Back to the Future
Legacies, Continuities and Changes in Educational Policy, Practice and Research

Maria Assunção Flores
University of Minho, Portugal

Ana Amélia Carvalho
University of Coimbra, Portugal

Fernando Ilídio Ferreira
University of Minho, Portugal

and

Maria Teresa Vilaça (Eds.)
University of Minho, Portugal

Schools and teachers are facing various challenges in a rapidly changing world. In such circumstances, discussing and sharing concerns of mutual interest regarding policy, practice and research is crucial to creating more sophisticated understandings of the various challenges as a first step in the improvement of education. While the future should not be imprisoned in the past, the past does provide valuable lessons that will undergo new iterations in constructing the future. The future will be multi-faceted and complex and the different chapters included in this book are intended to provide important contributions from which to build the future of education.

The different chapters provide readers with international perspectives, frameworks and empirical evidence of legacies, continuities and changes in educational policy, practice and research in teaching, teacher education and learning. We hope that they inspire the readers to build the future and to change their own professional realities.

—Cheryl J. Craig, Ph.D., Professor, University of Houston, Houston, TX, USA, Secretary, ISATT

This book metaphorically captures the looking backward to the past—pressing forward to the future that typically takes place on celebratory occasions. It causes us to pause and remember even as we race toward a time unknown to us. In a sense, the authors featured in this book serve as tour guides pointing out legacies, continuities and changes in teaching and teacher education.

I strongly urge readers not only to peruse the chapters that follow, but to distill them to their essences and to glean what is of value to be learned from them. In conclusion, the ISATT Executive especially thanks the co-editors of this volume who have compiled a superb collection of chapters on a timely and relevant topic.
BACK TO THE FUTURE
Back to the Future
Legacies, Continuities and Changes in Educational Policy, Practice and Research

Edited by
Maria Assunção Flores
University of Minho, Portugal

Ana Amélia Carvalho
University of Coimbra, Portugal

Fernando Ilídio Ferreira
University of Minho, Portugal

and

Maria Teresa Vilaça
University of Minho, Portugal

SENSE PUBLISHERS
ROTTERDAM / BOSTON / TAIPEI
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements ................................................................................................ vii
Foreword ................................................................................................................ ix
Preface ..................................................................................................................... xi

## Section 1: Teachers and the Teaching Profession

1. Building a Profession of Teaching ................................................................. 3  
   *Linda Darling-Hammond*

2. Teachers: How Long Until the Future? ......................................................... 29  
   *António Nóvoa*

3. Teachers’ Lives and Work: Back to the Future? .......................................... 39  
   *Ciaran Sugrue*

4. The New Lives of Teachers .......................................................................... 57  
   *Christopher Day*

5. Teachers’ Voices: Learning from Professional Lives ................................. 75  
   *Hafðís Guðjónsdóttir and Sólveig Karvelsdóttir*

## Section 2: Leadership and School Curriculum: Contexts and Actors

6. Living the Janus Head: Conceptualizing Leaders and Leadership in Schools in the 21st Century ................................................................. 93  
   *Geert Kelchtermans and Liesbeth Piot*

7. Development of a New Curriculum Leadership Model with a Focus on Its Relation to the Professional Learning Communities ......................... 115  
   *Toshiyuki Kihara, Hirotoshi Yano and Hisayoshi Mori*

8. Advancing Equity and Inclusion in Schools: An Awareness-Action Framework ........................................................................................................ 129  
   *Jude Butcher, Colleen Leathley and Kristin Johnston*

9. Cognitive Skills in Palestinian Curricula and Textbooks ............................ 147  
   *Shukri Sanber and Irene Hazou*

## Section 3: Perspectives and Challenges in Teacher Education and Learning

10. Learning in Professional Development Schools: Perspectives of Teacher Educators, Mentor Teachers and Student Teachers .......................... 165  
    *Joke Daemen, Els Laroes, Paulien C. Meijer and Jan Vermunt*
TABLE OF CONTENTS

