Teachers Ireland runs 2-3 day school leadership programmes as well as a number of other courses, but the Teachers' Union of Ireland provides few such courses, partly because it is not entirely convinced that a trade union should be carrying out what might be seen basically as the task of the Department of Education. The extent of future funding from the department for courses run by a number of organisations and agencies could be reviewed in the context of the expansion of the network of Education Centres which play an increasing role in the provision of in-service courses.

The INTO courses were designed by practising teachers. Trainers were released from school, with substitute cover, to participate in a one week programme to develop skills and expertise in tutoring. The INTO courses are provided in schools, colleges, hotels and other venues around the country. In 1996, 70 summer courses were offered covering topics such as classroom management; school planning; learning difficulties – literacy; and learning difficulties – mathematics. In addition, a residential summer school in self-esteem was available during which teachers were provided with an opportunity to combine personal

participation in a course with a family holiday in good quality student accommodation at the National University of Ireland, Galway – the family holiday element being paid for by the participants.

One of the more innovative INTO courses is for principals and is held at various locations throughout the country. A course in an hotel in the city of Limerick in 1997, for instance, drew principals from a mixture of urban and rural schools in surrounding areas. An indication of the need for such a course was shown by the fact that it was oversubscribed: participants were selected on criteria such as size and location of school and the gender of applicants. Topics covered included current trends in education; effective communication; a whole school approach to learning difficulties; job stress and time management; developing school administrative systems; board of management issues and procedures; health and safety in school.

For many of the participants this was the first training they had received as principals. Some older principals particularly acknowledged that they needed assistance to adjust to their changed role in school because of factors such as the increasing number of social problems reflected in the pupil intake; greater contact with parents; development of school plans; the niggling worry of litigation; proposals to devolve more powers to boards of management, etc.

The participants on the Limerick course and similar courses elsewhere seemed particularly pleased that the programmes were given, in most cases, by “one of their own” who could relate to practical, day-to-day issues in schools. The danger is, of course, that too much attention can be given to the practical experiences of schools and not enough to the ideals to which schools should be striving. The evaluation is largely derived from participants filling in questionnaires. Their responses are generally enthusiastic but there may be a case for a more objective evaluation of the content and methodologies by an external agency.

CASE STUDY 2

RELATIONSHIPS AND SEXUALITY EDUCATION

Sex education is a sensitive topic in many countries and Ireland is no exception. Considerable time and resources have been invested in the introduction of a Relationships and Sexuality Education (RSE) into all 4 000 Irish primary and secondary schools. There has been extensive consultation with the education “partners” at national level – the teacher unions, the National Parents’ Council, and the school managerial bodies. In-service training for teachers was regarded as essential for the success of the programme and all of the country’s 20 000 primary school teachers and about 1 700 secondary teachers have each had three days training.

The in-service training was provided by a Training Programme Support Service appointed by the Department of Education. The courses were run in hotels or other venues. The final day of the three days of in-service training was designed to further develop teachers' knowledge, attitudes and skills in the area of RSE, thereby increasing their self-confidence and enabling them to undertake and implement the RSE programme. The objectives of a typical third day for primary school teachers were as follows:

- to reflect on personal relationships and identify the values underpinning healthy relationships;
- to develop teachers' expertise in dealing with sensitive issues and in responding to children's questions;
- to review the methodology used during training sessions and its application to classroom situations; and
- to suggest and review suitable classroom resources.

The opening session of a typical day three began with a workshop on the teachers' own relationships, asking them to name qualities that they valued in relationships/friendships, how to sustain good relationships, and the demands, risks and rewards involved in having such relationships. It then moved on to suggested methods of promoting positive relationships in the classroom and how problems were solved. Later in the day participants reviewed teaching approaches which could form some part of an overall school policy on RSE. They could include the use of stories and poems; classroom discussion; games or play; art; reflection/quiet time; collaborative or group work; inviting a visitor to the classroom; role play; using a video; peer paired reading, etc.

The department has stated that consultations with parents at school level must take place before the programme is introduced. In a few cases, there has been a strong negative reaction but the department has stressed that the programme is not meant to be prescriptive and should take account of the ethos of the school. The success of the programme will depend, to some extent, on ongoing support from the department.

COMMENTARY ON TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN IRELAND

The curricula at both primary and secondary level are undergoing significant changes at present. The improvements require additional training for teachers which has to be provided during school term – most of the training is provided by the support services. It is recognised that there is need to pace these reforms to avoid too much disruption to the system. An effort in 1996 to introduce compulsory in-service training outside the teaching year was rebuffed by the unions who want provision to be made within term, with full substitution cover provided.

However, the cost of such substitution is considerable and is infrequently granted.

The department has to bear in mind the concerns of school heads and parents with respect to the disruptive consequences of too much in-service training in a secondary school year of only 167 teaching days. The situation is not helped by the sparse provision for substitution. The Department also bears in mind the dangers of concentrating too much on courses provided in response to specific curricular developments and not taking into account long term career training needs for the teaching profession or for Whole School Development.

The availability of funds from the EU gave an impetus to an overdue programme of in-service training for Irish teachers. The current round of Structural Funds finishes in 1999 and definite commitments to at least maintain, if not expand, in-service training at its present level could help in the forward planning process. It could also help in achieving the level of coordination and partnership necessary to make the best use of limited resources. In addition, it could allow for more systematic evaluation of programmes and for research into the possibilities offered by new technologies and distance learning.

In-service training is no longer seen as a luxury in Irish education or regarded simply as an opportunity to pursue a hobby during a summer course. Instead it is perceived as essential for professional and school development. The voluntary commitment of Irish teachers to in-service training and professional development is very high. The challenge is to build on that commitment and co-ordinate resources to further both individual and system needs.

JAPAN: BUILDING DIVERSITY INTO THE SYSTEM

OVERVIEW

The Japanese educational system is characterised by high standards of teaching and learning as evidenced by the strong performance of Japanese students in international comparisons of student performance in science and mathematics. Education is greatly valued in Japanese society and teachers have high status and are relatively well paid. There is no shortage of students wanting to become teachers. There is a long tradition of teacher development – although mainly focused in the past on upgrading teachers' individual qualifications rather than system or school needs – and a well established system of in-service institutions and courses.

The Ministry of Education, *Monbusho*, is the apex of a centralised and hierarchical educational system. It is responsible for the coherence of the system overall, for defining strategies for the implementation of central government policies, and for forward planning and quality control. It is aided in this by a number of central institutions, notably the National Education Centre which acts as a staff college for the teaching profession and as a focal point for the dissemination of new policies and information. Schools are administered by the 47 prefectures and 12 municipalities which have devolved powers within the prefectural system.

Over the last decade a number of government reports have taken a critical view of some aspects of the educational system. In particular, criticisms have been aimed at the focus on the acquisition of abstract knowledge as opposed to practical skills which results in part from the intense competition for places in certain senior high schools and universities. The competitive atmosphere in Japanese schools has been blamed for conformity among teachers and students and for the increasing incidence of bullying, school refusal and general disenchantment with education found among students. The curriculum and assessment procedures have been revised and teacher development is seen as one of the keys to reforming education. The new objectives of teacher development are to encourage diversity and creativity, to widen teachers' perspectives, and to

promote new approaches to teaching such as team teaching and response to the needs of individual students.

The centralised system is very effective in implementing some aspects of this new programme. In particular, the programmes for school and administrative leaders, the mandatory induction programme for beginning teachers, and the developing programme for out-of-school placements for teachers are being effectively implemented within the hierarchical structures of the educational system. The degree of consensus around the reforms is impressive with both the teachers' unions and the employers' associations supporting new forms of teacher development. The National Education Centre has an important role in defining and disseminating these policies.

There is, however, something paradoxical about the centralised and top-down implementation of policies to encourage greater diversity, creativity, and autonomy among schools and among teachers. The messages have been received and are echoed at local levels but these objectives are elusive and not easily amenable to hierarchical command. This is because the same organisational structure is partly responsible for the uniformity of teaching and lack of emphasis on students' creativity and critical thinking. Retaining the advantages of centralised organisation while freeing up the system sufficiently to encourage genuine creative autonomy within schools is the task facing Japan. If it succeeds the Japanese system will provide a model for other countries to follow.

THE CONTEXT

Japan's system of education is undergoing a series of reforms designed to prepare the next generation for the 21st century. Teacher development has long been considered the key element to achieve educational improvement in Japan. Its importance as a tool of democratic education was particularly stressed after the Second World War. In 1996, the Minister of Education asked the Council of Educational Personnel Training to explore the improvement of teacher education for the 21st century. There is now a general tendency to diversify in-service training and professional development which are more directly oriented towards the improvement of schools.

Some important features of the Japanese educational system form the context of this report:

- Responsibility for education is divided between the central government and the 47 prefectures. Twelve large cities have substantial devolved responsibilities within the prefectural jurisdiction; other municipalities have more limited responsibilities.
- There are substantial differences between the prefectures in economic wealth and educational practice.

- The central Ministry of Education (*Monbusho*) has a strong role in defining policies for the whole system and in strategic intervention and evaluation. One of its functions is to equalise resources between rich and poor prefectures and to spread good practice.
- Sharply falling school rolls have led to an oversupply of teachers and there is some pressure from the treasury for a concomitant reduction of the teachers' salary bill through suppressing the increase in the number of teachers.
- Teachers' unions are strong and until very recently were opposed on ideological grounds to central government initiatives in teacher development. Of late the unions have adopted a more co-operative approach.
- Teachers are well paid and there are many more well qualified candidates than posts but there is some concern that the present recruitment and training systems are not producing teachers with sufficient vocational commitment and practical skills.
- The employers' associations are increasingly involved in teacher development as a result of their concern that teachers should understand the world of work and they are offering opportunities to teachers to spend a period of time in commercial work situations and training.
- Teachers' professional development is a long-standing feature of Japanese education and there exists a coherent and comprehensive system of teachers' centres.

POLICY INFLUENCES

The Japanese education system is highly centralised. It has a national curriculum and all the schools are expected to follow the course of study issued by the Ministry of Education. There is also a very centralised system of top-down in-service provision but at the same time Japanese teachers take very active initiatives in professional development, independent of the official programmes. This is particularly true of the majority of elementary schools where there is considerable peer collaboration, planning and management (Shimahara, 1997a). It is also reflected in the growth of numerous self-initiated, voluntary associations and circles to promote teaching. The concept of in-service education in Japan draws extensively upon peers as the major resource to organise programmes – Japanese schools are organised around interdependence rather than separation.

Official policy making is increasingly directed towards developing a new approach to teaching and to inter-personal relations in Japanese schools, with more emphasis on individuality, creativity and autonomous learning. Participation

in in-service programmes is not normally rewarded by increases in salaries or allowances.

The 1987 reform of the curriculum was based on a critical analysis of the undesirable consequences of the over-competitive spirit among Japanese students. These are said to include bullying, suicides, school refusal, and an abstract approach to learning which devalues the practical application of skills and social and civic education. Official figures show that in 1995 bullying occurred in 8 284 elementary schools (34 per cent of the total), in 6 160 lower secondary schools (58 per cent of the total), and in 1 650 upper secondary schools (40 per cent of the total). The incidence of bullying is increasing in schools as is the incidence of school violence. In 1995, there were reported cases of violence at 1 460 lower secondary schools (14 per cent of the total) and 775 upper secondary schools (19 per cent of the total). In 1996, the prefectural and municipal authorities provided in-service teacher training related to bullying and school violence to 52 549 teachers.⁵ New in-service initiatives are directed towards opening schools to the community and the world of work and towards giving teachers experience outside school.

Change is usually gradual in Japan and is organised around the curriculum review which occurs every ten years. The last review in 1987 took a rather critical view of Japanese education and called for a radical change of teacher behaviour. Teachers were asked to engage students more in dialogue – especially in English lessons – and to concern themselves more with the moral and social development of individual students. The curriculum was reformed to allow a broader approach to subjects, especially at senior high school level. However, the competitive examinations for entrance to universities and senior high schools remain in place, as does the system of *juku* – private supplementary schools which place an enormous strain on students. Professional development is seen as the key to changing teacher behaviour and teaching methods and the new approach has been assimilated by administrators and teachers, at least at the rhetorical level. Crucially, the reform has received the backing of both teachers' associations and the employers' association, *Keidanren*. One new development has been the release of teachers to spend periods of time varying from a few days to three months or longer following training in commercial organisations.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN JAPAN

Teacher in-service development in Japan has a long history – dating back to the end of the Meiji era (1868-1912) and has always included a school-based

5. There are almost 1 million teachers and 17 million students in Japanese elementary and secondary schools.

dimension. Every prefecture and most municipalities have a teachers' centre and *Monbusho*, the prefectural authorities, and the municipalities support designated "action-research and development schools" which receive extra resources to carry out specific projects on which they must report at the end of the agreed period.

All schools have a professional development co-ordinator, usually nominated by the principal on a rotating basis among senior teachers. Teaching in Japan is regarded as a collaborative process and it is improved through collaboration. To promote it, for example, teachers of the same grade at elementary schools are routinely clustered in the staff room so that they may seek advice from each other. Teachers have desks in the staff room where they spend considerable time each day for work, meetings and consultations as well as for socialisation. Peer planning and collaboration are equally important at the middle school level, but middle school teachers spend less time on teacher development within the school.

Monbusho provides financial support to each prefectural and designated city board of education for several types of training seminars in which teachers are required to participate. Such training seminars include: i) induction training which is mandatory by law and consists of 30 days out-of-school training and 60 days in-school training; ii) mandatory training for teachers with five years experience which consists of seven days training; and iii) mandatory training for nine days for teachers with 10-20 years experience.

Principals and vice-principals also have specific in-service courses, and, in most cases induction programmes, which are organised by the education authorities. All education authorities support long-term staff development at universities where teachers are seconded for periods of one or two years to follow Masters' programmes, although these programmes are coming under threat from budget cuts. Teachers also engage voluntarily in programmes organised independently of government sponsored courses.

Recently the employers' association, *Keidanren*, has begun to take an active role in promoting work and training experience for teachers in commercial organisations, in co-operation with *Monbusho* and the local authorities. The teachers' associations, once strongly opposed, now co-operate in some cases in such ventures.

Providers

The government offers a variety of in-service education programmes at its national-in-service education centres and prefectural and municipal education centres throughout the nation. There are various teacher training seminars other than mandatory programmes based on the participants' level of teaching experience or the administrative positions. These programmes which are organised by

the local board of education encompass specialised areas such as individual subjects or student guidance. In 1994, the number of such seminars given by the prefectural and municipal boards of education was 8 081.

The National Education Centre, which is located near Tokyo, functions as a staff college for the teaching profession. *Monbusho* uses it for important new initiatives and the Centre offers courses of training for substantial numbers of principals and newly appointed vice-principals, and for experienced teachers (defined as those with more than 10 years experience). All 47 prefectures are entitled to nominate personnel to attend these courses (see Case Study 1, p. 99).

Prefectures and municipalities tend to organise most in-service provision and decide the framework for which *Monbusho* provides a model scheme. Prefectural leaders attend *Monbusho* training and information sessions which they then use as a basis for their own courses for principals, vice-principals, experienced teachers (prospective administrators) and others. The most costly in-service programme offered by the government is the obligatory one-year internship for all newly appointed public school teachers. It requires full-time mentors and each teacher centre is responsible for organising out-of-school programmes for the beginners.

But, as an alternative to government-sponsored courses, Japanese teachers have developed numerous self-initiated, voluntary associations and circles to promote teaching. Self-initiated in-service education is not financed by national and prefectural governments, but teacher networks constitute substantial support in teachers' commitment to enhancing teaching (Shimahara, 1995).

Universities offer courses aimed at upgrading teachers' qualifications and preparing them for action research in schools. The Ministry of Education has encouraged the creation of graduate programmes since the late 1980s, but the universities' role in professional development is still limited. These courses are not always accessible to classroom teachers as they require full time enrolment, although increasing numbers of teachers are seconded full-time for one or two years to pursue their studies. Recognised courses under the Educational Personnel Certification Law are being introduced with the co-operation of prefectural boards of education and universities to enable teachers holding second class teaching certificates to acquire first class teaching certificates.

Form and content

Several types of in-service education are available to Japanese teachers – the most ubiquitous type of professional initiatives is in-house in-service education which is offered in virtually every school. A study promotion committee drafts a yearly study plan which is presented for discussions and suggestions. It generally consists of demonstration classes distributed throughout the year. These are observed by the entire staff and by an invited guest with expertise in the subject

field of the lesson – the main purpose is to enhance pedagogical knowledge and skills through peer review, critique, and collaboration. The classes are videotaped and appointed staff take detailed notes of their observations focusing on particular aspects of teaching.

Preparation for each demonstration class involves extensive peer participation lasting two to three months. At each grade level teachers are chosen to be observed on a rotational basis, and faculty of each grade group collaborate in helping those chosen teachers to prepare their lessons. After a demonstration, staff members meet to review their observations and critique the class. The invited guest observer makes critical comments on the class from the vantage point of his or her expertise. At the end of the academic year, records of demonstration classes are published in a school bulletin. These peer collaborative efforts are organised every year.

Closely related to the above are out-of-school programmes organised by subject area associations of teachers at both elementary and secondary levels, called *bukai*. For example, each city or ward has *bukai* in which each school is represented, and the *bukai* organises a study programme in each subject field. The *bukai* study programme is similar to the in-house programme in terms of lesson preparation, collaboration, review, and reflection-in-action.

The third type of in-service education is represented by other teacher networks. They regularly hold conferences and workshops and publish magazines sold at commercial bookstores to disseminate information about their innovative ideas and practices to teachers throughout the country. The Japanese Teachers' Union holds an annual study conference that attracts more participants than any other educational organisation in the country. However, the influence of the union has weakened in recent years.

The fourth type is also the biggest single programme – the beginning teacher programme, taken by 17 000 teachers in 1997 at a total cost of almost yen 56 billion. They receive individual guidance within schools from advisory teachers and others, and training covers the entire spectrum of a teacher's work, including aspects relating directly to children such as instruction; class management; understanding children; student guidance; extracurricular activities; the preparation and administration of records; and the management of physical education equipment. Out-of-school training includes lectures; seminars; skills practice at education centres; visits to other schools and social centres, industrial and commercial companies and outdoor centres. Residential workshops are held during the school holidays and 2 400 new teachers are selected from all over Japan for training courses designed to encourage communication among teachers from different regions and types of school and to foster a sense of mission in teachers.