11. Teacher Professional Learning in Digital Age Environments .................. 189
   *Catherine McLoughlin*

12. Developing Experienced-based Principles of Practice for Teaching Teachers ........................................................................................................... 207
   *Tom Russell and Shawn Michael Bullock*

13. Challenges to Promoting Quality in Preservice Practicum Experiences ...... 219
   *Tom Russell and Andrea K. Martin*

   *Sonja van Putten, Gerrit Stols and Sarah Howie*

Section 4: Pedagogy and Tutoring in Higher Education

15. The Scholarship of Pedagogy in Adverse Settings. Lessons from Experience ........................................................................................................ 257
   *Flávia Vieira*

16. Tutors’ and Students’ Views of Tutoring: A Study in Higher Education ...... 277
   *Sandra Fernandes and Maria Assunção Flores*

17. An Online Programme to Prepare Teacher Tutors: An Experience Involving a University-School Partnership .................................................................. 297
   *Renata Portela Rinaldi, Maria Iolanda Monteiro, Aline Maria de Medeiros Rodrigues Reali and Rosa Maria M. Annunciato de Oliveira*

Contributors ........................................................................................................ 311

Reviewers ............................................................................................................ 323
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

*Back to the future* is both a celebration and the outcome of the hard work and generosity of many people. Our thanks go to all our colleagues of the conference organising committee who helped us in putting together an enjoyable and professionally rewarding ISATT Conference in 2011 in Braga, Portugal. We are grateful to the keynote speakers, presenters of papers and participants for their willingness to share thoughts, ideas, and research findings related to the conference theme. The keynote addresses and the selected papers included in this volume illustrate well the wide range and the quality of the contributions made during the conference.

We are also indebted to the international scientific committee of the 2011 ISATT conference and the international reviewers of the chapters who generously contribute to blind review the proposals and whose contribution has made the high quality level of the papers possible. Their comments and suggestions helped the editors to make decisions about the chapters to be included in this book. Special thanks go to Patrícia Santos and Eva Fernandes for their help in compiling and editing the chapters. We also would like to thank Michel Lokhorst of Sense Publishers whose help and guidance throughout the editing process of this book was of paramount importance. We are also grateful to the authors who made the edition of this book possible.

Finally, a special word of gratitude goes to Professor Cheryl Craig, Secretary of ISATT, for her support, guidance and insightful suggestions for the conference organisation and for her foreword to this book.
ISATT’s 15th biennial conference held in Braga, Portugal was aptly titled “Back to the Future: Legacies, Continuities and Changes in Educational Policy, Practice and Research.” Edited by Maria Assunção Flores (Braga Conference Organizer), Ana Amélia Carvalho, Fernando Ilídio Ferreira and Maria Teresa Vilaça (Planning Committee Members), this book, which bears the same title as the conference, presents a rich sampling of the international scholarship featured at Braga. As readers browse the Table of Contents, they will quickly see chapters authored by researchers dotted around the globe: Australia, Brazil, Iceland, Palestine, South Africa, to name but a few. This is fully reflective of ISATT’s diverse, international character. ISATT members currently hail from 45 nations, an increase of 21 countries since 2008.

Not only does this important volume address the 2011 ISATT conference theme and the global nature of the organization’s membership, it will be released at the 16th biennial conference in Ghent, Belgium in 2013. There, ISATT’s 30th Anniversary will be celebrated. There, ISATT’s grassroots emergence from members focusing on Teachers and Teaching Thinking to a full-fledged international organization centered on Teachers and Teaching will be remembered. This book metaphorically captures the looking backward to the past – pressing forward to the future that typically takes place on celebratory occasions. It causes us to pause and remember even as we race toward a time unknown to us. In a sense, the authors featured in this book serve as tour guides pointing out legacies, continuities and changes in teaching and teacher education. For example, Braga keynote speakers, Linda Darling-Hammond, Christopher Day, Geert Kelchtermans, António Nóvoa, Ciaran Sugrue and Flávia Vieira cause us to consider “how long until the future” (António Nóvoa), “the Janus head” of leadership (Geert Kelchtermans), “adverse settings” (Flávia Vieira) and the “new lives of teachers” (Christopher Day). The full complement of chapter authors offer different apertures of the educational lens, ranging from teachers and teachers’ voices to leaders and leadership, and from overarching perspectives and challenges in teacher education to a discussion of pedagogy and tutoring in higher education. At the core, however, ISATT’s purpose remains unchanged. Insights into a myriad of relevant topics are sought and the enhancement of the quality of education is of foremost importance.

I strongly urge readers not only to peruse the chapters that follow, but to distill them to their essences and to glean what is of value to be learned from them. In conclusion, the ISATT Executive especially thanks the co-editors of this volume who have compiled a superb collection of chapters on a timely and relevant topic.

Cheryl J. Craig.
Secretary, ISATT
This book reflects the key theme of the 15th Biennial ISATT conference 2011, Back to the Future: Legacies, Continuities and Changes in Educational Policy, Practice and Research, and it focuses attention on a set of concerns that apply to efforts worldwide to meet current challenges through research which contribute to the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning at all levels of education.

Schools and teachers are facing various challenges in a rapidly changing world. In such circumstances, discussing and sharing concerns of mutual interest regarding policy, practice and research is crucial to creating more sophisticated understandings of the various challenges as a first step in the improvement of education. While the future should not be imprisoned in the past, the past does provide valuable lessons that will undergo new iterations in constructing the future. The future will be multi-faceted and complex and the different chapters included in this book are intended to provide important contributions from which to build the future of education.

Recent changes in educational policy worldwide have affected teachers’ work and life in all kinds of intended and unintended ways, while research evidence is conflicted regarding many of these influences. Evidence of this contested terrain has implications for teacher education, including initial preparation and continuing professional development understood as a lifelong continuum. What are the continuities and changes in teacher professionalism? To what extent have policies on teacher career and evaluation impacted upon teaching quality in schools and classrooms? What lessons can be learned from the past in order to enhance teacher professional learning?

Societal and cultural changes, locally, nationally and globally, impact in many ways upon teachers’ work and educational leadership. What are the implications of these for policy, practice and research? What is the role of school leaders, teachers and other stakeholders in improving education for all in contexts of increasing diversity?

In addition, networks and partnerships have been increasing in number and variety as a means of meeting new and emerging challenges to education professionals. In addressing these trends in contemporary societies, a sense of community and democracy emerges as possible responses to working in uncharted terrain, and as a means of building capacity and creating some situated certainty. What kind of partnerships in education may be built amongst universities, schools and working professional organisations? What is the role of learning and practice communities for equity and inclusion? In what ways may these communities be created and nurtured?

Also, Higher Education has been made more accessible to an increasing number of students. Such developments represent considerable challenges to established and traditional institutional structures, cultures, curricula and pedagogies. What are the significant policies and trends in Higher Education nationally and internationally? What is the role of teacher educators in this new scenario? How
can the scholarship of teaching and learning be enhanced in Higher Education institutional environments, both virtual and real?

This book has been written to address these questions and to provide an international forum of what can be learned from the past and how lessons learned from the past can be useful to face and respond to current challenges and to envisage ways of looking forward to the future.

The chapters included in this book result from a set of keynote addresses and refereed papers given at the 2011 International Study Association on Teachers and Teaching (ISATT) Conference, held in Braga, Portugal. The conference was attended by 400 delegates from more than 40 countries from all the continents.

This book has been developed so that it reflects the wide range of contexts and issues discussed during the conference. It is presented in four sections, each one encompassing a key dimension of current challenges and trends in teaching and teachers’ work and lives, in leadership and school curriculum, in teacher education and learning and in pedagogy and tutoring in higher education. They draw upon the diverse social, historical, cultural and professional contexts of the different authors and they reflect different ways of looking at the questions identified above from diverse stances and research methodologies.