Other government sponsored programmes enrol teachers at various career stages: beginning year, fifth year, tenth year, administrative level and so on. These programmes require targeted teachers to participate in in-service education for a varying number of days a year. Notwithstanding increasing government sponsorship and organisation these programmes rely to a considerable extent on peer resources.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

Beginning teachers have substantial release for training during their induction year: 30 days for out-of-school training and 60 days in-school. Three days of training are provided by several prefectures for new vice-principals and principals but there are no national standards for the length of training for them. However, they can also apply for longer courses provided by *Monbusho*. These longer courses are offered at the National Centre for teachers selected by local authorities and they are intended to have a cascade effect within their schools and local authorities. School-based training is supported by both *Monbusho* and local authorities. Designated schools for action-research and development can receive an extra full-time teacher for the period of their contract. All schools have an afternoon per week free for professional development. A small percentage of teachers is released for one or two years to study for Masters' degrees at universities.

No overall figures are available for the amount of state funds invested in professional development which is particularly hard to quantify in Japan given the extensive scale of in-house provision. Nor are figures easily available for the investment in time and money by the substantial number of teacher networks.

BENEFITS AND EVALUATION

The following example of how national initiatives can be taken up by prefectural and school levels concerns the programme for private sector training for teachers. The programme has received strong backing from *Monbusho* and the Confederation of Japanese Industries (*Keidenen*). In Chiba Prefecture, near Tokyo, the programme has been organised at several levels, for principals and vice-principals, and for experienced teachers.

For example, two teachers, both of whom had ten years teaching experience, participated in a three month placement in 1997 in a large hotel with an international clientele in Chiba. One was a teacher of English who acknowledged that she was obliged to rethink her approach to language teaching following her experiences in the hotel. The other participant, a teacher for handicapped children, was trained to deal with families of handicapped who were staying at the hotel and

who were visiting the nearby Disneyland. Both teachers remarked on the attention given to individual needs and to personal relationships. Both became convinced that teachers should have wider social experience before entering teaching. The hotel also trained students from the local vocational colleges alongside its employees and the hotel indicated that the seconded teachers were a resource for them. The seconded teachers learned how to deal with people as clients and sometimes they acted as unofficial counsellors to the students and to younger trainee employees. Not all the teachers, however, who took part in the workplacement scheme adapted as readily to their new circumstances.

At another school in Chiba – this time a junior high school – six teachers had spent short periods in workplacements and one teacher had taken a longer course. One teacher had also been seconded to the United States to take a research-based study. These programmes received national, prefectural, and private financial support. One teacher had spent several weeks at the Sheraton Bay Hotel following its normal training programme alongside the firm's own employees. She contrasted favourably the hotel training with the initial training she had received for teaching. In her words, it was more intensive but less top-down, more individualised and supportive; there was a positive insistence on the value of the individual. The focus was on the acquisition of skills, but also on human relations and communication. The atmosphere was more open and international. The school principal commented that this teacher now had a wider perspective and was much better at inter-personal relations. After her return from the hotel training, the teacher had addressed the whole staff on issues such as liaising with parents, counselling students, and organisation and planning of work.

The first Case Study develops this theme with a description of the growing involvement of the main employers' association in work placement schemes for teachers while the second Case Study 2 reviews the work of the National Education Centre.

CASE STUDY 1

WORK EXPERIENCE FOR TEACHERS IN PRIVATE COMPANIES

In 1995, *Keidanren* – the Japanese employers' association – initiated a wide-ranging consultation and reflection on the subject of Japan's needs in the next century, which led to the publication of its *Vision for 2020*. As part of this exercise an *Action Agenda for Reform in Education and Corporate Conduct* was published in 1996. Both of these documents are critical of the lack of individuality and creativity in Japanese education and society and they lay blame on the competitive examination system as well as corporate recruitment procedures.

The key failing of education today is the fact that students are taught to learn the methodology of solving problems as a form of knowledge that must be memorised. No importance is placed on development of skills that are indispensable for nurturing creativity.

The Action Agenda goes on to state that:

Creative individuals cannot readily be nurtured by a uniformly standardised education system.

The main recommendations of the Agenda were incorporated into *Keidanren's* Policy Agenda:

- construct a multi-peak education system to meet diverse needs;
- provide creative education to groom next-generation leaders;
- introduce personnel management systems that stimulate the individual's motivation and abilities;
- provide children with a variety of experiences to give them an appreciation of work and a sense of participation in the community and to bring them into contact with nature.

The action agenda is linked explicitly to teachers' professional development:

If we are to facilitate the development of creative children it is essential that we first enhance the creativity of their teachers.

Keidanren had already initiated a programme of support for in-service experience in the corporate sector. This programme has been greatly expanded over the last three years. The main programme gives over 500 teachers a three-day attachment to one of over sixty participating companies in the summer holidays. The programme is administered jointly with the Japan Teachers' Union (JTU) which used to be the most anti-capitalist union. The JTU's statement of aims for the programme stresses teachers' experience:

The purpose of this programme is to provide school teachers with opportunities to learn, in an actual business setting, the way of thinking and the practices of Japanese corporate business, as well as learning about various industrial fields through on-the-job experience.

Keidanren provides a budget of yen 1 billion for the project and is promising more. This is mostly used to cover teachers' expenses. In 1998, it is planned additionally to provide a one-day course for 1 400 teachers in Tokyo who have more than ten years experience. There are numerous other courses lasting from a month to a year for different categories of teachers and leaders. Over 20 prefectures now have plans to provide such experience for their teachers. Companies have so far been eager to join the scheme.

Both the teachers and the companies evaluate the experience and teachers are traced a year later and asked for their reactions. The response has been good – though both sides report something of a culture shock – and many teachers

ask to repeat the experience. Those teachers and principals interviewed who had experience of the project confirmed that it had the effect of broadening teachers' perspectives and making them more confident in communication with parents and students. The teachers were particularly impressed by the focus on individual needs in company training systems and by the attention to customers' particular requirements. In retrospect, several were critical of aspects of their initial teacher training which they found by contrast too abstract and top-down.

CASE STUDY 2

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION CENTRE

The Centre was established in 1964 "to contribute to the national enhancement of education in Japan". It has a facility in Tokyo which can be used for media presentations, and a small campus in the suburbs of Tokyo. It also has a large modern campus in the university town of Tsukuba, about 75 kilometres from Tokyo where over 300 participants can be accommodated for residential courses lasting from a few days to three months. The Tsukuba campus is superbly equipped with a multi-purpose lecture hall, three conference rooms, seminar rooms, a computer laboratory with advanced facilities for 50 participants, a library and computer study rooms as well as social facilities which include a swimming pool, gymnasium, baseball field, tennis courts and excellent dining rooms. The priorities of the Centre are set by *Monbusho* although it is operationally independent.

In 1994, nearly 11 000 teachers and administrators participated in courses at the Centre and the total has grown since then. The most important courses offered are those for principals and vice-principals (200 participants at a time for 22 days' residential course), and those for experienced teachers having at least 10 years' experience (250 participants, 36 days, residential). Both of these are offered four times per year. These courses have similar structures, with input from invited expert speakers and resident staff making up roughly 60 per cent of the total time, 30 per cent for group discussion and action-research, and 10 per cent for field work and visits. The Centre is moving away from expert input towards a more participatory approach.

The Centre also offers a two-day course for newly appointed vice-principals, five times per year. In 1994, a total of 3 541 vice-principals followed this course, over half of all those appointed that year. Other important initiatives are intensive courses aimed at enhancing the use of information technology for science and technology school leaders, and for mathematics leaders as well as intensive oral English courses for English faculty leaders.

Competition for places is severe so places are allocated to prefectures who choose candidates on their own criteria. In practice, many seem to be outstanding

teachers who are expected to disseminate what they have learned within their own schools or regions. Quite a number come from schools that are designated action-research schools by *Monbusho*.

The Centre has a small staff which includes eight advisory teachers – who act as co-ordinators for the courses – as well as administrative and support staff. Most of the specialist teaching is done by invited experts from all over Japan. It publishes brochures and makes its services and data bases available by CD-ROM and Internet.

COMMENTARY ON TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN JAPAN

Japan has made great strides economically helped by a uniformity in schooling and the emphasis on student achievement. But now Japanese society and its education system are at a cross road and some observers say that a new paradigm is needed to replace the ideology that served the country during the 1970s and 1980s (Shimahara, 1997b). Increasingly the emphasis is on promoting diversity of school types and catering for the individualism of students.

Despite some shift in thinking the educational system as a whole is still highly centralised, coherent and comprehensive. Policy is still centrally determined and is implemented within a tightly organised framework in which central in-service institutions play a strategic role.

As we have seen, however, there has been a vigorous growth in in-service provision as an alternative to the official programmes. There has also been a long tradition of school-based teacher development embedded in a context in which peer teachers are committed to creating and regenerating craft knowledge of teaching. The long courses provided by universities may sometimes offer a different perspective but in practice they are dependent on central and local authority funds to second teachers and their role is still limited.

The top-down organisation is effective in delivering high standards of student performance in a very competitive educational environment. The induction programme for beginning teachers is a good example of how efficient this approach can be. Similarly, the initiative designed to open schools up to the outside world is beginning to bear fruit. However, the 1987 reform programme stressed the need to reduce competition, promote team work and focus more on individual students' needs. Creativity and more autonomous student learning were picked out as objectives. Bullying and school refusal were identified as negative consequences of an over-competitive school environment and a narrow curriculum. This analysis is widely accepted within and outside the teaching profession, but these new objectives do not respond easily to centralised planning.

The centralised and hierarchical system of teacher development whereby *Monbusho*, together with other central government agencies and in consultation with the local authorities, sets the framework for implementation of policies at central, prefectural and municipal, and school levels has many advantages over decentralised systems, especially in terms of equity and effective implementation. The difficult task now facing Japan is to retain these advantages while freeing up the system sufficiently to enable individuality and creativity to expand as features of teacher and school development. The universities could play a much greater role in this area of professional development as well as in initial teacher preparation.

LUXEMBOURG: OVERCOMING RIGIDITIES

OVERVIEW

The concept of teacher development has been institutionalised in Luxembourg only in the last decade or so. Until the early 1980s in-service training was essentially an individual matter for teachers who chose to improve their qualifications. In 1983, the government introduced a scheme whereby primary teachers who follow a minimum of 120 hours of in-service courses are entitled to a higher level of salary. This has stimulated enrolment for in-service courses among primary school teachers. No such scheme exists for secondary teachers but there has also been a growth and diversification of courses at that level. In particular, in the mid-1980s the need to equip secondary teachers to use information technology (IT) in their teaching led the government to develop a range of cross-disciplinary IT initiatives which have been the model for subsequent secondary in-service courses.

The lack of a full university cycle in Luxembourg means that secondary teachers have pursued their own higher education mostly outside the country. It also means that much of the research and development on which new initiatives are based comes from other countries, mainly France, Germany and Belgium. There is a university centre in Luxembourg which has a small department of education but it is concerned mainly with the initial training of secondary teachers. By contrast there is a primary teacher training and research institute which serves as a focus for all professional development at primary and pre-school levels. This may explain why professional development is more advanced at primary than at secondary level. Conscious of the need to stimulate new approaches to school, teacher and curriculum development at secondary level, the Ministry of Education set up the *Service de coordination de la recherche et de l'innovation pédagogiques et technologiques* (SCRIPT) in 1993 as a co-ordinating body of educational research with a brief to develop new in-service activities in support of government policies. Over the last four years SCRIPT has broadened the range of secondary in-service courses and moved the focus away from subject knowledge towards whole school issues and national initiatives.

A further handicap to the development of a coherent national policy for professional development is the rather rigid compartmentalisation of the education system between primary and secondary, and between secondary, secondary technical, and the modular courses of the *régime préparatoire*. At secondary level, teachers' qualifications are highly specialised and the teachers sometimes see themselves more as specialists on the university model than as part of a school team. These divisions are accompanied by different teaching qualifications which bring different status for the teachers. National priorities increasingly are addressed to pupils, parents, schools and teachers without particular regard for these divisions but some of the reluctance of secondary teachers to involve themselves fully in professional development comes from a traditional subject based perception of themselves. In this regard, the government's reform of the secondary transfer arrangements is significant because the substitution of a system of parent and pupil counselling and guidance for a selection examination is bringing primary and secondary teachers together in a new way and revealing new professional development needs.

The government's encouragement of school plans at secondary level is also bringing teachers and, in some cases, schools together to prepare joint activities, many of which have a professional development dimension. Networks of teachers concerned with general pedagogical issues or cross-disciplinary matters rather than subject teaching receive government support and are beginning to make an impact. At secondary technical level the need to rethink links with industry and to develop new forms of vocational training is stimulating new initiatives. All of these developments correspond to government policy to decentralise the preparation and provision of in-service, giving the Ministry of Education and its agencies space to develop a strategic planning, quality control and evaluation role. These ideas for national strategy and quality evaluation do not yet permeate the system as a whole nor give it the degree of coherence required but great progress has been made in the last decade. Bringing together the currently separate primary and secondary institutions into a single institution for educational research and development and teacher training would aid these national priorities greatly.

THE CONTEXT

There are a number of unique features of Luxembourg and its educational system which have influenced the shape and development of teacher development policies:

- The small size of the country means that ministers and senior officials know most of the schools and key individuals personally and that most schools are represented on government working parties, for example on curriculum development.

- The educational system is highly centralised on the traditional French model, but the effects are mitigated by the close personal relations noted above.
- The country's position, between Belgium, France and Germany, has made it an important centre for European Union activities and international commercial developments, especially in banking. About 58 000 foreigners, mainly French and Belgians, commute into the country daily to work. This has intensified the linguistic complexity of Luxembourg's social and institutional arrangements.
- Teaching occurs in three languages – Luxembourgian, German and French – and all students study English as a foreign language. Many children of immigrant parents speak, and sometimes study their mother tongue at school. As they make up over a third of Luxembourg's school population, this adds considerably to the country's linguistic diversity.
- There is no complete university cycle in the country, so all graduate secondary teachers have taken at least part of their degrees abroad, mainly in France, Germany and Belgium. (There is a primary teacher education institution) This accentuates the international outlook of teachers and administrators which is enhanced further by the frequent recourse to foreign experts to advise on innovations and professional development.
- There is a sharp distinction between primary and secondary education, highlighted by the difference in teacher education noted above. Primary and secondary teachers rarely meet professionally and they have different status within society. This separation influences teachers' professional development although efforts are being made to overcome it.
- Primary in-service courses are relatively well developed and focused on the *Institut supérieur d'études et de recherches pédagogiques* (ISERP) which is also responsible for initial training. This gives a coherence and continuity across the stages of primary teachers' professional development. However, the offer of training courses largely depends on the interests of the trainers of the ISERP and national priorities are only partially taken into account.
- Secondary in-service courses are co-ordinated by SCRIPT which was founded in 1993. Cross-disciplinary in-service courses for secondary teachers only began to appear in the mid-1980s with the need to develop teachers' information technology skills. They have developed more substantially since 1990. The traditional pattern of individual subject discipline-based development remains strong and is articulated by the professional associations which offer subject-focused courses.
- The absence of a teacher-trainer institution at the secondary level of the ISERP is a handicap to the development of educational research and

development with a general secondary focus. The existing Department of Education at the University Centre is small and concerned only with the initial training of secondary teachers.

- Government policy has put increasing emphasis on in-service courses as a means of stimulating and disseminating innovation and in order to equip teachers to meet new challenges. This is occurring in a context where the traditional structure of schooling in Luxembourg has been put under strain by the effects of immigration and social change.

POLICY INFLUENCES

Educational reform has not been revolutionary in Luxembourg and traditional patterns of institutional organisation, curriculum and assessment, and teacher education and training are still largely in place. What has changed is the understanding within the government, the Ministry of Education and its agencies and, to a lesser extent, among teachers, of the future needs of the country and how the educational system must change in order to meet the new challenges. The evolving strategy requires more flexible structures and procedures and more decentralised administrative arrangements but above all it entails new approaches to the curriculum, to teaching and evaluating, and to communicating with parents and pupils.

There is an understanding among officials that changing teachers' perception of their role, especially at secondary level, is the key to achieving the necessary changes and that this can be attained only by professional development which accompanies the reforms. It is also clear that the school is becoming an important unit for designing and implementing professional development activities within this national strategy. However, not all the essential elements for achieving change are yet in place and there are some formidable barriers to overcome.

There has been a movement away from in-service training for individual teachers towards policy-focused and school-based professional development but the concepts of individual initiative and distinctive status remain strong. There are three strands of in-service provision: national priorities; school plans; and individual self-improvement. There are also developing networks of teachers and schools, especially in the field of information technology, which cut across these categories and often receive financial and other support from the Ministry of Education. Language development at primary level and preparation for the new arrangements for transfer to secondary schools are currently national priorities, following the abolition of the entrance examination. secondary schools are encouraged to develop *projets d'établissement* (school plans) which are focused on whole school needs. This fits well with government policy to decentralise teacher

development to the local and school levels and to focus centrally on national priorities and quality control.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN LUXEMBOURG

The notion of teacher development as a matter of policy rather than individual initiative is relatively new in Luxembourg and still not commonly accepted by teachers and local authorities at secondary level. It is difficult to generalise across the system because it is rather rigidly compartmentalised into primary, secondary, and secondary technical sections. The status distinctions within the teaching profession reflect these categories. Within the secondary technical section there are further sharp distinctions between teachers from “craft” and “engineering” backgrounds and between both of these and the teachers within this section who are qualified to teach in the “classical” secondary section. Attempts to develop policies for teacher development that focus on the needs of pupils or institutions or the system as a whole sometimes come up against these status barriers. Nevertheless, the Ministry of Education has put in place a network of institutions and courses which has been successful in achieving some specific policy aims.

Providers

Since 1983, pre-school and primary professional training has been provided mainly by the ISERP which is also in charge of initial teacher education and training at primary level. The institute offers a very substantial range of courses aimed at deepening teachers’ knowledge and theoretical understanding (*perfectionnement*). Completion of these latter courses leads to an accelerated advance along the pay scale which can add LF 5-6 000 (approximately £100) per month to a teacher’s salary. The vast majority of young teachers enrol soon after qualifying and they comprise a third of all enrolments on these courses. The institute and the SCRIPT co-operate to take into account national priorities, especially in order to improve the teaching practice of teachers.

At secondary level there is no equivalent of ISERP. Since 1993, the *Service de coordination de la recherche et de l’innovation pédagogiques et technologiques*. SCRIPT has been the coordination body of the ministry of education for educational research and development. The traditional in-service courses have been subject discipline-based and often organised by the teachers’ associations within subject groups. In the 1980s, the introduction of information technology into secondary teaching across all disciplines led the ministry to begin to organise courses for secondary teachers on a larger scale. These were often organised by seconded teachers with assistance from foreign experts and European networks of teachers. Since 1993, a wider range of cross-disciplinary courses has been offered by SCRIPT and further national priorities, such as the need to prepare secondary

teachers for the new system of transfer to secondary schools, have appeared. The introduction of school plans has also led some schools to organise their own in-service programmes, with the support of SCRIPT.