The first section, Teachers and the teaching profession, discusses the current challenges and directions of teaching as a profession and it analyses teachers’ work and lives from an international perspective. The five chapters included in it provide theoretical reflections and compelling empirical evidence of the ways in which teaching and teachers may be enhanced. Chapter 1 – Building a Profession of Teaching – by Linda Darling-Hammond, looks at global lessons that support teaching in order to enhance teacher quality and student learning. The author argues that if teaching is to be a profession that supports effective instruction attention must be paid to building capacity across the entire system including universal high-quality preparation, mentoring, and support and well-designed schools that allow and enable good practice. In Chapter 2 – Teachers: How Long Until the Future? – António Nóvoa critically analyses the distance between discourses about teachers and the tensions and dilemmas that the teaching profession has been facing. He argues for central themes that may redirect the development of the teaching profession, namely the importance of a professionalism that is built from inside the profession, the development of professional knowledge through reflection and experience, the relevance of professional collaboration and the implications of the public space of education with a redefinition of schools and teachers and the celebration of a social contract for education. In Chapter 3 – Teachers’ Lives and Work: Back to the Future? – Ciaran Sugrue looks at teachers’ lives and work internationally and argues that their identities have been a continuous dance between the individual and collective, the prevailing social conditions or policy contexts that at once colour teachers’ lives and work while simultaneously characterising the profession of teaching. He discusses autonomy and accountability in teaching and argues for the need to re-construct a sense of professional responsibility that recognises contemporary realities and seeks to loose constraints in the service of others as well as the professional of teaching. In
Chapter 4 – The New Lives of Teachers – Christopher Day, drawing upon an empirical study, looks at teachers’ professional phases in which commitment, well being, identity and effectiveness varied within and between these phases. He discusses key influences on teacher identity namely biography, experience, life outside the school as well as social and policy expectations, workplace conditions and relationships and the educational ideals of the teacher. He concludes with the analysis of the role of teacher educators as researchers as part of their commitment to learning and argues for activism in giving voice to the connection between policy, research and practice at all levels. Chapter 5 – Teachers’ Voices: Learning from Professional Lives – by Hafdís Guðjónsdóttir and Sólveig Karvelsdóttir, deals with the changing nature of teachers’ professionalism, focusing on the work, lives, knowledge and ethics of the teachers. The authors present teachers’ stories as they discuss their experiences as teachers, and their hopes and beliefs, which are potentially useful for the development of teacher education. They call for a new professionalism with strong knowledge in pedagogy and subject matter along with a passion for teaching, responsibility, and a commitment to children and to the profession.

The second section, Leadership and school curriculum: contexts and actors, provides conceptual frameworks and empirical analyses of the role of school leaders, curriculum developers and teachers in developing better teaching and learning in schools and classrooms. In Chapter 6 – Living the Janus Head: Conceptualising Leaders and Leadership in Schools in the 21st Century – Geert Kelchtermans and Liesbeth Piot, drawing upon a review of the literature about school leadership, develop a model of leadership which integrates the merits of concentrated and distributed leadership and acknowledges the emotional dimension of school leadership. The model provides an integrated picture of the different and dynamic elements of school leadership and their interconnectedness. In Chapter 7 – Development of a New Curriculum Leadership Model with a Focus on Its Relation to the Professional Learning Communities – Toshiyuki Kihara, Hirotoshi Yano, and Hisayoshi Mori based upon three case studies in North America and Japan present a model of curriculum leadership in which professional learning communities allow teachers to learn and improve their competencies through curriculum leadership. The authors develop the idea of networked learning communities and they discuss their potential for curriculum development. Chapter 8 – Advancing Equity and Inclusion in Schools: an Awareness-Action Framework – by Jude Butcher, Colleen Leathley and Kristin Johnston, presents an empirical study on schools’ perceptions of people who are ‘poor’ and the strategies that schools are using to engage with them and other strategies schools may employ to actively connect with them. Findings provide evidence that may inform how schools can appropriately engage with the communities in order to increase equity and inclusion. The authors develop an ‘awareness-action matrix’ as a tool for facilitating engagement, assessment and action in a relational context in which awareness and action are intertwined with equity and inclusion. In Chapter 9 – Cognitive Skills in Palestinian Curricula and Textbooks – Shukri Sanber and Irene Hazou look at curriculum and textbooks used in the three stages of schooling in
Palestine. They analyse the learning objectives of the curricula and the content of the textbooks, their learning activities and their end-of-chapter and end-of-unit exercises. They contend that curricula and textbooks under analysis address and support a variety of thinking skills, although the degree of emphasis on higher thinking skills was found to be stronger in the science textbooks than in the social studies textbooks.

The third section, Perspectives and challenges in teacher education and learning, includes five chapters from different countries and contributors who draw attention to key influences and contexts in teacher education and learning. In Chapter 10 – Learning in Professional Development Schools: Perspectives of Teacher Educators, Mentor Teachers and Student Teachers – Joke Daemen, Els Laroes, Paulien C. Meijer and Jan Vermunt present findings from research aimed at examining learning in Professional Development Schools from the perspective of various stakeholders – teacher educators, mentor teachers and student teachers. The authors analyse the ways in which the participants describe their own personal learning, their personal development and how participating in Professional Development Schools influences their professional development. In Chapter 11 – Teacher Professional Learning in Digital Age Environments – Catherine McLoughlin stresses the advantages of Web 2.0 applications for professional learning. The author highlights emerging learning theories, focusing on the revised framework of teacher knowledge: technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPCK) and on communities of learners and of practice. Finally, she reports on a study conducted with 19 pre-service teachers during their four week practicum, taking advantage of Web 2.0 tools. In Chapter 12 – Developing Experienced-based Principles of Practice for Teaching Teachers – Tom Russell and Shawn Michael Bullock, drawing upon their own experience within the context of collaborative self-study, identify six principles of practice for teaching teachers. The authors use the concept of the authority of experience as a central perspective to develop principles of practice for teaching future teachers. They argue that the characteristics of self-study, such as critical friendship and reflection-in-action, make sustained collaborative self-study an important tool to help teacher educators to examine the assumptions underlying their practices and critical features of their pedagogy. In Chapter 13 – Challenges to Promoting Quality in Preservice Practicum Experiences – Tom Russell and Andrea K. Martin, based upon their own experience as supervisors, look at the importance of practicum as the single most important and valuable element of preservice education. They argue for ways to enhance its quality and they conclude with an agenda for an action plan to improve the quality of practicum learning experience. In Chapter 14 – Professional Identity: A Case Study of Pre-service Mathematics Teachers in South Africa – Sonja van Putten, Gerrit Stols and Sarah Howie present findings from an empirical study of the development of pre-service Professional Mathematics Teacher’s Identity. The authors highlight the strongest influence of student teachers’ personal background, followed by their experiences both at university and during teaching practice.
The fourth section, Pedagogy and tutoring in higher education, provides a set of examples of initiatives in higher education from a diversity of perspectives. In Chapter 15 – The Scholarship of Pedagogy in Adverse Settings: Lessons from Experience – Flávia Vieira, based upon lessons from her own experience with colleagues, looks at the scholarship of pedagogy as a multifaceted practice that involves a reconfiguration of professional identities. The author argues that it is a transitional and risky practice that challenges prevalent cultures regarding teaching and research, raising issues about professionalism and merit in higher education. In Chapter 16 – Tutors’ and Students’ Views of Tutoring: A Study in Higher Education – Sandra Fernandes and Maria Assunção Flores discuss existing literature on tutoring and present an empirical study of tutoring in project-led education at a university. The authors highlight its contribution to student learning and motivation and they analyse its implications for teaching, learning and faculty professional development. In Chapter 17 – Online Programme to Prepare Teacher Tutors: an Experience Involving a University-School Partnership – Renata Portela Rinaldi, Maria Iolanda Monteiro, Aline Maria de Medeiros Rodrigues Reali, Rosa Maria Anunciato de Oliveira describe a Brazilian online programme to prepare 45 K-4 school teacher tutors, during two modules of 120 hours, indicating its strengths and weaknesses.