Form and content

The content of in-service courses is grouped around the three strands noted above. Some courses are aimed at the development of the individual teacher in a specialist area at both primary and secondary levels. At pre-school and primary level these are referred to as *activités de perfectionnement* and teachers have strong financial incentives to follow enough of these courses to gain the *certificat de perfectionnement*. At primary level the focus is on didactics rather than subject knowledge. Some courses increasingly aim to follow the priorities set out by the Ministry of Education (ref. *Courrier de l'éducation nationale*) which are:

- innovative approaches to developing independent learning and school-parent communication;
- the use of information technology for communication and its integration into learning activities;
- managing difficult classroom situations;
- the language development of immigrant children;
- the integration of children with special needs; and
- communication with parents about the new arrangements for secondary transfer.

The co-operation between the ISERP and the SCRIPT intends to foster exchanges of experience among teachers about their pedagogical practice and to encourage them to analyse and reflect on their experience.

At secondary level, courses aimed at deepening the subject knowledge or improving didactical practice of individual teachers are generally organised by the teachers' associations or by the national curriculum subject planning groups. Science, languages, physical and religious education figured prominently in 1996-97, as did courses for librarians. However, secondary teachers have no financial incentives to follow these courses and they do not receive strong emphasis in the SCRIPT literature which focuses instead on national priorities which are cross-disciplinary and whole school or whole system issues. Courses aimed at individual teachers are supported by SCRIPT only if they contribute to more general professional development and are in line with national priorities. If they do, teachers may benefit from a "development-credit" of 20 teaching lessons.

Specific innovative projects concern the design and implementation of new upper secondary curricula. A number of cross-disciplinary courses are offered in the areas of information technology, health and environmental education, student

counselling, links with industry, team teaching for projects training for communication, the new emphasis on oral work, and the transition from primary education to secondary schools. The development of school-level professional training is reinforced by support for school plans and “pedagogical days” which schools can organise for teachers and parents on educational themes of their choosing.

The development of new curricula for French, German and mathematics has led to the organisation of meetings between teachers from primary, secondary and secondary technical schools to discuss common concerns. The new arrangements for secondary transfer also involve primary and secondary teachers meeting together to counsel parents and pupils. Government support for teachers involved in these developments takes the form of organising “pedagogical days” at regional and local levels and encouraging local collaborative ventures.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

There is no nationally defined established number of days for professional development but teachers have a training credit (*crédit formation*) of 40 hours for in-service courses for which they can claim release from teaching. However, in most cases release from teaching is not possible and teachers change the timing of their lessons and are reimbursed for their participation.

The total budget for teachers’ professional development is estimated at around 2 per cent of the overall educational budget although no precise figure is available. Teachers have release from teaching for approved courses or are compensated for attendance up to a limit of 40 hours. Specific funding from the centre is directed to providing courses relating to national priorities and “pedagogical days” on important locally or nationally determined issues. Several teachers are on full-time secondment to the ministry and its agencies to develop new initiatives. Schools receive a supplementary budget for school plans.

BENEFITS AND EVALUATION

The first case study is an example of good outcomes from the professional development policy pursued over the last decade or so. As the developments in literacy teaching at pre-primary and early primary levels show, professional development has entered the culture of many primary teachers who share best practice and are eager to learn about developments elsewhere. Pupils in the schools involved are more assured in their oral and written communication and use IT confidently in composition. At secondary level also, the use of IT in a range of subjects has increased as a result of in-service activities in this area. The rethinking of workplacements in secondary technical education has benefited from the co-operation between teachers and some major enterprises and there

has been an incidental mutual benefit from comparison of training approaches in schools and industry.

In addition to these specific cases, the emphasis on decentralisation and co-operation and networking among teachers is beginning to produce a new professional culture, especially at primary level. The policy of encouraging school plans is also beginning to break down the barriers within secondary education.

CASE STUDY 1

DECOLAP/DECOPRIM

Since 1995, DECOLAP – for pre-school – and September 1996, DECOPRIM – for early primary – have been operating as action-research projects in which a group of about 20 teachers has co-operated to improve standards of literacy in the early years. It is led by an expert from the Ministry of Education (SCRIPT) and is able to call on experts from ISERP and from other countries, notably the United Kingdom which the group visited to see good practice in language work. The starting point for DECOLAP was the need to tackle the problems arising from the poor grasp of Luxembourgian manifested by the substantial numbers of immigrant children. Many of them were seriously handicapped in the subsequent use of written and spoken German which is the principal language of education at primary level. The focus of these projects was later widened to embrace the language development of all children.

The teachers meet outside school hours. They analyse their practice using documents which they collected in their own classes and are introduced to the relevant research findings (in three languages) which they can later apply to their own teaching and compare findings. The identification of good practice was one major objective which was achieved in the first year. The project has now moved to the first two years of primary school (DECOPRIM) and new teachers have joined the group. The scope of the project has been widened to include the communicative competence in the three languages used in primary education. The objective is to apply the principles of good practice identified during the first stage to the wider language issues raised in primary schooling in Luxembourg.

Pupils seen in one primary school where the teacher has been an active member of the action-research from the outset, were very confident in oral communication in Luxembourgian and were already reading and writing in both German and French. Two of the pupils were from French-speaking backgrounds and one of these had arrived at the school speaking no Luxembourgian; he was being helped by the other French-speaking pupil to read a German-language reader. In turn, these two pupils were used as a resource in French lessons. Pupils were able to work on their own with an interactive computer, recording a story (in Luxembourgian) which was “told back” to them by the computer. The teacher was

able to use the multi-lingual environment to stimulate the children's language awareness.

CASE STUDY 2

SELF, A PROJECT ON AUTONOMOUS LEARNING IN TECHNICAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

This project started in 1990, at a time when labour needs were regressing in the steel industry, with co-operation between the Luxembourg steel company ARBED and the teachers of the technical secondary school of Esch/Alzette. The common models of vocational training have been questioned for some years by European companies like Volvo and Siemens which developed their own training methods. The steering group of the SELF project was interested in the methods developed by Siemens and adapted the methodology to the Luxembourg context of technical secondary schools.

The major principle governing this approach is the development of key-competencies by active learning to foster learners reflectivity and autonomy. This methodology is applied to both pupils and teachers of technical secondary schools.

Since the beginning, the project aimed at reaching a public of 200 teachers (*i.e.* a third of the engineer-teachers of Luxembourg), at increasing the awareness of head-teachers and, generally at widening the perspective of teaching.

As the adopted process was new in the Luxembourg context, the SELF project had to apply external trainers of the private sector. The first seminars took place in a specialised training centre in Germany, giving thus the opportunity to reflect on the participants traditional practice with greater detachment. Since 1992-93, the project developed its own teacher-training system, progressively reducing the costs.

If we consider the participation of teachers coming from many different schools, of head-teachers and also of teachers specialised in subjects like biology, physics and French, we can come to the conclusion that the SELF methodology has been successfully disseminated. At present, this methodology is part of the initial training of teachers and as the competencies have been developed by a sufficient number of disseminators, the project is reaching its end.

COMMENTARY ON TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN LUXEMBOURG

Teachers have high status in Luxembourg and the quality of education is good. Professional development of teachers as a policy is a relatively new concept in Luxembourg but it has acquired considerable importance in the last

decade as radical changes in society and the economy have begun to affect the schools. Responding to these challenges, the government set up central agencies to promote research and professional development and to disseminate new approaches. More recently, changes in the organisation of the curriculum and of primary-secondary transfer, in both cases designed to reduce the incidence of school failure, have led the government to take more initiatives in teacher development.

At the same time there is an official desire to devolve the planning and implementation of in-service activities down to school level. School plans are one way of achieving this; encouraging teacher networks on the model of the successful working group of teachers using IT is another. Action-research, in which teachers participate in seminars with academic experts and officials and compare results in their practice, has begun to change teaching methods in early primary classes. This approach is easier to promote at primary level because of the existence of an institution (ISERP) which is able to bring research, initial and in-service training together and to offer support for participating teachers.

A number of institutional and cultural rigidities make this harder to achieve at secondary level, as does the absence of a national institution devoted to educational research and development at secondary level. The SCRIPT has achieved much in organising and supporting professional development and in changing attitudes but it has many obstacles to overcome. Some schools have responded eagerly to the national initiatives and are developing a professional development culture but some staff are resistant to any attempt to encroach on their professional autonomy which in traditional secondary schools is based on subject specialisms. Secondary teachers who generally acquired their higher education outside the country and then underwent a lengthy initial professional training are accustomed to considering themselves as specialists who are responsible for their own development. The creation of a whole school approach is not always easy to reconcile with this tradition.

At the present stage, the initiative for further development is coming mainly from government reforms which require changes in pedagogical practice and teacher behaviour. Evaluation is not strongly developed either at central or school level but key officials are aware of the need to build quality control and feedback procedures into professional development.

SWEDEN: DECENTRALISING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

OVERVIEW

The Swedish education system has been undergoing a very rapid series of changes throughout the nineties. These reforms include decentralisation, a new national curriculum that has to be adapted to local circumstances, a new marking scheme, and a requirement that schools prepare development plans. The state sets the goals, issues guidelines and evaluates the results, while the municipalities run and evaluate the local system. Instead of steering the school system by nationally defined and clearly set out rules, there is steering by goals which are broad based. This implies a move from an emphasis on teaching to one of creating a learning environment for students. It allows greater freedom and flexibility to schools and to teachers but it necessitates a shift in thinking not only by teachers but by school leaders, students and parents.

The changes are taking place alongside cutbacks in public spending since the early nineties. The scale of the cutbacks is still relatively new to a country used to high levels of investment in the social services, especially education. These cutbacks particularly affect the municipal authorities, the new employers of the teachers who previously enjoyed the status of civil servants. The schools must, in effect, compete with other services such as health, sanitation, etc., for their share of the local municipal budget.

In the 1950s, Sweden introduced five annual “study days” for its teachers, becoming the first European country to do so, and for the following three decades earmarked funds were provided annually from the central authority. These study days remain but the time frame for what is now referred to as “competence development” has been extended to at least 104 hours as a result of an agreement between the Swedish Association of Local Authorities and the Teachers’ Unions. The extended hours take place during the summer holidays.

School leaders have to take difficult decisions on how to spend their limited resources. Such decisions can come down to a dilemma over whether to purchase

new textbooks or opt for some attractive but expensive in-service programme. In some cases, quality may be sacrificed for a cheaper course. The result of the cutbacks is that in many of the 288 municipalities or *Kommuns* there is less money spent now on in-service courses than there was in 1990.

There is a general acceptance that the old system of five study days had become too institutionalised. The cutbacks, combined with the school reforms, provide an opportunity and an incentive for schools to look at innovative ways of making the best use of their limited resources.

THE CONTEXT

Several changes in the education system and in society at large are having a significant impact on the development of in-service training and professional development for Swedish teachers. The most significant are:

- *Social changes.* Sweden is particularly conscious that the demands of the information society have to be addressed through schools and therefore through preparation of teachers. The schools also have to cope with an increasingly diverse student intake. As unemployment has risen during the past few years, more and more young people who might otherwise have left the system have remained in schools. Their presence poses new challenges for teachers to provide stimulating learning environments. At the same time the percentage of children of immigrants has risen to about 12 per cent nationally although in some schools in the large cities the figure is more than 50 per cent. Equality of opportunity for all pupils remains the one constant goal in the welter of change.
- *Decentralisation.* The policy began in the early eighties but has been accelerating in the nineties. At the local level the politicians and management staff, including teachers, are obliged to transfer the national goals to a written curriculum: they must enforce the plan, follow up and evaluate their own work. Teachers have become employees of the local municipal authority which receives all central government subsidies and grants in a lump sum for schools, social policies, libraries, child care, etc. The pay of teachers and heads has become, to some extent, exposed to market forces and, in future, heads will be able to supplement the salaries of individual teachers in accordance with whatever criteria they devise.

Under the old system there was a top-down approach to in-service training with the National Board of Education suggesting appropriate themes which the universities or other providers would then offer to the schools. The board has been replaced by the National Agency for Education (*Skolverket*) which has responsibility for monitoring and evaluation and which “steers” in-service training for

teachers with a much lighter touch. The agency has far fewer staff in Stockholm and in the regions than was the case with the old board:

- *Curricular reforms.* Subject content is no longer specified centrally – in other words the new curriculum is directed towards goals and results whereas the former curriculum set down rules and regulations for schools. Now school heads and teachers have to transform the national curriculum and national development plans into local plans suited to their own school and to their own pupils. The reforms are school based rather than teacher based which, as noted earlier, differs from traditional practice. They must review their beliefs about schools and examine their roles as teachers and their classroom practice (Smith, 1993).
- *New marking scheme.* Swedish schools rely heavily on continuous assessment of pupils. There has been a move away from norm-referenced tests, where the results are given in rank order with a pre-ordained percentage gaining a particular level, to criterion-referenced tests which determine whether candidates have met the particular criteria assigned to the individual task. It is the school's responsibility to ensure that pupils who are doing badly in optional diagnostic tests are given the resources to help them catch up. The pupils' right to this supplementary teaching assistance flows from the acceptance of the principle of equality of opportunity.

POLICY INFLUENCES

The orientation of in-service training and professional development is largely influenced by who takes the decisions and that can vary considerably from one municipal authority to another. In theory, there has been a switch from a top-down to a bottom-up approach but in practice it does not always work out that way. In some cases, the municipalities decide that they want all their teachers to engage in a particular programme with a university for two or three years. In others, there are discussions between the municipalities and the school leaders or the decision is left to the school head and/or the teachers. Much depends on the priority given locally to in-service training and professional development.

In the beginning, the National Agency for Education (*Skolverket*) had a new and unclear role to play in the whole question of in-service training. The agency's mission is to help ensure that everyday schooling is kept in line with the objectives of national educational policy. This task becomes more complicated if the principle of decentralising decision-making is taken to its ultimate conclusion and the municipalities are given all the funds and responsibility for in-service training and staff development. However, the Education Ministry has continued to provide funds for in-service purposes to the agency which is still evolving its policy in this area.

In 1996, the agency invited proposals for whole school development and in-service training projects. The main themes for these projects were: the values of the new curriculum in practice; how to work with goals and results in schools; student influence; writing-reading development; media studies; international issues; and IT as part of instruction. Many schools submitted proposals and about 400 schools were invited to participate including a school at Hagsätra which will be reviewed in Case Study 1.

In 1997, the agency wrote to all schools, municipal authorities and universities inviting submissions for in-service partnership projects – more than 500 applications were received. This is a new way for the agency to manage its role in encouraging good in-service provision in a decentralised system. Priority areas include curricular reform; development of more flexible school organisations; science and technology; reading and writing development; media studies; follow-up and evaluation in schools locally; development of students' sense of responsibility; and international issues. Funding will be provided for regional resource centres where these partnership projects can be developed. There is no single model proposed for the regional centres but the need to avoid large bureaucracies is accepted.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN SWEDEN

Until the introduction of decentralisation and other reforms, the in-service provision in Swedish schools was clearly set out from year to year. The National Board of Education suggested themes such as the environment, quality, special education, etc., and the universities issued lengthy catalogues to the schools. To use a local analogy the schools picked from a *smörgåsbord* offered by the universities while the Board suggested some flavourings. Now, the ideal is that schools prepare their own menu in collaboration with the providers and this is happening in an increasing number of schools.

Progress, however, is uneven, and the need for a quicker pace of reform agreed upon by the Swedish Teachers' Union, the National Union of Teachers in Sweden, and the Swedish Association of Local Authorities, was acknowledged in a booklet entitled *On the Threshold of the 21st Century*. The publication, which is commonly referred to as "The Green Book", set out the general principles for transforming schools so that they would become models and a driving force for the learning society. The book itself was a consequence of the policy of decentralisation which resulted in the local authorities having responsibility, since 1991, for in-service training and teacher development. It stated that the existing system in which the content of training was often determined by the courses offered by colleges, or by rules for study days and further education during vacation, etc., must be abandoned. It said that planning talks between school leaders and

teachers, individually and collectively, should make clear what skills development was necessary for the individual teacher and the teaching team to improve the learning process of their students.

The curriculum changes were introduced initially at the upper secondary school level and, for a while, created considerable upheaval. Things are beginning to settle down but many educationists argue that the changes should have been introduced initially at primary level where teachers were already working in teams and focusing on the pupils' development rather than on the subjects. The main area for development now is in classes catering for the 12-15 year age group.

It is impossible to quantify how many schools have moved from the old method identified in the booklet to the new one recommended. Many schools use a combination of both while a growing number is using different strategies aimed at whole school development.

Providers

A glance at any of the main educational journals will show advertisements for a variety of courses covering topics as diverse as language; multiple intelligences; information technology; dyslexia; problem solving approaches; science; stress and aggression in schools; handicrafts; and leadership training. A large percentage of the advertisements relates to short courses, some of which are offered by private providers. Some are perceived as being of good quality and the short courses can still fill a gap for a school head who sees a study day looming for which there is little planning.

The main providers of short courses and longer programmes are the universities who compete not only amongst themselves but even within the institutions where departments are sometimes in competition with each other for in-service contracts.

Many of the university providers are keen on longer programmes aimed at whole school development. Their argument is that short courses are not suitable to the new school milieu. Longer programmes involve a bigger financial commitment than some schools may be willing to make. There is some evidence, however, that this type of course is more beneficial to the schools in the long run. Properly structured, such courses can also make use of information technology, a matter of some importance in a country with large sparsely populated areas and many relatively isolated schools and teachers.

Form and content

The success of the Swedish education reforms is predicated, to a large extent, on teachers taking ownership of the national goals and adapting them to

local circumstances. In terms of in-service training and professional development, this implies a paradigm shift from a top-down to a bottom-up approach. The government's thinking in this regard is underscored by devolving decisions about form, content, and spending on in-service training and professional development to local level. There are no longer earmarked funds for in-service training with one main exception which is the training of head teachers. Thus, it is possible to categorise in-service training and professional development for Swedish teachers under three broad headings.

Head teachers' training

Programmes for new heads are of two years duration on a part time basis. The programmes are related to the changes that are taking place. The pressures on school heads are immense and the reforms have to some extent diverted their attention away from their traditional pedagogical leadership role. For the new curriculum a number of demanding goals are formulated. These are:

- the head shall be able to see the school from a societal aspect;
- the head shall be able to analyse and clarify the national educational goals;
- the head shall know and understand the principles for the national and local management of the school system;
- the head shall be a leader of the pedagogical activities;
- the head shall be an instructional leader for the school's personnel;
- the head must have knowledge of child care and youth development, growing up and social conditions;
- the head shall be a leader for the evaluation within the particular school;
- the head shall have good ability to lead the pedagogical planning of the entire work (Carlson and Mellden, 1992).

The training of school leaders is obviously of great importance given the changes in the Swedish education system in recent years and is, accordingly, given a special status with responsibility shared between the central government, the municipalities and the Association of Local Authorities. Government subsidies are earmarked through the National Agency and the main part of the training is specified by central government but arranged and delivered by regional institutes of education or universities.

The central government has a dominant influence on the content of the programme and insists that the head teacher be an instructional leader in order to guarantee the national goals. However, as has been noted in a paper prepared by Ulf Linnell, this objective of training is often questioned at the local level. Such

parts as are administered to by the municipalities will probably focus more on local and practical issues like the allocation of resources, co-operation with nursery schools or other municipal departments etc. The training programme reflects the conflict between different interests (Linnell, 1996).

For the other teachers in-service ranges from traditional short courses to two year whole school development programmes run in co-operation with universities.

Traditional type courses

Short courses in areas such as information technology; meeting special needs; developing language skills; coping with difficult pupils; updating individual subjects, etc. are regularly provided. These are run by the universities and by private providers or specialist consultants. Swedish teachers are familiar with this type of course but the quality and long term benefits vary considerably. Some of the courses are based on newer theories of knowledge and learning but others adhere to tried and trusted formulaic approaches. An increasing number of schools put the five term study days together to form a study week. This provides better opportunities to engage with more complex content and should enhance quality.

Whole school development programmes

There is a movement towards long term courses, often of two years duration, run in conjunction with the universities. The emphasis is on giving teachers time for reflection and on their becoming aware of their learning process in parallel with meta learning i.e. when their pupils take greater responsibility for their own learning. This is done through different strategies such as the PEEL plan, or Project for Enhanced Effective Learning, an Australian approach that has done well in Sweden. About 100 schools participated in the project last year which involves teachers taking a "helicopter" view of their school, and then looking at various solutions to the problems. The teachers form discussion groups and meet regularly to discuss their own and their students' learning processes. Other schools use Problem Based Learning approaches (see Case Study 2) or are engaged with the universities in different forms of cognitive approaches to learning. The University of Uppsala follows up some partnership projects funded by the national agency which in turn uses the findings to further enhance school development.

Some programmes can take the form of action research for the universities which work with individual schools in helping teachers devise their own approaches to creating a learning environment for the pupils. The process

becomes very important but it takes time for the teachers to change their views and to integrate theory and practice into the life of their classrooms.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

The traditional five study days within the school year remain but the period for competence development or school development has been officially extended to 104 hours per year, with the extra hours made available during the holiday period. The study days are used in various ways, depending on local circumstances, including the pedagogic leadership shown by the school head or the demands of the municipal authority.

Prior to decentralisation, earmarked funds were set aside for in-service training for teachers but now it is up to the municipalities or in many cases the individual schools, to decide how much will be allocated to this activity. The result is a very uneven spread throughout the 288 *Kommuns* with varying amounts being spent, depending on local circumstances. In 1995, the average amount spent by the municipalities was SKr 6 300 per teacher which included salary costs.

The other main source is the national agency which pays for the two year training programmes for new head teachers that are run in conjunction with the universities and the municipal authorities. About 40 per cent of the agency's in-service money goes on this training for head teachers. The agency has also set aside funds for the development of the regional centres which will be used for in-service training for teachers.

In addition, the agency makes some money available for short-in-service courses for about 2 000 teachers annually. The scholarships are worth more than five million SKr a year in total and attract a substantial volume of applications which costs the agency a lot of time and money to process.

Although it steers in-service with a much lighter touch than its predecessor, the agency holds the view that it should not direct schools what to do. Understandably, heads and teachers who were used to a top-down approach to in-service training – and to virtually every other aspect of school life – were initially disappointed at being told to work out their own in-service requirements. This major cultural change is still working its way through the schools.

BENEFITS AND EVALUATION

Under the old system, research was used to create good models for teaching and these were disseminated among teachers on the assumption that there was a single approach towards meeting national requirements and creating equal opportunities.

Increasingly, many of the newer university linked programmes are aimed at stimulating teachers to reflect and act in their own teaching practice. In one study by Karin Rönnerman, teachers found that diary-writing was helpful in observing their own teaching practice and they also found the collaboration with a researcher helpful (Rönnerman, 1996). They used the individual diary-writing in three ways: 1) as a form of writing about individual children for follow-ups; as a 'ventilation' for thoughts; 2) as a base for discussions; and 3) in the classroom. To create possibilities for the reflective practitioner the teachers asked for time to organise and continue this work during the school day. This confirmed earlier studies by Rönnerman that showed that when teachers were allowed to formulate their own problems to identify problems, the development work continued and the teachers worked together in teams.

Rönnerman's work and other research at the University of Gothenburg by Mikael Alexandersson and others are creating a dialogue between the practitioners and researchers who are involved with the teachers as supervisors and counsellors. This new research agenda, which is anchored in the school practice and learning strategies, is of interest to many teachers who see their traditional role changing to that of learning counsellors. During the process they take ownership of their own in-service needs. Through reflection and critical thinking they relate theory to practice and become aware of their pupils' and their own learning processes with the assistance of university researchers. These action-research type programmes fit in well with the approach enunciated in the principles underlying the new curriculum but they are not without their academic critics who argue that research should be neutral.

Another programme called the One-Million project which started in the University of Linköping lasted for five years and involved more than 40 researchers and university teachers as well as more than 500 teachers in ten municipalities. The partnership project was aimed at facilitating and supporting the development of collective reflection as a way of empowering teachers and school leaders. It identified the need for schools to establish new structures for collaboration with "critical friends" aimed at improving their own capacity. It suggested that network and school-university consortia were ways of establishing new structures for such collaboration (Askling *et al.*, 1997).

The national agency is under pressure from the ministry to conduct more evaluations of the effects of the national curriculum and of in-service and professional development. This pressure to give "aggressive support" may seem at odds with the principles of decentralisation but the ministry wants to ascertain whether or not the national goals are being attained. The agency's evaluations of the curriculum are regarded as quite good but it argues that it is much more difficult to quantify the outcomes of in-service or professional development. Even if a definition of effective in-service training could be arrived at in the Swedish

context it would be hard to secure agreement on measurements of success or otherwise, given the broad goals set down by the government for the education system. The agency has, however, concluded that in order to organise successful in-service, the school head has to show firm leadership, encourage the staff to read the appropriate documents, sit down with them to make an inventory of needs, agree to the objectives of in-service training and then decide what provision is needed.

The case studies were chosen as good examples of the benefits of collaborative links between higher education institutions and schools in the professional development of teachers. They are not representative of the majority of Swedish schools but they do reflect the growing interest in longer programmes aimed at whole school development.

CASE STUDY 1

DISADVANTAGED SCHOOL MAKES PROGRESS

The Hagsätra compulsory school unit which is to the south of the capital has 625 primary and secondary school pupils and has been involved in whole school development for two years. It has been assisted by an enthusiastic facilitator from the Stockholm Institute of Education who was concerned at the lack of preparation for translating national plans into action. She believes that many teachers and heads still have not understood fully the decentralisation revolution that gives them freedom to decide the curriculum.

Before the Hagsätra project began she had spent some time with 20-25 heads in the area assisting them to understand the implications of the changes that the national policies entailed and in particular what was meant by the transfer of responsibilities to the local level. From this grew the project at Hagsätra, which is a disadvantaged area with about half of its pupils coming from immigrant backgrounds.

The focus of the project is on reading and writing, but in the context of the changes suggested by the national curriculum, where pupils are expected to take greater responsibility for their own learning. Every in-service session begins with a reminder that teachers are now responsible for their own work and that they are expected to create a learning environment in their classrooms. They are reminded that school development comes against a background of pressures on the one hand from parents and politicians and on the other hand from pupils' own needs. They must map out their own solutions and one way of achieving this is through problem solving exercises in which teachers are divided into groups. During these sessions each teacher nominates a particular teaching problem, with the group then deciding which one will be dealt with and discussing various strategies.

The teachers learn also to evaluate their own work and they are encouraged to use interview techniques with their pupils. Interviewing young pupils, especially boys, about their reading can be difficult at first but once mastered, provides useful feedback for the teacher.

The facilitator from the institute never has the participants work for more than six hours a day and she never arranges for more than two days theory/lessons consecutively as she wants to leave time for reflection before the next stage. Practical exercises are given to the teachers as a follow-up and these are deeply rooted in the classroom situation.

An indication of the success of the approach adapted by this school is that newly qualified teachers, who could obtain employment elsewhere want to work in this particular school, even though it is in a disadvantaged area. The success is helped by a number of factors such as the encouragement of the head and the skills of the facilitator. This is not to say that every teacher in the school is enthusiastic about being compelled to follow the programme. Some feel it an extra chore on top of all the other changes they have had to deal with in recent years. The majority, though, seem enthusiastic and use what they have learned to mediate their approach to teaching and learning.

CASE STUDY 2

PROBLEM BASED LEARNING

The University of Linköping is involved in a Problem Based Learning project with three school units in the surrounding area. The PBL seeks to encourage pupils to respond to topics through questions which they themselves ask. The teachers utilise some of the time available for in-service to become more familiar with the concepts involved. Groups of teachers meet together for “brainstorming” sessions with the university staff in attendance playing the role of interested observers, rather than guest lecturers.

The teachers who use PBL are free to devise their own approach with guidance from the university mentors. In one school, a drawing of an old castle prompted questions from a small pilot group of primary pupils relating to the reign of Gustav Vasa in the 16th century. They asked who lived in the castle and when; how many prisoners were there; how many windows were in the building; how was time measured, etc. The group then spent some time researching the topics in the library and elsewhere and responds through poems, drawings, songs, etc. The teacher, encouraged by their response and enthusiasm, decided to incorporate the approach into other elements of her school work.

In a rural school unit, six pupils were involved in a study of the European Union. The focus was on the family in the EU and their place, as a young boy or girl, growing up in Europe. The group asked questions about history, geography,

maths and other subjects. They learn practical lessons about currency exchange rates and convert Swedish money into other currencies. This group is fortunate as it is about to go on a subsidised visit to Brussels. It spends some time working out a detailed itinerary, looking up maps and timetables to plan its trip.

In the third school, a teacher starts with pictures from space, using appropriate music, and the questions flow in a brainstorming session among the pupils. They want to know how many suns there are; can you grow flowers in space; has Venus got a ring around it; how many stars there are, etc. Another teacher in the same school shows a film about Australia and this prompts a host of questions which the pupils decide to tackle in small groups.

In some respects, PBL is not that radically new for teachers in primary schools where the focus is already on the child and on working in teams. For primary teachers, at least, the title Problem Based Learning may be something of a misnomer as the approach to a particular topic can be seen as a challenge and opportunity rather than a problem. The starting point for this kind of work, however, is that it begins with what the students want to know rather than with what the teachers want to tell them. When introduced for the first time, it can be difficult to encourage young children to start asking relevant questions but once the process gets under way the teachers are often pleasantly surprised at the type of questions asked. There are no hard and fast rules although the working groups of pupils should not be so small as to make the brainstorming sessions and team work difficult to organise.

COMMENTARY ON TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN SWEDEN

There are still many teachers who prefer individual INSET rather than programmes aimed at the whole school. What many want is more of the same and this is understandable given the traditional reliance on individual based training. But there is a widening gap between such schools and the more progressive ones. The difficulties are compounded by the cutbacks, by the fact that teaching is a greying profession in Sweden and, in some cases, by the lack of pedagogic leadership from the heads who are too busy with their changed role. The universities are not always in the front-line either, because they are caught up in their own reforms and cutbacks. They have to find new forms of involvement with schools – this should also benefit pre-service training of teachers.

There is a strong case to be made for greater collaboration between the schools, the universities and the municipal authorities. Much will depend on the success of the regional in-service centres and it is essential that they evolve into flexible organisations that do not eat up limited resources through over-large bureaucracies.

From the individual teachers' standpoint there are difficulties in finding a balance between autonomous and external training. Teachers need a greater sense of ownership of the curriculum and, thus, of in-service training as an aid to creating a good learning environment for their pupils. The approach has to be, to some extent, individualised as there is no single strategy that works for all. Given the fact that a very high proportion of Swedish teachers is in the 40-50 age group, the issue of appropriate and tailored in-service provision becomes more urgent. The current reforms provide an opportunity for Swedish teachers to enhance their professionalism and to create learning societies in schools

SWITZERLAND: QUESTIONING TRADITION

OVERVIEW

The notion of “Swiss education” has to be judged in the context of a federal country that is divided into 26 cantons and that is also divided along language lines with three main cultural groups, *i.e.* German, French, and Italian-speaking. In effect, we are talking about 26 education systems.

The training of Swiss teachers and the provision of in-service education reflect these divisions. Most cantons train primary school teachers in traditional teacher training colleges (*Écoles normales*) directly upon completion of compulsory schooling. In some places, the degree is recognised as being equivalent to an upper secondary graduation degree, with the possibility of entering into university. In others, it is a professional teaching degree. Some cantons require candidates to complete upper secondary school, having passed the *Maturité*, followed by two or three years of university training in pedagogy, general cultural subject areas such as history, music, language, art and physical education.

Initial training for upper secondary school teachers is basically the same throughout the 26 cantons, comprising a university degree with one or two years of pedagogical training during the first years of teaching. In French-speaking Switzerland, lower secondary teachers also have university training; in the German speaking part of the country certain universities offer specialised training (didactics and academic) for lower secondary teachers. Vocational teachers are trained in a federal institution for professional training.

In-service teacher training was traditionally provided by the teacher associations such as the Swiss Association for School and Training and until the 1960s the cantons had no comprehensive concept of teachers’ professional development. In 1970, the Conference of Education Directors (equivalent to ministers of education) and a few cantons became involved with providing funding and staff for in-service. Today nearly all cantons have independent in-service systems, albeit with significant variations; smaller cantons tend to share in-service provision with other administrative functions while some of the larger cantons have

sophisticated institutional structures – Cantonal Centres – which in some cases include R&D departments.

In keeping with their historic origins, most cantonal in-service consisted for many years of providing training in curriculum subjects to experienced teachers by organising workshops of short sequences over a period of days usually with 15-30 participants. The objective of the workshops was to keep teachers up-to-date in their subject area; most teachers participated in one or two events per year. The goals of in-service training were either not defined or were poorly defined and there was no follow-up to courses.

The major part of in-service in Swiss cantons today resembles a catalogue of courses available to the “teachers-consumers” who are largely free to select as they wish. Choice often has very little to do with teachers’ abilities or weaknesses as in-service is not generally related to evaluation or assessment. However, school reforms and other pressures are beginning to limit the freedom of teachers to pick and choose in-service courses as they have done in the past. Training normally occurs during the school term which means that certain types of programmes such as intensive training, long-term courses, sequential training during instruction time or joint training initiatives involving several schools are difficult to organise. Courses taking two or more days are affected by the supply of substitute teachers, but a considerable proportion of in-service training is conducted in the evenings or on free afternoons during term.

THE CONTEXT

Confidence in teacher quality as well as in teaching of subject areas goes more or less without question. The education system is planned to accord with the economy of the country and it is an accepted fact that only 32 per cent of students should attain the *Maturité* examination (equivalent to the *Baccalauréat*) if it is to retain its value. Students who have reached this level are accepted into all university courses including law, medicine, etc., without any further competitive exams. The vocational training and apprenticeship system is also highly developed and takes in many of those students choosing non-academic streams. Despite this confidence in the efficiency of the education system, there is widespread agreement about the need to change both schooling and in-service development.

The evolution of in-service teacher training in Switzerland today should be seen in the context of an ever increasing questioning, from the mid-1970s, of the “effectiveness” of traditional offerings. After ten years of experience with state-run in-service courses, some exponents began to wonder whether training entirely geared to the individual had any benefits for the education system as a whole. It

was also unknown to what extent teachers were avoiding all institutionalised training. In response, a number of cantons decided to regulate in-service training, mandating teachers to devote a certain percentage of their working hours to training (in the canton of Bern 5 per cent). The principal umbrella organisation for Swiss teachers (*Lehrerinnen und Lehrer Schweiz* – LCH) officially accepted the 5 per cent mark and declared that in-service teacher training was both an entitlement and an obligation.

In 1988, the Conference of Education Directors (*Konferenz der Erziehungsdirektoren* – EDK/CDIP) commissioned a pilot project “In-service Teacher Training for Tomorrow” (*Lehrerfortbildung von Morgen*, LEFOMO) which identified the most pressing problems and proposed a plan for evaluating teacher training. It focused on issues such as co-operation between in-service training centres and schools; whether training should occur at centres or at the school; how to encourage teachers to participate; how much time off should be given for training; inter-cantonal and international co-operation in training; etc. It also reflected on the rights and obligations of teachers regarding training, their professional career, training and advanced credentials, etc.

Six years after the publication of the LEFOMO report, measures have been introduced in virtually all areas mentioned. Although there has been progress in some of these, many aspects are at a standstill and the coordination between basic training and in-service training seems to present the greatest challenge. The *Weiterbildungsoffensive des Bundes*, a federal co-ordinating body, provided funding that has enabled the setting up of further education programmes for upper secondary teachers at universities (i.e. didactics of particular subjects).

POLICY INFLUENCES

In Switzerland, as in other countries, the effectiveness of existing educational policies is coming under closer scrutiny. Increasingly the notion of the *school as organisation* is displacing the focus on the individual teacher as concerns grow about the optimal in-service training. Other factors that are influencing the changes in thinking include:

- a growing recognition that, given the rapid obsolescence of knowledge, courses that are geared to specific in-service training are lagging behind the current demands of the modern school;
- rapid technological advances, European integration, freer markets and restructuring of the Swiss economy are all contributing to the pressure to view learning, the place of education, and the role of teachers in a new light;

- business management concepts have been tried in public administration and, increasingly, in education as well;
- the effectiveness of state measures is being scrutinised more closely, and not just because of growing economic pressures on virtually all educational facilities; and
- burn-out and professional dissatisfaction – with teachers in a prosperous economy more likely to switch careers – are indications of the subjective strain and isolation with which teachers have to cope.

In addition, a number of reforms and changes in regulations concerning the curriculum i.e. the *Maturitätsanerkennungsreglement* and the model new teaching plan (*Rahmenlehrplan*) are putting pressure on secondary schools to re-examine their organisation, administration and surrounding environment. Reforms concerning teaching instruction (*Volksschulgesetze*) in a number of cantons, i.e. Basel, Zurich, Bern, are expected to have a significant impact on teacher training for the first time, for example on individualised instruction; parent co-operation; teamwork; peer counselling; school development; etc.