The chapters included in this book provide readers with international perspectives, frameworks and empirical evidence of legacies, continuities and changes in educational policy, practice and research in teaching, teacher education and learning. We hope that they inspire the readers to build the future and to change their own professional realities.
SECTION 1

TEACHERS AND THE TEACHING PROFESSION
INTRODUCTION

The experience of high-performing school systems suggests that three things matter most: 1) getting the right people to become teachers; 2) developing them into effective instructors and; 3) ensuring that the system is able to deliver the best possible instruction for every child. (Barber & Mourshed, 2007)

As equality of opportunity comes to rest more squarely on the need for quality instruction, issues of how to enhance the professional competence of educators become more important. To ensure equal opportunity in today’s context means enhancing, not limiting, the professional nature of teaching, and for that task state policy as it has been conceived in the past is hardly the best instrument … We need new ways of conceiving the state role and of the strategies at the state’s disposal. (Elmore & Fuhrman, 1993, p. 86)

Nations that have steeply improved their students’ achievement attribute much of their success to their focused investments in teacher preparation and development (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Such investments, in nations like Finland and Singapore, have been organized to create an infrastructure that can routinely recruit and prepare teachers effectively and can support successful teaching at scale.

These nations realize that, without a comprehensive framework for developing strong teaching, new resources in the system are less effective than they otherwise would be: Reforms are poorly implemented where faculty and leaders lack the capacity to put them into action; districts and schools are often unable to develop and maintain comprehensive training opportunities at scale, and scarce professional development dollars are wasted where teachers leave regularly. Furthermore, when a profession’s knowledge is not organized and made available to the practitioners who need it most, advances in the state of both knowledge and practice are slowed.

Good teachers create little oases for themselves while others who are less well-prepared adopt approaches that are ineffective or harmful – sometimes seeking knowledge that is not readily available to them; other times battening down the hatches and eventually becoming impermeable to better ideas. Schools are vulnerable to vendors selling educational snake oils when educators and school boards lack sufficient shared knowledge of learning, curriculum, instruction, and research to make sound decisions about programs and materials. Students experience an instructional hodge-podge caused by the failure of the system to provide the knowledge and tools needed by the educators who serve them.
These counterproductive conditions will continue until teaching becomes a profession like medicine, architecture, accounting, engineering, or law in which every practitioner has the opportunity and the expectation to master the knowledge and skills needed for effective practice, and makes the moral commitment to use this knowledge in the best decisions of their clients. Teaching is today where medicine was in 1910, when Abraham Flexner conducted the famous study of medical education that eventually led to its overhaul. At that time, doctors could be prepared in a three-week training program in which they memorized lists of symptoms and cures or, at the other extreme, in a graduate program of medicine at Johns Hopkins University that included extensive coursework in the sciences of medicine along with clinical training in the newly invented teaching hospital.

In his introduction to the Flexner Report, Henry Pritchett, president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, noted that, although there was a growing science of medicine, most doctors did not get access to this knowledge because of the great unevenness in medical training. He observed that, “(V)ery seldom, under existing conditions, does a patient receive the best aid which it is possible to give him in the present state of medicine, … (because) a vast army of men is admitted to the practice of medicine who are untrained in sciences fundamental to the profession and quite without a sufficient experience with disease” (Flexner & Pritchett, 1910, p. x).