Among the other driving forces behind the shift from individual to team-training have been cantonal school reforms and the implementation of curriculum projects such as “Schools on the Move” (*Schulen in Bewegung*) in Bern, “Semi-Autonomous Primary Schools” (*Teilautonome Volksschulen*) in Zurich, or “Schools with Profile”, Lucerne (*Schulen mit Profil*). Such reforms involve whole school development with strategies to change the school environment using new learning techniques, group work, etc., as well as new relationships with the surrounding community. Compared with earlier school reforms, schools have more resources for such innovations, including a considerable volume of trainers available both inside and outside schools. The objectives are to teach students to work in group settings, to be more flexible and enterprising in order to prepare them for employment in a global economy.

The necessity to adapt to changes brought about by these reforms has reinforced the need for effective school management and this has had significant effects on strategies for the professional development of teachers. There is increasing agreement that a teacher must become a member of a team rather than an individual to be trained. It is increasingly recognised that schools for tomorrow will need teachers who can function well within a group, expressing themselves clearly without hurting others; be highly motivated, open-minded, capable of saying “yes” and “no”, and be responsible for their actions. Teachers showing “leadership” are seen as reliable, able to admit their own errors and share power and responsibilities with others. Many of these ideas originate in business training and “entrepreneurship” – the new school management in Switzerland is seen to require entrepreneurs more than administrators.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN SWITZERLAND

It is generally agreed that the courses offered in the Cantonal Centres for in-service teacher training have grown in a haphazard fashion rather than by design. The original courses were taught by teachers who had proven their skills in a specific subject area, and thus became trainers on the basis of teaching experience. This policy is gradually changing as criticism of these trends increases and especially as their ineffectiveness for school development becomes evident.

Until recently there was no coherent strategy in the training of trainers and many teachers carried out training without significant professional qualifications (50 per cent of teachers with twenty years of teaching experience have carried out some training). The need for a more consistent method and confirmed identity for trainers is now generally accepted throughout the different cantons. The measures to implement an efficient system, however, go beyond the question of funding and will require a complete re-examination of the role of school personnel in general.

One significant trend in the professional development of teachers is that the cantonal and trans-regional in-service teacher training centres are gradually giving up the market of subject-oriented courses which are increasingly expected to be self-financing. Emphasis is now on collectively-oriented training courses (team development) as well as courses focusing subjects or issues chosen by the school "team" as being important for longer term school policy (such as teaching a multi-lingual class, or how to deal with bullying, etc.).

More and more training courses offered are characterised by across-the-board compulsory measures with regard to innovation processes. In the cantons of Bern, Basel-Stadt, Zurich and elsewhere, training centres are now responsible not just for subject-oriented training of individual teachers, but also for the introduction and monitoring of the whole staff for a school, or local school systems with respect to statutory compliance.

As in-service teacher training is seen as an important developmental tool for the school and for the implementation of reforms, expectations of teachers are growing, and schools are more likely to allot time for training. Coupled with these expectations is the realisation that training is not a passive matter and consequently courses will be prepared only to the extent that both teachers and management define their objectives, and the course has the active support of enough teachers.

The teacher umbrella organisation LCH is taking a much greater interest in this whole area. It established a Training Charter which dealt with the issue of "ownership" of in-service teacher training. Among other things, the charter suggested that the individual consumer of in-service teacher training had

responsibilities towards his or her peers and should no longer consider such training as simply a private matter.

Another indicative trend in the professional development of teachers in Switzerland is the increasing leadership being taken in this area by the larger cantons, given their growing conviction that school reforms and school development require the support of in-service teacher training. Local school authorities and school principals are also realising that their duties include more than just administration. Firmer leadership from state and local authorities is resulting in an increasing need to define the goals of schools and of schooling for the first time. However, there is a certain unease over the attempts to “package” the goals of schools into models and agendas quickly, without first training those who would be required for such an effort.

Universities have contributed little so far to the development of an in-service teacher training system. One important reason was the setting up in the early 1970s of the Swiss Office for In-service Training for Upper Secondary Teachers. It is unlikely that the universities will become important partners in the future since many are perceived as offering only academic, subject-oriented training. They would have to convert the many facets of in-service teacher training requirements such as research and pedagogy into teachable subjects. They may never make it into the in-service training market since the specialised institutions in the cantons have become more sensitive to teacher training needs and probably more dynamic and flexible in finding ways of meeting them. It is possible that the newly planned *Pädagogische Fachhochschulen* which are intended to replace the regular teacher training colleges will become specialised in the design and implementation of post-graduate courses and training in the future.

Providers

It is evident that the thirty two cantonal institutions have a near monopoly on in-service teacher training. Their target audience consists mainly of teachers at compulsory and pre-school levels (kindergarten, primary school and lower secondary level) and – in the seven largest cantons – upper secondary level. Since the 80s, the influence of the teachers on in-service teacher training has increased. Most of the cantons’ centres for in-service training have implemented working groups (*Projektgruppen*) who evaluate the teachers’ needs, suggest subjects and nominate trainers.

Good examples are the *Zentralstelle für Lehrerinnen – unter Lehrerfortbildung* in Bern with outreach to more than 80 per cent of teachers (compulsory level) or the Swiss Office for In-service Training for Upper Secondary Teachers in Lucerne (WBZ) which co-ordinates in-service teacher training at upper secondary level

(*Gymnasium*) with outreach to about 25 per cent of teachers throughout German-speaking Switzerland.

These institutions have earned credibility because of the role they have been able to play in implementing reforms over the last few years. Their usefulness in large cantons has become obvious in comparison with those smaller cantons where they do not exist. This lack is now considered to be a structural weakness.

There are other providers such as the Swiss Institute for Professional Teaching which offers courses for teachers of technical and general subjects, *i.e.* mathematics and civics. Teachers can also attend courses offered by industry, the unions and other professional bodies. It is not clear as yet how the new colleges (*Fachhochschulen*) will become involved in the training of technology teachers.

The teachers or former teachers are important partners in setting the pace and direction of training, both as designers and trainers. In some cantons, one can find permanent staff, while in others, the staff is limited to the director and a few secretaries. Trainers may be recruited from the business sector or from other professional areas. This is how a few “guru” figures from abroad (from the self-enhancement, developmental psychology area especially) have had considerable influence on in-service teacher training in Switzerland.

Other private providers are also getting involved in the in-service teacher training market, albeit to a very limited extent. Often they simply expand on the courses offered by state training facilities such as the Swiss Association for School and Training (SVSF). The SVSF reaches up to 3 000 teachers with centrally located summer courses. The SVSF’s cantonal sections take part in the design and organisation of these courses. The teachers’ organisations enjoy close co-operation with the cantonal institutions although the Bern Teachers’ Association is large enough to offer its own courses.

The Swiss Conference of Advanced Teacher Trainers (*Conférence suisse des responsables du perfectionnement des enseignantes et enseignants*) was created two years ago, giving official status to in-service teacher training. The conference is a platform, with its function being above all, the professional exchange of the directors of the cantonal and trans-regional centres for in-service teacher training.

Form and content

In 1994, about half of in-service training courses dealt with specific subjects or disciplines or with interdisciplinary topics. Eleven per cent of courses were predominantly concerned with pedagogy, teaching methods or psychopedagogical issues; 8 per cent dealt with school development and 4 per cent were part of a school reform programme. This overview suggests that courses

about general educational issues such as discussion of educational values were considered to be less important.

In a survey carried out in 1995 in five selected cantons, teachers ranked the acquisition and improvement of professional skills as their top priority for the content of in-service teacher training courses. At the same time, they regarded the receipt of advancement in teaching technique as the most important aspect of in-service teacher training. The acquisition of working tools/skills along with exchange with colleagues came next in importance. The teachers also indicated that they wanted to see more emphasis on training that took place inside the school, have more time off for training and more days available during which they could exchange information and views with other colleagues.

In recent years, courses in which the (mere) transmission of information was the key have become less important. Programmes that teach general skills, such as broader forms of learning, or that permit and/or facilitate individualisation of instruction have increased in popularity. These courses have sown the seeds for team co-operation and collegial exchange. A second development is the so-called "personality-enhancing" course which is designed to build one's skills through reflection and examination. Despite such trends, the continued presence of a specific subject-orientation in these courses remains unmistakable.

Over the past few years, individual training courses have been scheduled in a reduced way in some cantons, and instead, have been made available on demand (*auf Abruf*). Once a group has been assembled, the course is then "picked up" (*abgeholt*). These "picked up" courses make up more than half the training programmes in Bern Canton for example. This concept calls for a great deal of communication and arrangements among the participants since all details must be decided on in advance.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

It is estimated that the average time expended on in-service training activities under the different categories is about 100 hours per year. A forthcoming study is expected to show that the hours spent on attendance would be higher still but for the time constraints felt by teachers (Landert, forthcoming). The yearly state expenditure is estimated at between SF 1 200 and 1 500 per teacher per year. The cost of in-service activities that are instigated by the schools (school development processes) or are privately organised and financed are unknown.

The mandate for the further professional development of teachers came at the request of training institutions as well as from politicians. In order to clarify any misunderstandings, the representatives of the training institutions as well as the trainers themselves defined the notions of in-service teacher training as both an obligation and as an entitlement. This served to focus discussion or when in-

service should occur, who was to pay for it and how much. Evaluation of this aspect of teacher training shows that the mandate (requirement for a specified time or a specified programme) is being accepted by teachers. However, this tends to increase their demands and expectations of the plan.

Funding from the Federal Continuing Education Offensive (*Weiterbildungsoffensive des Bundes*) helped set up further education programs at universities which designed and implemented post-university course provisions – primarily with funding from the cantons or with their own resources. Upper secondary (*Gymnasium*) professors are among the faculty who take advantage of these courses in didactics of particular subjects.

The same resources were used for the promotion of specialised teacher education in areas such as didactics of maths, environmental education, etc. Specific pilot projects were developed including, for instance, long term in-service teacher training for vocational instructors. Such attempts and other similar efforts would probably have been impossible without specialised federal funding. This federal initiative, however, did not guarantee innovative practices either regarding in-service teacher training facilities, nor at the university level.

Studies show that teachers are quite willing to devote reasonable amounts of their free time to in-service training. The trade-off is that they be free to choose the courses they want. There is a growing recognition that school organisation (the need for teachers to be present so much of the time) inhibits the possibilities for state-sponsored in-service training. Since teachers object to scheduling it during the four holiday breaks, finding a time for in-service training has become a source of conflict.

The first case study is an interesting example of how a school in a disadvantaged area uses an innovative approach to help teachers adjust to a multi-cultural pupil intake while the second looks at the effects that the new public management ideology has on the operation of a large in-service teacher training institution.

CASE STUDY 1

LORRAINE PRIMARY (CANTON OF BERN)

Lorraine Primary School is situated in a disadvantaged area on the outskirts of Bern; it is a local school catering to a highly varied immigrant population as well as to a number of Swiss intellectuals who move to the area in order to send their children to this particular school. The school has the reputation of being highly innovative in teaching methods, project work and teacher motivation. It is known for its positive and interesting *Leitbild*.

The school is small, with 260 students and 30 teachers; the two principals are both women. Class size is about 26 pupils, and teachers in training are often involved in helping the teacher with a class. The school was included in the 1994 reform “System 4” meaning that pupils stay in the same class group and school from year 1 to 9 – the end of compulsory schooling (all except those who will be going on to the *Gymnasium*).

Challenges for teachers at Lorraine Primary School are many: first and foremost is how to teach a class where three quarters of the children are of non-Swiss origin and speak very little of any of the Swiss languages. The multi-cultural nature of the population also makes contact with parents more difficult. Staff, principals and parents felt that an effective way to meet these challenges was to propose a school project on multi-culturalism – that entailed applying for assistance from the Department of Education.

Teachers and the principals defined their training needs, which meant having the time to work together as a team in the school and working with parents. In-service sessions were set aside to allow teachers to reflect on an effective strategy with parents (12 hours), plus once a month meeting of staff to evaluate and rectify their strategies. A number of conferences were also held on subjects such as how to prevent bullying and violence, gender issues in a multi-cultural setting, how to deal with parents as consumers rather than as “enemies”, etc. Colleagues with special interest and experience on these topics gave presentations and led discussion.

Professional development of staff is seen as an essential part of creating a *Leitbild* for the school: that of a successful multi-cultural place of education. Both principals feel that effective communication, team-spirit and a deep understanding and acceptance of diversity in human beings are the goals to be attained through in-service teacher training.

CASE STUDY 2

INSTITUT FÜR UNTERRICHTSFRAGEN UND LEHRERFORTBILDUNG (ULEF, BASEL)

ULEF is the official In-service Teacher Training Institution for the Canton of Basel, and illustrates the recent changes in both goal and organisation of the professional development of teachers. Basel, like other cantons, has undergone budget cuts in the public service sector. This is seen as part of an international “new public management” ideology that concerns itself with saving money. ULEF has found an innovative way of carrying out its mandate of in-service teacher training.

The institution has been “downsized” significantly and functions with a permanent staff of 4-5 persons, but calls on the skills of 200 to 300 freelance trainers

from different sectors including business and industry. The director finds that managers from CIBA-Geigy and Migros are more innovative and useful for the professional development of teachers than university professors. Despite budget cuts, the institute disposes of SF 3.5 million per year for teacher training.

The new mandate of ULEF was approved by the State Council in October of 1995, defining the institute's main function for the professional development of teachers. Although a programme of individual training was to be maintained, the principal objectives of the institution are to give permanent and innovative support to teachers "in exercising their profession" and to encourage them to take on projects for school development. ULEF was given the specific mission to reorient its activities in order to concentrate resources on the "need for schools to change".

The new framework defines the following areas of responsibility for ULEF: 1) the professional development of teachers linked to their "teaching task" (*poste de travail*); 2) orientation and counselling of teachers; 3) pedagogical training adapted to teachers' tasks; 4) courses during the semester; 5) a catalogue of course provision. The new mandate insists on linking training to "teachers' tasks", thereby soliciting, in the design of training strategies, the participation of the school's principal, administration and staff, as well as the Conference of School Directors, Inspectors, Conference of Head Administrators and the Department of Education.

Counselling and orientation of teachers is upon request by the teacher, but must be agreed to by the school principal in consultation with ULEF. Pedagogical training on task and the catalogue of courses are the responsibility of ULEF. In the mandate, it is stated that ULEF must encourage the autonomy of schools, support decentralisation of responsibility, in-built skills and reinforce individual teachers' decision-making. Central to this new orientation for in-service is the fact that training is intimately linked to the task of teaching and that professional development of the teacher feeds directly into school development and school reform.

It is also noted that in-service training should be extended to a whole region and not just to isolated schools. That teachers in a region should come to know each other and work together is highly recommended. Continuity of training is also emphasised; although short optional courses remain in the programme, a decentralised, school-based long term training strategy is considered to be more efficient, satisfactory and beneficial to all concerned.

COMMENTARY ON TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN SWITZERLAND

Despite the presence of significant reforms, and the emergence of new trends, a large proportion of in-service teacher training in Switzerland is still

oriented towards the traditional upgrading of single subject areas. Increasing one's competence in a field is still largely equated with the idea of effectiveness.

Alongside the traditional approach, other tendencies are emerging with teachers considering short, one-off in-service events to be the least effective. Short, one day events are considered to be more effective if they are designed to be offered in sequence, with follow-up timed in such a way that learning/practice can take place in between sessions. In-service teacher training is considered especially effective if school development aspects and in-service objectives are co-ordinated. In fact, the more in-service provision takes into account the everyday, organisational and internal processes of the school and the staff, the more likely it will be considered as effective.

Given the traditional subject-oriented emphasis of in-service teacher training, and the new approaches, two tracks can now be increasingly discerned. The whole school approach will have more influence on instruction through strengthening the "technical/pedagogical" areas and by increasingly involving all staff in in-service teacher training. It is evident that training plays an important part in school development though it is not entirely clear who the in-service training customer is – the teacher, the faculty, the local school authorities, school development departments or the state.

Given present developments, in-service teacher training should gradually reduce the likelihood that teachers will work in isolation from their colleagues, facilitate innovation in teaching and learning strategies, and in general, improve the school environment. Building a team spirit (*Leitbild*) in the school is expected to promote teacher motivation and strengthen their identification with their school.

UNITED KINGDOM: SCHOOL-BASED DEVELOPMENT IN SEARCH OF COHERENCE

OVERVIEW

Over the past decade, the development of teachers in England and Wales has become more closely linked to the development of schools and to their capacity to deliver a common curriculum. Two changes introduced at the same time as the national curriculum in 1988 have helped shift attention to the school level. Local authorities were required to devolve management responsibility to head teachers and school governing bodies. And schools were given five pupil-free days per year for staff development. Today, virtually all schools have adopted development plans, many of which only relate to individual and national teacher development needs in a very broad sense.

While schools have been put in control of organising their own development, central government has played an increasing role in setting the agenda. One way has been to link training grants to areas of greatest national priority. Another has been the stress put on national inspection. The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) commissions an inspection of every school in the country every two to six years. Since these inspections are based mainly on classroom observation, they effectively judge the competence of teachers and the methods they use. So teacher development can be strongly influenced by perceptions of what will please OFSTED. Outspoken and widely reported comments by the Chief Inspector about incompetent teachers and about which teaching methods work best have strengthened the perceived link between inspection and professional development.

Against this background of devolved management but centralised expression of priorities, it has proven difficult to achieve the desired coordination between individual, school and system development. One problem has been the multiplicity of initiatives. Until recently no single agency had a brief to co-ordinate the various efforts to develop teachers. There was not even any systematic way of knowing what development activities teachers were engaged in until the Teacher

Training Agency, set up in 1995, commissioned a survey, which came to the following harsh conclusion:

“Continuing professional development currently in place in most schools appears to operate on an ad-hoc basis with no real linkage across school development planning, personal development planning and teachers’ appraisals.”⁶

The Teacher Training Agency has been mapping out a more coherent system. It is based on a framework for the professional development of all teachers to mark their progression through their teaching careers, starting with an effort to define, assess and improve the skills required by headteachers. The agency puts a particular stress on results in terms of the quality of children’s learning, rather than treating teacher training as an end in itself. Precision about such outcomes could potentially make it more likely that various forms of teacher development were co-ordinated.

THE CONTEXT

The following features of the education system in England and Wales are of particular relevance to teacher development there:

- Since 1988, a national curriculum has defined programmes of study taught in the main subject areas to children aged 5 to 16. The introduction of this curriculum has involved a considerable standardisation of teaching processes. It has also required the building up of subject competencies in some disciplines that had previously been patchily taught: notably science in primary schools and foreign languages in secondary schools.
- The national curriculum requires children to be tested against attainment targets at age 7, 11, 14 and 16. The tests and targets have been a powerful influence in terms of standardising teaching content.
- The day-to-day management of schools has been passed from local education authorities to school governing bodies and head teachers. English local authorities must give at least 85 per cent, and Welsh authorities 90 per cent, of what they spend on primary and secondary education to the schools themselves, mainly in direct proportion to the number of enrolments. In-service training is one of the common services that has thereby passed from local authority to school control. The local authority can still sell such services to schools, but must compete with other providers. In addition, funding is available for staff development through the Standards Fund (formerly GEST, grants for educational support and training).

- Since 1993 for secondary schools, and 1994 for primary schools, private inspection teams commissioned by OFSTED have regularly inspected every school in the country, resulting in a published report whose summary is sent to parents. An initial four-year inspection cycle is being followed by a more flexible approach, in which schools without serious problems are inspected every six years, but schools at risk of failing have two-yearly inspections. An action plan produced by each school after the inspection often addresses issues related to teacher development.
- Since the mid-1990s, initial teacher training has become largely practice-based. For instance, 20 of the scheduled 36 weeks is spent on some courses in schools as “school time” and is considered as much “training time” as that spent in higher education institutions. In moving to this system, the traditional business of teacher training institutions has been seriously eroded. Ministers consider classroom experience to be a crucial element of initial teacher training in order to ensure that, before taking responsibility for their own classroom for the first time, every new teacher will have proved his or her ability in a wide range of knowledge, understanding, and skills including effective teaching and assessment methods, classroom management and subject knowledge.
- Despite a decade of reforms, there is high political and public concern over the standard of achievement in schools, especially in the basic subjects. For example, nearly half of 11-year-olds do not reach the expected standard on English and mathematics tests. The need to improve these basic standards has become an important objective behind teacher development.
- More employers, including schools, in the United Kingdom are recognising the benefits of adopting more demanding standards of staff development. Schools are being encouraged to work towards the Investors in People Standard which contributes to the raising of pupil achievement and to whole school improvement. By March 1997 around 800 schools were recognised as Investors in People and a further 2 000 were working towards the standard.

POLICY INFLUENCES

With the setting up of the Teacher Training Agency in 1995, following the passage of the Education Act 1994, there is for the first time a body specifically charged, *inter alia*, with reviewing and improving the provision of the continuing professional development of teachers in England and Wales. When the agency first reviewed the situation in 1995, it found that teacher development was insufficiently co-ordinated and evaluated, and not adequately focused on

improvements in the classroom. Its unsystematic character was illustrated by the finding of MORI (the survey organisation) that even the days specifically set aside for teacher learning were not always being used for this purpose: a third of schools used three or fewer of the five annual closure days for continuing professional development.

The agency has launched a strategy based on the creation of a new framework for defining professional standards, which attempts to:

- *Achieve* better coordination among activities – but not primarily by controlling or tightly regulating the supply of courses. The aim is rather to specify outcomes – in terms of the competencies required by different kinds of teachers and managers. It is hoped that by specifying the competencies that need to be demonstrated by good classroom teachers, department heads and head teachers, the agency can exert leverage over the panoply of suppliers of training, and get them to pull in roughly the same direction. In the first instance, the strategy is to produce “standards” as materials that help teachers specify common objectives. A further stage would be to validate the attainment of these standards through a qualification: this step has been taken for head teachers but it is uncertain to what degree it will be adopted for others in the profession.
- *Start* this process at the managerial level – by defining new standards for head teachers and subject leaders within schools. This strategy is based on the straightforward notion that if schools are to become more effective as learning organisations, the first thing that needs to be improved is management. If better connections are to be made between courses taken by individual teachers and the development of a strategy within a department, middle management will in many cases need to become more effective. At the whole-school level, moreover, the acquisition of new responsibilities by head teachers in 1988 was not consistently followed by sufficient management training. Nine years on, the Teacher Training Agency has launched the National Professional Qualification for Headship, which the government expects to form the basis of a new mandatory qualification that over time will build up a pool of qualified people.
- *Ensure* that teacher learning results more directly in improvements in children’s learning. The standards set down relate not just to teacher competencies but to their achievements in raising pupil performance. The agency wants to ensure that the skills of teachers are developed in a way that is more closely connected to their demonstrated effectiveness in the classroom than has previously been the case. If, as has been suggested, the standards now being developed for experienced classroom teachers eventually become a qualification that teachers must attain within, for example, five years, the difficult question would arise of how to certify

teacher effectiveness. In this situation, the performance of children in tests could come to have an unprecedentedly direct influence on the fate of their teachers – which would be unique in OECD countries.

It is impossible to comment at such an early stage on the effects that this Teacher Training Agency's strategy will have. Three observations however can be made. First, it is highly ambitious, aiming to raise the consistency of teacher performance substantially by specifying competency standards. Second, it has the potential to focus the learning of teachers around their attainment of explicit and measurable skills, just as national curriculum tests have done for the learning of children. Third, while many teachers welcome an approach that sets out more clearly what is expected of them in terms of professional standards, some commentators wonder whether the agency's ambitious goals can be met. The greatest difficulty may be in defining and potentially testing teacher competence, which some fear could prove an unwarranted and time-consuming distraction.

New government, new framework: White Paper proposals July 1997

As part of wide-ranging proposals to raise standards and drive out failure in schools, set out in its *Excellence for Schools* White Paper, the new Labour Government made the following proposals affecting in-service teacher training:

- To strengthen school leadership by requiring new head teachers to hold a relevant qualification, providing a fast-track route to headship for teachers showing early flair, and developing new training opportunities for weaker heads already in post.
- To create a more structured and systematic induction year for newly-qualified teachers, with the possibility of delaying confirmation of the initial qualification until after they have served for one year.
- To consider with the Teacher Training Agency the case for establishing “a range of new qualifications beyond Qualified Teacher Status to match the new [TTA] framework”.
- To establish a new “virtual” teachers’ centre bringing “on-line guidance and teaching materials into every staff room”.
- To create a new grade of “Advanced Skills Teacher”, rewarding the best classroom teachers who are prepared to take on additional support and mentoring roles.
- To establish a General Teaching Council to speak for the teaching profession, promote teaching as a career, and help maintain professional standards. Its relationship to the Teacher Training Agency with respect to professional standards was, in the White Paper, left open for discussion.

But various other recent initiatives have been broadly consistent with the agency's strategy of specifying what teachers should be able to do, and requiring them to take on methods that are demonstrably effective in the classroom. In some respects, the original strategy of the national curriculum of specifying only *what* must be learned and leaving the *how* to teachers, is being abandoned in the face of poor results, particularly in the core subjects at the end of primary school. For example, the National Numeracy and Literacy Project, funded by central government through the GEST programme (grants for educational support and training) was launched in 1996 to help teachers in 2 000 schools across the country to teach these subjects more effectively. Teachers are required to follow a detailed and closely structured programme based on daily numeracy and literacy lessons. Their schools must set targets for achievement and monitor pupils' progress through regular assessment.

In 1997, the new Labour government published wide-ranging proposals aimed at raising standards in schools, of which strengthened teacher development form an important part. The relevant proposals, which develop rather than contradict the trends described in this chapter, are summarised below. At the time of writing it is difficult to predict how Labour's proposals will affect the overall picture.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN ENGLAND AND WALES

In-service teacher training and professional development in England and Wales cannot be neatly classified neither by a single framework for defining activities, a common funding structure, nor a unified qualifications structure, nor by a clear division of responsibilities among public agencies. Until the 1990s, the biggest unifying element was the local education authority, which directly funded and provided the greater part of in-service training, most often through courses at its own "teachers' centres". Today, schools plan their own teacher development, purchasing from a range of providers, and funded largely from their own resources or from earmarked grants originating from central government.

Activities cannot therefore be described in terms of a system, but must rather be observed as a set of prevailing patterns. It is significant that until MORI asked teachers, managers and suppliers about these patterns in 1995 (see note 6, p. 142), it would have been almost impossible to estimate how many teachers took part in various kinds of activity. The MORI survey, on which many of the figures in this chapter are based, provides only an approximation. But its findings were not inconsistent with the main patterns found by a subsequent study by OFSTED.⁷

7. OFSTED's study of the effectiveness of in-service education and training, completed in 1996, was not published in full. But its main findings are reported in the *Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools 1995-96*, The Stationery Office, London, 1997.

Against this background, teacher development in England and Wales can be characterised as highly varied, ranging from individual private study for masters' degrees or doctorates to informal autonomous development by groups of teachers on in-service training days.

Providers

Despite the fact that they are no longer the main planners of teacher development, local authorities continue to play a prominent role in its provision. According to the MORI survey, 48 per cent of activities are organised by local education authorities, and 40 per cent by the school itself and colleagues. The new role of these authorities as competing providers rather than co-ordinators of services is underlined by the fact that even teachers at grant-maintained schools, which are fully outside local government control, say that a quarter of their professional development activities is provided by local authorities.

Within this overall picture, the engagement of local education authorities in provision varies widely across the country. In some cases, the service has remained viable (see, for example, Case Study 1), and pressure is put on schools to purchase local authority courses so that they remain so. In others (*e.g.* Case Study 2), the authority has effectively withdrawn from provision (although schools can and quite often do purchase from local authorities other than their own). As a result, the quality and character of training opportunities available to schools in different parts of England and Wales is highly variable.

In general, there has been a decline in importance of the two kinds of off-site teacher development most commonly procured by the local authorities in the past. The first is courses provided at the authorities' own education and training centres. The second is courses at higher education institutions, which accounted for only one in ten activities mentioned by teachers to MORI.

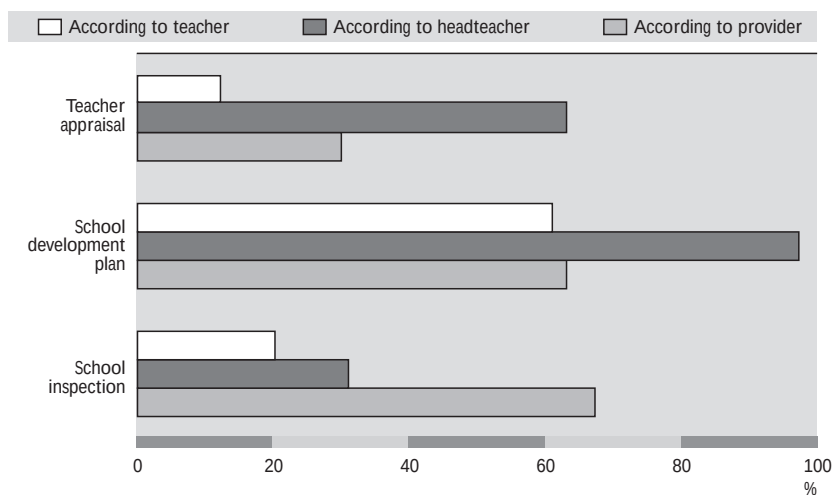
Instead, a large proportion of teacher development takes place within schools. Much of this activity is "autonomously" generated, that is organised by the teachers within the school. Some of it is a result of networking, bringing together expertise from a number of schools: 38 per cent of teachers mentioned having worked with colleagues from other schools. Some is facilitated by an outside provider; local authorities and higher education institutions are increasingly bringing their expertise on-site. But also there has been a marked growth in the use of private consultants – many of them former inspectors. Although on average only 8 per cent of activities reported by teachers were specifically organised by consultants, in grant-maintained schools the figure was 22 per cent.

Form and content

It is clear that a growing amount of teacher learning is linked to school development. When teachers were asked about the three professional development activities on which they had spent the most time in the past year, they attributed 61 per cent of them to the needs identified in the school development plan. This figure reflects the importance attached to these plans within schools in England and Wales, in particular by head teachers, 97 per cent of whom say they link professional development to the plans. But this does not mean that all teacher development is smoothly co-ordinated: in fact, it is subject to a wide range of overlapping influences. As Figure 1 shows, teachers, managers and providers have different interpretations of what professional development programmes are for. For example, most head teachers link these programmes to teacher appraisals; most teachers do not.

The re-orientation of teacher development around the needs of schools and pupils as well as teachers themselves has involved a culture change that has met with considerable resistance. Many teachers and their trade unions feel that not enough emphasis is being put on career development opportunities except where they relate directly to the present requirements of the job.

◆ Figure 1. *The need for a professional development activity linked to teacher appraisal, school development or school inspection*



Nevertheless, teachers play a highly active part in managing their own training. Just over half of individual activities (54 per cent) are initiated by teachers themselves, while 6 per cent are selected by the local education authority and the remainder by school managers (59 per cent in primary schools and 43 per cent in secondary schools). These figures indicate that the planning of teacher development has become a joint enterprise between teachers and their schools, with local authorities playing only a small auxiliary role.

The content of teacher development in England and Wales in recent years has been affected by four overlapping influences:

- *The concern to ensure that teacher competence meets the demands of the national curriculum.* This has caused many teacher development activities within schools to be focused around how to deliver particular programmes of study effectively.
- *The desire to use teacher development as a tool for school improvement.* This has made school strategies for effective teaching relatively more important and learning opportunities related to teacher career development relatively less so.
- *The perception that more reliable techniques are needed to promote basic skills such as literacy and numeracy.* This has led to specific efforts with high political prominence to improve teaching in these areas, especially in primary schools.
- *The importance and visibility of school inspection.* Preparing for inspection has become an obsession with some schools. A remarkable 41 per cent of secondary school teachers told MORI that they had attended a session on preparing for inspection. The chief inspector of schools, among many others, is dissatisfied that much effort seems to go into learning how to look good to inspectors, rather than in following up inspectors' findings.

These various overlapping influences have tended to create a miscellany of teacher development activities rather than a co-ordinated whole. One issue that remains unresolved, for example, concerns the balance between joint learning efforts among all teachers and initiatives to raise knowledge and competence in particular teachers who are found wanting. In some cases, inspection reports shine a spotlight on teachers or departments that fall below standard. Since 1996, inspectors have been obliged to identify to head teachers and governing bodies any teacher whose performance is poor in at least two lessons. The setting up of literacy and numeracy centres (see Case Study 1, p. 153), which was strongly supported by the chief inspector of schools, was designed to correct a perceived deficit in the skills of some teachers. However, the time provided by the five non-teaching days points to a model of school-wide improvement in which all teachers participate, rather than just those with low performance.

The Department for Education and Employment supports a range of approaches, both for whole-school improvement and directed at individual teachers. It does so through the Standards Fund, which channels resources via local authorities. The majority of these grants are allocated through a formula and some grants are 100 per cent while in others there have to be matching funds. Most of the money must be spent directly by schools. The fund is a direct instrument available to central government for translating its policy priorities into school-initiated change. The 17 areas reflecting the government's priorities in 1997-98 included:

- *School effectiveness*, aiming to improve the quality of teaching and learning and to reinforce links between inspection and improvement – partly by channelling some money to newly-inspected schools;
- *Courses to enhance primary school teachers' subject knowledge*, particularly in mathematics, for which test results for 11-year-olds had caused special concern;
- *Support for introduction of the general national vocational qualification* in schools for children aged 14-18 – to reflect the growing importance of this qualification relative to more conventional ones in schools, but the lack of teacher skills to support it;
- *Truancy, disruptive and disaffected pupils*, to enhance schools' capacity to deal with these problems through a range of multi-disciplinary initiatives that apply best practice, for example in home-school liaison.

Areas covered by the 1998-99 Standards Fund, which is replacing GEST, include: school effectiveness; school leadership; induction for newly qualified teachers; early years training and development; reduction of infant class sizes; assessment; national literacy strategy and various projects; Premier League Club study support centres; special educational needs; qualifications; work related learning; improving attendance and behaviour; drug prevention; youth service; school security; specialist schools and teacher assistants.

Although the agenda for teacher development is often presented in terms of the mastering of techniques, its thrust – especially from the political perspective – is often just as much about affecting teacher attitudes. A study by the National Foundation for Educational Research in the early years of implementing the national curriculum found that skills training did not always have an impact in the classroom because teachers did not use methods that they regarded as undesirable (Kinder and Harland, 1991).

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

The introduction of the five non-teaching days in every school year has had an important effect on the resources devoted to in-service teacher training in

England and Wales. Even though, as noted above, these days are not always used for such training, in the majority of cases they are. The fact that this gives every teacher time to participate in further learning is important psychologically. It indicates that resources should not just be concentrated on a minority of teachers with inadequate skills, but that all teachers are expected to be lifelong learners.

Recognised continuing professional development predominantly takes place during school time, although nearly half of teachers undertake some activities immediately after school. Those teachers who undertake higher academic studies, for masters' degrees or doctorates, predominantly do so in their own spare time, since special leave for such courses is now rare. So whereas a large proportion of teachers do not invest their own time in professional development, a minority invest a substantial amount, and often expect to be rewarded in terms of pay or career advancement.

Even though the five school closure days have given at least some learning time to all teachers, time for further activities has tended to become more unevenly and arbitrarily distributed. Whereas local education authorities used to provide substitute teachers for those who went on courses, the ability to do so is now dependent on the resources of the school and the level of special grants that they manage to obtain. Some local education authorities continue to control the money for paying for supply cover, others do not.

The main government grant, under the Standards Fund programme (see above) channels a total of about £300 million to local education authorities and schools to support teacher development. This represents slightly less than 2 per cent of the total schools budget for England and Wales.

Schools must combine these grants with any resources they can spare from their normal budgets, to pay for the cost of teacher development, whether paying for substitute teachers to provide cover or in paying for the training itself. Nearly half also have access to some free training from local authorities. The amount that they spend themselves varies widely. MORI asked head teachers how much their schools spent: this varied from over £25 000 a school to nothing, and was only loosely related to school size. Large secondary schools, with over 50 teachers, typically spent between £10 000 and £25 000 – representing in the order of 0.5 per cent of their running costs. The MORI report pointed out that schools received their funding from a wide variety of sources.

BENEFITS AND EVALUATION

One of the main criticisms of teacher development activities in England and Wales is that their results for children's learning have been insufficiently evaluated. This makes it hard to draw firm conclusions about the outcomes of such

activities, but also creates the case presently being pursued for creating more demonstrable links between teacher learning and improved teaching.

The school inspectorate has found that even though three-quarters of schools visited showed some benefit from in-service training, in only one-half was there a resulting discernible improvement in the quality of pupils' learning and the standard of their achievement. Inspection also revealed that whereas individual in-service activities are generally of high quality, a lack of effective planning meant that they did not always affect teachers' performance (OFSTED, 1997, p. 39).

When asked by MORI about the impact of particular activities on their work in the classroom, only 26 per cent of teachers said that there had been "a great deal" of impact, with a further 42 per cent reporting "a fair amount". Only 21 per cent thought that the activity had affected their teaching methods. What is notable about these results, based on self-reporting rather than systematic evaluation, is that many teachers did not even imagine that professional development had had an impact.

Researchers evaluating teacher development in England and Wales have come to mixed conclusions. For example, evaluation of the impact of in-service training in introducing the national curriculum after 1988 shows that courses did much both to raise teacher awareness of the principles of the curriculum and to improve subject knowledge. But the 20-day courses that spearheaded the introduction of the curriculum, like the more recent literacy and numeracy initiatives, depended on a "cascade" model by which nationally-trained consultants train a selection of teachers who disseminate the new techniques within their schools. The experience of such methods had been that the final user's understanding and "ownership" becomes highly diluted (Harland and Kinder, 1992).