In 1910, there were many who felt medicine could best be learned by following another doctor around in a buggy, learning to apply leeches to reduce fevers and selling tonics that purported to cure everything from baldness to cancer. Flexner’s identification of universities that were successful in conveying new knowledge about the causes and treatment of disease and in creating strong clinical training for medical practice was the stimulus for the reform of medical education. Despite resistance from weaker training sites, the enterprise was transformed over the subsequent two decades through the efforts of state, and later national, accrediting and licensing bodies that ensured doctors would get the best training the field had to offer.

Creating a strong profession in education is not a task that can be tackled school by school or district by district. And creating uniformly strong schools cannot be accomplished without a strong profession. Ultimately, it is essential to develop a well-designed state and national infrastructure that ensures that schools have access to well-prepared teachers and to knowledge about best practices.

GLOBAL LESSONS

Around the world, there is growing recognition that expert teachers and leaders are the key resource for improving student learning, and the highest-achieving nations make substantial investments in teacher quality. In top-ranked nations, supports for teaching have taken the form of:

– Universal high-quality teacher education, completely at government expense, featuring extensive clinical training as well as coursework;
Mentoring for all beginners from expert teachers, coupled with a reduced teaching load and shared planning time;

Ongoing professional learning, embedded in 15 to 25 hours a week of planning and collaboration time at school, plus additional professional learning time to attend institutes and seminars, visit other schools and classrooms, conduct action research and lesson study, and participate in school retreats;

Leadership development built on opportunities that engage expert teachers in curriculum and assessment development, mentoring and coaching, and professional development, as well as pathways that recruit strong teachers into programs that prepare school principals as instructional leaders;

Equitable, competitive salaries, sometimes with additional stipends for hard-to-staff locations, which are comparable with other professions, such as engineering.

Strong Beginnings

High-achieving nations have overhauled teacher education to ensure stronger programs across the enterprise, and to ensure that able candidates can afford to become well-prepared as they enter the profession. In Scandinavia, for example, teacher candidates in Finland, Sweden, Norway, and the Netherlands now receive two to three years of graduate-level preparation for teaching, completely at government expense, plus a living stipend. Typically, this includes at least a full year of training in a school connected to the university, like the model schools in Finland. Programs also include extensive coursework in content-specific pedagogy and a thesis researching an educational problem in the schools.

This is also the practice in Asian nations like Singapore and Korea, and in jurisdictions like Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei, where most teachers prepare in 4 year undergraduate programs, although graduate programs are growing more common. Unlike the United States, where teachers either go into debt to prepare for a profession that will pay them poorly or enter with little or no training, these countries invest in a uniformly well-prepared teaching force by overhauling preparation, recruiting top candidates, and paying them to go to school. Slots in teaching programs are highly coveted in these nations, and shortages are virtually unheard of.

Once teachers are hired, resources are targeted to schools to support mentoring for novices. Generally, induction programs in high achieving nations include: (1) release time for new teachers and mentor teachers to participate in coaching and other induction activities, and (2) training for mentor teachers. In a model like that found in a number of Asian nations, the New Zealand Ministry of Education funds 20 percent release time for new teachers and 10 percent release time for second-year teachers to observe other teachers, attend professional development activities, work on curriculum, and attend courses (Britton, 2006; Clement, 2000). Mentor teachers also have time to observe and meet with beginning teachers. In places like Singapore, mentor teachers receive special training and certification and additional compensation in the salary schedule.
Countries like England, France, Israel, Norway, Singapore, and Switzerland also require formal training for mentor teachers (OECD, 2005). Norwegian principals assign an experienced, highly qualified mentor to each new teacher and the teacher education institution then trains the mentor and takes part in in-school guidance (OECD, 2005). Through its National Literacy and Numeracy Strategies, England trains coaches for new teachers about both effective pedagogies for students and the techniques to get teachers to employ them (Barber & Mourshed, 2007). In some Swiss states the new teachers in each district meet in reflective practice groups twice a month with an experienced teacher who is trained to facilitate their discussions of common problems for new teachers (Stansbury & Zimmerman, 2000). In Singapore, master teachers who have received training from the Institute of Education are appointed to lead the coaching and development of new and veteran teachers in each school (Barber & Mourshed, 2007).