While evidence of impact is limited, since about 1995, there has been a much more overt attempt to pay attention to the direct effects of teacher development on classroom practice and pupil achievement. This has resulted in teacher training policies that are much more closely in step with other areas of policy development, including the curriculum and assessment of pupils. The success of these efforts will depend partly on how well they are accepted by the teaching profession. While there is widespread resentment over the pace and burden of change, in general teachers appear to be attracted by the principle of making explicit the standards required for effective teaching.

Case Study 1 looks at the manner in which a professional development service run by a local education authority has adapted to the new competitive environment in which it finds itself while the second case study examines how school heads in another area have responded to the disappearance of local authority coordination of teacher development.

CASE STUDY 1

WILTSHIRE BRANCHES OUT

A rural local education authority 70 miles west of London, Wiltshire has managed to keep together a viable professional development service, based around three teachers' centres and 25 consultant specialists employed full-time to undertake training and advice. But Wiltshire Education Support and Training (WEST) is now a business unit within the authority that must compete for schools' custom, and cover its costs. In this environment, it adapts its programme to meet demand, and provides on-site services where desired. It has recently enhanced its coverage by co-operating with two other local authorities, and with higher education institutions and headteacher associations, and gains considerable extra income from selling materials nation-wide.

Although the main in-service training budget comes from the Standards Fund programme, financed jointly by central and local government, schools are free to spend this money on whichever public or private provider they choose. But despite inroads made by some independent competitors, including ex-local authority employees, the county service remains the main supplier of courses. One reason is that schools feel they know more about the quality and relevance of courses that the local authority will provide than is the case with private provision.

But WEST needs to work hard to maintain its reputation for relevance and usefulness, as schools feel that they must make every training hour count, since time and money are short and the training agenda is long. One result is that the service has trimmed some courses outside the national curriculum, and focused on that which is narrowly relevant. Another is that most courses are specifically related to items on schools' development programmes, rather than being offered more randomly to any teacher who expresses interest.

In 1997-98, schools in the county suffered a significant reduction in GEST funding. As it becomes harder to pay for substitute teachers to cover for those on courses, there is a growing tendency to try to meet development needs on-site within allocated in-service training days. The local authority is one supplier of "made-to-measure" courses in this context. In a rural county with many small primary schools, it is sometimes difficult to run viable courses. But heads of small clusters of schools meet regularly to discuss common needs; this can result in collaboration to run school-based courses on which teachers from several schools participate.

However the main teachers' centre still plays an important role. For example, in the school year 1996-97, primary schools in the county were preparing to admit children from an earlier age – from the September following their fourth birthday, where parents desired. "Early years" teachers from throughout the county

attended a nine day course staggered over the school year, to help them prepare a programme to meet the particular needs of this new clientele, and also to apply a new national set of “desirable outcomes” for children reaching the age of five. These teachers, many of whom came from small schools with no other teacher responsible for the same age-group, found the course extremely helpful, if only because it brought them into contact with colleagues addressing similar problems. Their schools are too far-flung to organise viable local networks to address such a change effectively.

Even at the county level, it is not always possible to provide courses in all desirable areas. So Wiltshire and Gloucestershire have launched an initiative, which also now includes the new authority of Swindon (formerly part of Wiltshire), along with local higher education institutions and head teachers, to identify common training needs and the best way of pooling expertise. The Gloucestershire and Wiltshire Initiative for Staff Training (GWIST) has been particularly effective in enhancing capacity for training school managers, and has won the contract to run the new National Professional Qualification for Headship for its region, comprising seven counties.

Wiltshire's professional development service has enjoyed considerable success in selling its publications, some of which are training materials, to schools in other parts of the country. Its income from this source adds substantially to its main training revenue.

This example shows that it is possible to keep a local authority training service together, despite the devolution of training decisions to schools. But WEST can never take its position for granted: its business depends on the levels of funding available, decisions taken by head teachers and the reputation of its service. One of its biggest limitations is that it is unable to plan provision more than a year ahead, because the terms of the Standards Fund are determined on an annual basis.

CASE STUDY 2

HEADS TAKE THE INITIATIVE IN WESTMINSTER

Westminster City Council, a London borough, became responsible for education in 1990, after the abolition of the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA). The new local education authority (LEA) was unique in implementing local school management from its birth, and therefore took on a less directive role than that assumed by many other LEAs. When in 1993, at the advent of national inspection, Westminster decided to stop retaining its own inspection service, it also decided that schools should manage their own in-service training and professional development.

Head teachers in the borough set up a consultative committee to identify and develop their training needs and those of subject leaders in their schools. Co-operation has been particularly strong among primary school heads, who feel that without the inter-school networking that had been strong under the ILEA, they would be isolated. Every year at their annual meeting, the borough's heads discuss their training priorities, using a questionnaire to collate their views.

The result has been the development of a number of training activities, including for example a course on stress management for head teachers, run partly by independent consultancies on behalf of the heads. But in some priority areas, the heads have decided to ask an officer of the local authority to co-ordinate training on their behalf. The LEA is still responsible for channelling national funding to the schools under the Standards Fund programme, and voluntary co-operation on this basis is seen as fruitful.

Arrangements for training of newly qualified teachers (NQTs) illustrates the pragmatic combination of a range of methods. Off-site courses are provided by an independent contractor, in collaboration with Westminster education officers. One of Westminster's officers is helping to develop, on behalf of the heads, a coherent approach to the off-the-job element. An "assigned tutor", a teacher paid by the borough to work with schools on their mentoring provision for about one afternoon a week, has found that the mentoring arrangements for new teachers are highly variable in different schools in the borough. In some cases, they involve a well-thought-out programme covering all relevant subjects; in others they consist of little more than an invitation to talk to the mentor if the new teacher has any problems. The support scheme aims to develop a more consistent and sound approach across the borough.

This case illustrates an evolutionary and pragmatic response to the disappearance of local authority coordination of teacher development. The evolution has produced a system that combines in the most convenient way available the resources and skills of consultants, local authority officers, head teachers and others in schools. The in-service support for newly qualified teachers is co-ordinated by a primary school reading recovery teacher who happened to have done a recent MA dissertation on mentoring.

Although many people in the borough regret the passing of a more systematic form of borough-wide development, the present collaborative model has advantages. The head teachers feel confident that provision is being based on what they really need rather than on what the authority thinks they need. They are also readier to discontinue or change training that is not having much impact. When the newly qualified teachers participating in external courses reported back that they were learning less on the course than if they had stayed in their classrooms, the heads were quick to change the contractor.

COMMENTARY ON TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN ENGLAND AND WALES

During the recent period of rapid change in the British education system, teachers' own learning has played a central role. In line with now-received wisdom on the importance of school-level improvement, schools have acquired many of the tools needed to become learning organisations within a learning system. Yet there has been an underlying tension between a central drive to raise standards and the effort to encourage schools to get a grip on their own destiny.

On the positive side, there have undoubtedly been widespread and determined efforts to create a better match than existed in the past between teacher learning and the achievement of policy objectives. The national curriculum and its related tests have done much to define the agenda for teacher learning. But in the face of the many central initiatives of the past decade, teachers and schools have often been left confused about how far they are supposed to be following directions from above, and how far they can go in developing their own initiatives. Less confident schools worry, when considering innovation, whether their approach will be close enough to what the inspectors are looking for. Truly effective school-based improvement will require a high degree of self-confidence, especially among the leaders of schools. So it seems appropriate that the new effort to create better coordination between the many types of learning undertaken by serving teachers in England and Wales should start with an attempt to strengthen the skills of school managers.

UNITED STATES: THE QUEST FOR STANDARDS, ACCOUNTABILITY AND EXCELLENCE

OVERVIEW

The American educational system has been in a state of near continual reform for more than a decade. The changes involve the use of multiple policy instruments with teachers as the key players. The reform agenda, however, requires most teachers to reconceptualise their practice, to construct new classroom roles and expectations about student outcomes, and to teach in ways they have never taught before and probably have never experienced (Nelson and Hammerman, 1996, pp. 3-21).

The professional development of teachers is now considered to be of primary importance if the reforms are to achieve the improvements sought. Teachers face the serious and difficult tasks of *learning* the skills and perspectives assumed by new visions of practice and, often, *unlearning* practices and beliefs about students or instruction that have dominated their entire professional lives. Yet, it has been argued that few occasions and supports for such professional development exist in teachers' environments (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1996, pp. 202-218).

The provision available for professional development has to be viewed in the light of factors such as the sheer size, diversity and the decentralised nature of the country. History is a further important consideration, especially the fervent defence of individual state autonomy over issues such as education.

Teachers, of course, are not alone responsible for implementing reform; other actors including administrators, parents and community agencies are essential. But teachers have a vital role: their professional development is regarded as the central issue that can make standards-based reform work.

THE CONTEXT

The 1983 launching of the publication *A Nation at Risk* which dealt with secondary education was an important catalyst for change. But it was the Education Summit of 1990 that led to the establishment of six national goals for education

which really started the intense reform movement, targeting all stages of education from pre-school to school-to-work transition. Because of its all-encompassing nature the process has been named “systemic reform” and is seen to have three integral components: 1) the promotion of high student achievement and outcomes for all students; 2) alignment of policy approaches and the actions of various policy institutions to promote such outcomes; and 3) restructuring the governance system to support improved achievement.

This concept of systemic reform was based on a report by Smith and O'Day which argued that barriers to educational change existed in a fragmented, complex, multi-layered system. Policy fragmentation was also partly to blame for the low quality of the curriculum in most American schools because of the diffuse allocation of responsibility for goal setting, curriculum adoption, textbook adoption, material production and distribution. Furthermore, because of widely differing curriculum schemes, disjuncture existed between teacher knowledge and teaching practice as well as between content and assessment. “What is needed is a coherent systemic strategy that takes advantage of the resources of each level of the education system, that adds content to the restructuring movement, and that establishes expectations that all students will acquire deep understanding of subject matter and complex thinking skills” said the report (Smith and O'Day, 1991, pp. 233-267).

In the 1990s, the public's expectations of teachers are growing and becoming more complex: the teachers are expected to help all students to reach high academic standards, despite the large diversity of students from very different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. With the emphasis on raising standards there is pressure on teachers to help students acquire deep understanding of content in core subjects and to integrate and apply knowledge to real problems; the teachers themselves need to know subject matter content.

The concept of good teaching is also changing in this new context – the focus of instruction is shifting from basic skills to thinking skills. Hands-on instruction, co-operative learning and interdisciplinary work are becoming the norms of good teaching. Teachers are being asked to become experts in assessment, to use portfolios and performance assessments and to prepare their students for more complex assessment tasks than the traditional “fill in the blank” tests. Given the increasing social role of the school, they are also asked to work with social workers, counsellors and other specialists to help children succeed in school. In addition, at a time when school violence is rising and disciplinary problems increasing, teachers are being asked to accept more responsibility for the well-being of their students and to help them become productive citizens.

These various factors shape the background against which to situate many of the tensions that exist between some of the best and some of the worst practices in education today.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

Research, practice and policy evaluations demonstrate that if systemic reform, requiring the coordination of multiple policy instruments is to work, then teachers need the understanding, skills and motivation to make it happen. Teacher professional development initially was regarded as one among a number of policy instruments for promoting change, but now is seen as central to that change. A current example is the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) where results show that if significant changes are to be effected in US mathematics and science curriculum, then teachers will require substantial re-learning. The key issue is not a new test, a new curriculum or a new public consensus on what students should know, but rather, that which teachers are prepared to do and supported to do in conjunction with policy-driven change.

Systemic reform in the United States has put new pressures on education for more ambitious learning as have a more diverse and demanding student body and the nation-wide commitment to educate all children to high levels of accomplishment, knowledge and skill. These changes mean that demands in teaching have escalated. The implications of new learning, new standards and a more diverse student intake have not yet been fully recognised when planning implementation strategies: nor is there a system of professional development in place that can be seen as the answer to the crucial need for change.

There are many innovative trends, cutting-edge developments and exemplary practices that can be found throughout the United States. It is worth bearing in mind, however, that professional development has significantly been structured around incentives for advancement on local salary scales, typically via participation in degree or non-degree university-based programmes. A further incentive is state policy that requires renewal of teaching licenses via accumulation of “continuing education units” that may be offered by a wide range of service providers. Access to professional learning is heavily dependent on where one teaches, with great inequalities across settings. Inner city and rurally isolated schools tend to be learning-impooverished relative to their more affluent and cosmopolitan counterparts in suburban and small town locations.

What teachers need to know and be able to do

A part of the quest for excellence and setting new standards in education in the United States today means redefining what “teachers need to know and be able to do”. Teachers need to redefine their way of understanding subject matter that goes beyond procedural understanding – their understanding must enable students to create useful cognitive maps of the subject and link it to other ideas. The students need to see ways that ideas connect across disciplines and are applicable to everyday life. The teachers need pedagogical content knowledge

and they need to understand how students learn; their modes of cognition, information processing, and communication.

Teachers are expected to know about child development – how children and adolescents think and behave; what their interests are; what they already know and can build on. They also should know how to encourage students' social, physical and emotional growth. Given that the challenge of systemic reform is to provide excellent education to all students, teachers are being asked to develop a deep understanding of differences in students' culture, language, family, community, gender, as well as difference in intelligence and learning modes. They need to be able to listen to children without stereotyping and pre-conceptions, understand student motivation and different ways of learning.

Teachers need to know about curriculum resources and technologies, they need to master a variety of teaching strategies and they also need to know how to collaborate with other teachers and structure interactions among students so that important shared learning can occur. Finally, teachers need to be able to analyse and reflect on their own practice and assess the effects of their teaching on student learning. They need to be able to evaluate what students are understanding so that they can reshape their plans and adapt the curriculum to reach their goals.

These expectations of what teachers need to know and be able to do are imbedded in the certification process of the *National Board for Professional Teaching Standards* (NBPTS). Teachers who aspire to be certified by the NBPTS must present evidence – through entries in a portfolio that they create and through exercises completed in an assessment centre – that they meet the expectations of this redefined knowledge base.

POLICY INFLUENCES

The vital importance of teachers in the reform movement was given the stamp of approval by President Clinton in a Memorandum for the Secretary of Education of September 1996 which dealt with the subject of promoting excellence and accountability in teaching. The President said that “every child needs – and deserves – dedicated, outstanding teachers, who know their subject matter, are effectively trained and know how to teach to high standards and to make learning come alive for students”. He went on to say that to reach this goal, the nation must recruit and retain talented teachers; require tougher licensing and certification standards; prepare teachers with high quality pre-service and in-service training; remove incompetent teachers quickly and fairly and create systems for identifying and rewarding good teachers “for achieving outstanding levels of knowledge and skills, especially as reflected in National Board

Standards or other standards of quality adopted by States or local school districts” (The White House, 1996).

Priority and agenda setting in professional development, however, tends to be fragmented, and difficult to harness to organisational goals. As a function of local school governance processes, school and district priorities are subject to constant change, fads, and direction from multiple, competing sources. No single agency appears to be in charge of professional development as a fundamental resource for systematic educational improvement.

As the targets for the professional development of teachers are very ambitious the question of who is to put these ambitious goals into practice is crucial. In the United States, both private and public partnership in the advancement of education and the professional development of teachers is encouraged. The country’s enterprising spirit, the fact that education is seen as part of a “free market” and the availability of private funding through business and foundations means that many partners are welcome to help carry out the goal of raising standards and implementing systemic reform.

In 1994, a number of prominent educators, researchers, teachers, business leaders, state and district leaders set up the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future which is funded by the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation of New York. Its mission is to provide an action agenda for “meeting America’s educational challenges, connecting the quest for higher student achievement with the need for teachers who are knowledgeable, skilful and committed to meeting the needs of all students. The Commission is dedicated to helping develop policies and practices aimed at ensuring powerful teaching and learning in all communities as America’s schools and children enter the 21st century”.

As a result of its research the Commission has come up with some highly critical data concerning standards for teachers professional development. It states that roughly 25 per cent of newly hired teachers lack qualifications for their jobs, more than 12 per cent enter the classroom without any formal training and 14 per cent do not meet state standards.

The main recommendations of the Commission, after two years of study and discussion are contained in a report *What Matters Most: Teaching for America’s Future*. They are ambitious and focused, arguing that the only way of implementing systemic reform and high standards of teaching and learning is to upgrade the teaching profession. The report gives a blueprint for recruiting, preparing, supporting and rewarding excellent teachers in all American schools.

The Secretary of State for Education Richard Reilly has largely endorsed the report’s findings. He acknowledges that changes are needed in the professional development of teachers in the United States. He sees in-service training as the

weakest part of a four stage development, each part of which is undergoing change at present. The first is the recruitment, hopefully, of “good quality teachers”, followed by a reformed pre-service training, leading on to proper induction and then to good in-service development: “Over the next ten years we will need two million new teachers. We need good quality teachers who will teach to a high standard, who understand technology, who understand diversity and difference in pupils.”

Other policy partners

Policy is shaped by other players as well and increasingly by the teachers’ unions. The National Education Association (NEA) is a professional association chartered by the US Congress and represents virtually all teachers outside the large cities (1.65 million teachers) while the American Federation of Teachers represents teachers in cities as well as educational support personnel, university professors in some instances and administrators. They both agree on raising standards and the professional development of teachers.

Traditionally concerned with pay, conditions of work and hours, the NEA tended to ignore teacher training. The last two years have seen renewed interest in the subject and the NEA has become a main supporter of the National Commission for Accreditation of Teacher Education as well as for the work of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

The NEA is carrying out a nation-wide study (the KEY Project) on the effects of school organisation on student achievement. Research and development within the KEY’s project is demonstrating that in-service training and building schools as learning organisations are closely linked. It confirms also that professional development of teachers occurs by their participation in school development. The National Foundation for the Improvement of Education is the Foundation arm of NEA and funds programmes for teams of teachers working in public schools – a priority is professional development of teachers. A recent survey carried out by the Foundation has helped identify strategies for this development.

The initial impetus for “redesigning low-performing schools” came from the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) when its president (the late Albert Shanker) launched the idea of giving teachers professional status in the same manner as that enjoyed by doctors, lawyers, etc. through a system of professional certification. This was to be a keystone in “preserving public education” (*It is as much the duty of the union to preserve public education as it is to negotiate a good contract* – Albert Shanker). The AFT has supported the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards and it works at state level by providing leadership, training, conferences, and summer programmes to further the professional development of

teachers and the improvement of schools. Sometimes the union is faced with the contradictions of supporting the removal of “bad teachers” rather than defending their position at all costs. The AFT is, however, recognised as a leader in educational reform given its integration at grass-roots level in schools, districts, states, and its strategies can make or break the implementation of systemic reform.

The role of States and School Districts is also crucial for implementing the recommendations of the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future, the certification process as well as all other aspects of systemic reform. But, given the autonomy and diversity at different levels, there is, of course, no binding commitment. Although states have all the formal authority in schooling, they usually delegate most of it to localities, the majority of which delegate a great deal to individual schools. Governments also are divided by the separation of powers: since legislative, executive and judicial branches of state and federal governments respond to different incentives and operate in different ways, professionals working in them often see the same issues differently. Local schools illustrate this division: full-time professional executives work with part-time legislatures known as school-boards. Within this framework a large role is open for private organisations which carry out much of the work that government agencies accomplish in other countries, such as student assessment, materials development and publishing of textbooks.

Quality

Teacher quality is seen to depend on three major strategies: accreditation, licensing and certification. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education accredits certain teacher training institutions and programmes based on standards it has developed which are compatible with the standards developed by professional associations such as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. About 500 out of 1 200 teacher education programmes have received such accreditation.

Licensing of teachers is done at state level. Under the auspices of the Council of Chief State School Officers, a group of 30 states and professional organisations has formed the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium. This consortium has created a set of performance, standards compatible with the standards of the NBPTS, for new teacher licensing and is developing new examinations that measure these standards. These are high-profile, reform standards but it is not clear yet how many states will adopt them. This is partly because they are in competition with the National Teacher Examination and with many different licensing regulations put forth by individual states who regard licensure as their prerogative. One result of the multiplicity of different regulations is that the standards required of new teachers vary widely.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) was created in 1987 (outcome of the task force *A Nation Prepared* that was set up in 1986 in response to *A Nation at Risk*) as an independent, non-profit organisation to establish high standards for what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do and to develop and operate a national voluntary system to assess and certify teachers who meet those standards. The Board is made up of 63 members, the majority of whom must be classroom teachers, others are members of school boards, governors, legislators, administrators and teacher educators.

The certification process is seen not only a way of assessing accomplished teachers, but also as a tool for professional development, as well as a way of implementing high and rigorous standards for teaching. The process takes over a year and the fee is \$2 000. Teachers applying must hold a BA degree and have at least three years of experience in teaching. Teachers are asked to demonstrate, by using concrete examples of their work with students and student learning; their commitment to students; their knowledge of their subject; how they teach it; how they manage and monitor student learning; their own reflections; and evaluation of their own work.

They also need to demonstrate their readiness for life-long learning through participation in learning communities. Teachers prepare portfolios of their work, of students' work; they record videos of their teaching supported by commentaries and self-evaluation. They must define the goals and purposes of instruction, offer reflections on what occurred and comment on the effectiveness of the practice. A second phase of the certification process involves completing essay-type exercises at an assessment centre. These are designed to complement the portfolio through testing of knowledge, skills and abilities across the range and topics of the certificate field.

Standards have been developed in 16 certificate areas and accompanying assessment in six of these, *e.g.* Early Childhood/Generalist (age 3-8), Early Adolescence/English Language Arts (age 11-15); Adolescence and Young Adulthood/Mathematics (age 14-18). The certificates are organised along two dimensions: the development level of the student and the subject being taught. Once awarded the certificate lasts for 10 years and teachers who have obtained certification are expected to play a leading role in school reform. According to the Board "this advocate-candidate relationship provides a forum for teachers to form strong collegial relationships, share best teaching strategies, lessons and instructional techniques, and help each other become stronger teachers".

The NBPTS regards its certification process as a prime means of shaping teacher development. It sees the process of preparing for and undertaking certification in itself as a powerful form of professional development, together with such other forms of participation as scoring assessments, assisting other teachers in the process, etc. The national goal is to have a certified teacher in every one of the

nation's 106 000 schools by the year 2000. Considerable resources have been expended by the NBPTS and by early 1997 some 595 teachers had been certified and a further 250 were expected to be certified before the end of the year.

Trends in teacher professional development

In trying to understand what works in the “new” reformed professional development of teachers, one needs to understand the “institution” of teacher professional development as part of the system of schooling. This has been embedded in federal, state and local policy and governance arrangements; in organisational routines within schools and districts, and in pervasive cultural assumptions about teaching, learning and schooling – these can be very difficult to change. The reform of institutionalised practices requires focused, steady, and long term effort and the description of innovative practices must be set against the background of an over-determined status quo.

The prevailing “service-delivery” model of in-service training used by many school districts, particularly those that are more centralised and large, features a menu of short-term workshops. Some observers regard this model as deficient in many respects, not least its lack of connection to school-wide improvement and its weak follow-up in teachers’ schools and classrooms.

An increasing number of districts are becoming more active in the organisation and management of professional development in order to couple it more directly to district reform priorities. Some districts create a central office operation including district personnel (see Case Study 2), with external consultants hired by the district, and district-wide in-service education. Other districts decentralise the office to school level, where programmes, priorities and even dedicated funding may support school-based professional development that is loosely aligned with district priorities. A trend in large urban districts has been to “downsize” the central office and locate resources in the school.

A related trend is to situate professional development within the context of school-wide development rather than treating it as an individual option. Organisational focus, initial and follow-up activity are at the school site in order to have more impact on instruction. Motivation for professional development is less related in these cases to individual teacher advancement as the goals are more collective, oriented to implementation of innovations rather than the pursuit of individually determined learning. Popular instructional innovations often find their way onto district agendas, influencing school-wide professional development – for example, certain models of lesson planning, the use of co-operative grouping in instruction, “authentic assessment”, the use of interdisciplinary, integrative approaches to the curriculum, etc.

Professional development is often used in the movement to restructure the organisation of schools thus focusing professional development on implementation of organisational change rather than instructional innovations that require co-ordinated actions from whole faculties or faculty sub-groups. Examples include shifting to block scheduling of classes and participating in school reform networks.

A third important trend is to align professional development with standards based systemic reform. Systemic reform has meant the creation of standards for a wide range of educational matters including curriculum, student learning, teaching, teacher education and staff development itself. Standards have become a centrepiece of educational reform in the 1990s with nearly every professional association sponsoring at least one project to develop standards. A dominant criticism of American education is that students' work is "decoupled" from teachers' work, teachers' from administrators', administrators' from communities', and that functions such as evaluation, assessment, curriculum development, and instructional improvement are not closely linked. A contradiction seems to reside in the fact that US education features many policies, rules, regulations, and bureaucratic procedures designed to yield tight coupling, while in fact observers long have noted the actual loose coupling of organisational elements. The paraphernalia of bureaucracy appears to create a "logic of confidence" that orderly, accepted procedures are in place, when, in fact, they serve primarily symbolic functions but do not direct the productive work of the schools. Systemic or standards-based reform is an effort to tighten the coupling of key elements around academic performance.

Innovative models in teacher professional development

In keeping with the trends mentioned above, the innovative models are often school-based, focused on classroom teaching or organisational change:

- *Practice in master teacher's classrooms*: involves teachers observing other "master" teachers using different approaches to common teaching tasks. New York City's District 2, together with New York University, has established a programme that combines classroom visits with extended classroom follow-up. The district identifies resident teachers and visiting teachers who observe each other's classes and then give each other feedback. This particular model is part of a district-wide effort to improve instruction (see Case Study 1).
- *Teacher-as-learner model*: this involves bringing teams of teachers together for several weeks in a programme that uses learner-centred instruction to help them understand the subject content they will be teaching during the school year. In the Summermath, for example, a mix of primary and secondary teachers attempts to solve the sorts of mathematics problems they

might use in their own classrooms. The teachers are expected to go through the same thinking processes as their students, solve problems themselves, struggling as they do so to understand ideas in maths which they may have taught, but never fully grasped. Follow-up is offered during the school year and teachers can support each other in practising what they learned.

- *New professional tasks and roles*: this involves teacher training carrying out new tasks and roles organised around such functions as student assessment, mentoring novice teachers, local curriculum development, peer evaluation of teaching and others. In Vermont, for example, the state changed the system of assessment to rely on the evaluation of student work rather than the standard test questions. Teachers had to reflect on and agree on how they would evaluate student work and this discussion exercise with colleagues stimulated learning about the curriculum, assessment and student competence. It also gave teachers a deeper understanding of the content and how student work reflected student knowledge.
- *Networks among teachers*: an alternative in the United States to either centrally provided training or university-based coursework is the use of voluntary networks that connect teachers across and within schools which are interested in pursuing new ideas about teaching and learning. These networks often arise informally and at the grass roots level, stimulated by charismatic educators who attract a following around particular reform ideas and themes. Key characteristics of these networks are a strong sense of commitment to the innovation or the reform theme; a shared sense of purpose; a mixture of information sharing and psychological support; an effective facilitator; voluntary participation and equal treatment. Such networks may link a variety of roles including classroom teachers; school principals; district supervisors; university professors; government administrators; and others.
- *School-based instructional improvement*: involves managing instructional improvement by engaging school personnel (i.e. subject matter departments in secondary schools) in systematic, carefully staged sequences of change around the use of particular instructional approaches. Critical to this model is involving the principal as well as teachers and students in implementing changed practices so that all the major participants of the change are committed to it over a sustained period of time. Important features of this model are the school-based character, the involvement of all the role players in the change, the use of multiple strategies for supporting teacher learning and change, and the total time needed to effect the introduction and widespread, regular use of new instructional practices

in a school. Important too is that students are involved in the process and must also change their practices and beliefs.

- *Small grant programmes for teachers* is one strategy for giving more local control and giving funding to teachers or groups of teachers to encourage them to develop their own innovations and new teaching practices, including provision for the teachers to contract for outside assistance. Such programmes can target central priorities and can be sponsored by both public and private sources. In New York City, the Exxon Foundation sponsored a competition for teachers wherein they could apply for funding to support their activities. The National Diffusion Network, established by the federal government provided funding for nation-wide dissemination of teachers' work.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

No accurate estimates are available for the amounts spent on in-service training and professional development. In terms of dollars spent, the figure is thought to be quite substantial yet many analysts argue that it was not used in a focused and productive manner. The role of the Department of Education is, as in many areas, that of funding. The Eisenhower Programme, which is a federal programme, allocates \$10 million to all states and this money may be used for the professional development of teachers.

In the past, the individual states had not played a leading role in shaping professional development for teachers but that situation is changing as states begin to provide funding for professional development or to increase the time that must be set aside for it. Within the context of Goals 2000 reform, the National Governors' Association has been encouraging states to improve their policies on the professional development of teachers. As a result, some states are setting aside funds for professional development and many have created regional agencies to offer in-service programmes. Although state policies have affected the amount of professional development, they have not been concerned with the quality – leaving this to the discretion of local boards of education and district administrators.

Overall, however, the support in schools and districts for the organisational aspects of teacher professional development is relatively modest. In particular, the time available for teacher learning is limited by the structure of the teachers' workday and by popular conceptions of what counts as teachers' work such as direct contact with students. Time for professional learning has not been legitimised on a wide scale within the salaried workday, relegating this function to afternoons, evenings, weekends and summers.

It has become more difficult in recent years to estimate the commitment of resources for professional development of teachers in the United States. This is because it is hard to quantify how much is being put into the “systemic reform” process and within that, the amount spent on professional development.

The first Case Study is a good example of how a district re-organised its resources around using professional development of teachers as a method of bringing system-wide changes in instruction of pupils. The second examines how a dedicated centre approaches professional development while the third looks at the increasing part played by networks.

CASE STUDY 1

LOCAL DISTRICT 2 (NEW YORK CITY)

Local District 2 is a large school district in New York City; the geographical boundaries extend from 96th Street in the north down to the east side of Central Park, crossing to include the west side of Manhattan at 59th Street. The population is highly diversified, it includes some of the highest priced residential areas on the upper East side of Manhattan and some of the most densely populated poor communities in the city in Chinatown in Lower Manhattan and in Hell’s Kitchen on the West Side. Local District 2 is one of the few districts to create a concerted strategy for using professional development of teachers to bring about system-wide changes in instruction.

This became possible when a very determined superintendent was appointed in 1987, with strong leadership qualities who took charge of systemic change by putting professional development to improve teaching and learning at the centre of reform. This strategy involved changing the leadership of schools, through replacing ineffective teachers and principals with motivated ones who were ready to take on the challenge of change and espouse instructional improvement as their main aim in teaching (50 per cent of teachers were replaced in eight years).

A strong belief system and a culture of shared values were created around instructional improvement to guide the work of teachers and administrators, giving them a set of organising principles about the process of systemic change as well as a set of specific activities or models of staff development. This meant that the work of all actors, from central office administrators, to teachers and support staff was organised around instruction, with their being no other objective.

Most of the professional development of teachers is carried out in the classroom, the prevailing theory being that changes in instruction occur only when teachers receive more or less continuous supervision and support focused on the practical details of what it means to teach effectively. One approach used in District 2 is the Professional Development Laboratory, which is basically a system

of visiting teachers participating/learning in the classroom of a designated resident teacher. Teachers can apply to become “visiting teachers” and are accorded this training not because they are deficient but because of certain priorities.

District 2 also invests in professional development consultants who work directly with teachers individually and in groups at the school site. Consultants may be recruited outside the district or even outside the country if it is considered that they have exceptional qualifications (Australian literacy specialists, for example). The consulting model is labour intensive in that consultants are involved with individuals and small groups of teachers repeatedly over time around a limited set of instructional problems. The district has chosen to be involved in literacy and maths, rather than spreading its investment over a large number of areas. Peer networking and teachers visiting each others schools and classrooms have also become a part of the professional development model. Off-site training takes place and this is planned and integrated in the support system for teachers during the school year. It is considered that summer programmes do not make any sense unless there are resources to support direct assistance to teachers during the school year.

The superintendent and principals in District 2 have established a routine of visiting schools with one formal review of each school and its plan for reaching objectives at least once per year. The boundaries between the management of the system and staff development are intentionally blurred – for example district and school-level budget priorities are expressed in terms of expenditures on instructional consultants, substitute teachers and access to workshops that lead to change in instruction. Principals’ conferences are organised around discussion and inquiry about instruction, rather than routine administrative matters.

District 2 illustrates how a school district can support sustained instructional improvement through a focused and selective use of resources for staff development, given that the strategy permeates all aspects of the district’s organisation, including routine management.

CASE STUDY 2

CENTRE FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT (BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS)

The Centre for Leadership Development was created in 1994 as a system-wide initiative of the Boston Teachers’ Union and the Boston School Committee to provide training to teachers, administrators and parents. It has now grown to be responsible for the coordination of training and professional development for all Boston Public Schools. CLD is responsible for developing innovative models of professional development that respond to teachers’ needs and facilitate collaboration, thus creating a professional development programme that is more comprehensive and unified than the sum of fragmented, individual efforts.

CLD's mandate is to improve student achievement by "creating opportunities for educators and school-based support staff who work directly with students to continually examine their practice, expand content knowledge, challenge their assumptions about teaching and learning, develop leadership skills and create self-sustaining learning communities among colleagues with schools, clusters and across the system both within and across subjects". CLD works with teachers (K-12 in all disciplines), school administrators, para-professionals, school communities and clusters of schools; it also calls upon help from universities, the business community, foundations, etc.

Services provided by CLD are the following: 1) training of teachers and principals directly either by using Centre staff or by contracting outside organisations; 2) collaborating with internal departments to provide training that builds on the expertise of both departments and supports Boston Public Schools in areas that have been defined as priorities such as curriculum development, instructional practice, pedagogy, etc.; 3) co-ordinating the professional development being offered throughout the system and supporting the provision of professional development throughout other departments within the system by providing technical assistance as departments plan programmes; and 4) acting as a broker with foundations and outside programme providers to develop innovative professional development programmes and grant opportunities that reflect the system's priorities, serve as models, and build capacity at the school level. The strongest commitment is to enriching school-based professional development opportunities.

CLD regularly evaluates its work by asking participants to evaluate the programmes. However, it is felt that the most effective indicator of success will be CLD's obsolescence when successful professional development will be integrated in all schools and departments.

CASE STUDY 3

NETWORKS AND REFORM IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Networking among teachers is increasingly used as a tool for carrying out and sustaining school reforms. Networking allows teachers to engage in concrete school-based, self-directed learning while avoiding the limitations of institutional roles, hierarchies and geographic locations – thus encouraging them to work together with different kinds of people. It gives participants opportunities to grow and develop in a professional community that focuses on learning adapted to teacher's tasks and professional lives.

Some key ingredients of successful networks are: their strong sense of commitment to innovation; a sense of shared purpose; a mixture of information sharing and psychological support; an effective facilitator; voluntary participation

and equal treatment. Forms used by networks such as workshops, study teams, and study groups take on new meaning because of the collaborative sharing and supporting links that are created among the groups. Workshops, for example provide opportunities for participants to contribute their own knowledge and skills to the work of the network as well as supporting participants in working directly on projects that will be useful in their classrooms.

A study carried out by the National Centre for Restructuring Education, Schools and Teaching at Columbia, Teachers' College, examining 16 such networks concluded that this strategy provided a new look at the professional development of teachers. Among the findings were the following: that the different networks had a similar way of bringing people together; working from a strong contextual basis their agendas were more often challenging than prescriptive; learning was more indirect than direct; formats for work were more collaborative than individualistic; attempts at change were more integrated than fragmented; approaches to leadership were more facilitative than directive; multi-perspective thinking prevailed as did flexible action and valuing knowledge that was context-specific. "At a time when schools are re-inventing themselves to serve a changing society, these problematic yet powerful third spaces are becoming an important force changing American education" it concluded.

COMMENTARY ON TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

The professional development of teachers in the United States today is deeply imbedded in systemic reform, at least from the perspective of reforms at federal and state levels. It is arguable, however, that at the local level, in many schools and districts, systemic reform has yet to penetrate operations, so that teacher professional development goes on much as before. The reform programme has been described as akin to storms lashing the surface of the ocean that may or may not disturb the depths.

A major question is whether the new goals of learning as defined by the changes can be successfully applied in training teachers. The pedagogy of professional development needs to reflect the pedagogy that teachers are expected to use. Too often familiar practices such as workshops employ standard methods.

Another concern is the capacity of schools to respond to alternative practices, especially those involving increased interaction among teachers which would provide opportunities for teachers to explore and evaluate their own work, carry out peer review mentoring, etc. This kind of team work is not widespread across the United States – in many schools teachers rarely interact with one another and traditional beliefs support the view that expertise resides outside the teaching

ranks. This style of professional development depends on redefining the culture of most schools.

Identifying innovative practices in professional development in the United States is a risky business and susceptible to error. As with many other reforms, what seems promising today may disappear tomorrow. It is evident, nevertheless, that the role of professional development has assumed greater importance as an element of American educational reform and that the redefinition of the standards of a good education will inevitably have an impact on the teaching profession.

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