Support for Collaboration and Inquiry

There is also a continuous effort to improve the practice of both teaching and teacher development. For example, the many articles that have been written about the “secret” to Finland’s success point to its dramatic overhaul of teacher education and teaching since the early 1990s, in a series of reforms based on ongoing evaluations of its teaching systems – ranging from preparation programs to school and classroom practices, where teachers are centrally involved in the process. The government invests substantial funding in both teacher education and in research on teaching and teacher education, in order to improve them regularly (Mikkola, 2000).

All new Finnish teachers complete a masters’ thesis that involves them in research on practice. Programs aim to develop “highly developed problem solving capacity” that derives from teachers’ deep understanding of the principles of learning and allows them to create “powerful learning environments” which continually improve as they learn to engage in a “cycle of self-responsible planning, action and reflection/evaluation” (Buchberger & Buchberger, 2004, p. 210). Leaders are drawn from among these highly skilled and reflective teachers, and receive additional support to thinking organizationally about improvement. The entire teaching and schooling system is also continually evaluated as part of the reflective cycle. This is a key element of what Pasi Sahlberg calls “intelligent accountability” in a context where external student testing is rare, but analysis of practice and student learning is pervasive (Sahlberg, 2009).

These practices are widespread. For example, OECD reports that more than 85% of schools in Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland provide time for professional development in teachers’ work day or week (OECD, 2004). This time is frequently focused on the kind of action research that catalyzes change in teaching practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2003). In Denmark, Finland, Italy, and Norway, teachers participate in collaborative research on topics related to education both in their preservice preparation and in their ongoing work on the job (OECD, 2004). Similarly,
England, Hungary, and Ontario (Canada) have created opportunities for teachers to engage in school-focused research and development. Teachers are provided time and support for studying and evaluating their own teaching strategies and school programs and in sharing their findings with their colleagues, and through conferences and publications (OECD, 2005).

Inquiry about practice is also pervasive in Asian nations, made possible by the extensive time that teachers have to work with colleagues on developing lessons, participating in research and study groups, observing each other’s classrooms, and engaging in seminars and visits to other schools. Lesson study is a popular approach, which involves teachers in jointly crafting a lesson, observing while a colleague teaches it, and studying student responses and learning evidence to refine the lesson further. When engaged in lesson study, groups of teachers observe each other’s classrooms and work together to refine individual lessons, expediting the spread of best practices throughout the school (Barber & Mourshed, 2007).

In Japan, for example, *kenkyuu jugyou* (research lessons) are a key part of the learning culture. Every teacher periodically prepares a best possible lesson that demonstrates strategies to achieve a specific goal (e.g. students becoming active problem-solvers or students learning more from each other) in collaboration with other colleagues. A group of teachers observe while the lesson is taught and record the lesson in a number of ways, including videotapes, audiotapes, and narrative and/or checklist observations that focus on areas of interest to the instructing teacher (e.g., how many student volunteered their own ideas). Afterwards, the teachers, and sometimes outside educators, discuss the lesson’s strengths and weakness, ask questions, and make suggestions to improve the lesson. In some cases the revised lesson is given by another teacher only a few days later and observed and discussed again (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Fernandez, 2002; Pang, 2006).

The research lessons allow teachers to refine individual lessons, consult with other teachers and get colleagues’ observations about their classroom practice, reflect on their own practice, learn new content and approaches, and build a culture that emphasizes continuous improvement and collaboration. Some teachers also give public research lessons, which expedites the spread of best practices across schools, allows principals, district personnel, and policymakers to see how teachers are grappling with new subject matter and goals, and gives recognition to excellent teachers (Fernandez, 2002).

These lessons, which become the joint property of the teaching community, have been compared to “polished stones” because they have been so carefully worked on. In their study of mathematics teaching and learning in Japan, Taiwan, and the US, Jim Stigler and Harold Stevenson noted that:

Asian class lessons are so well crafted [because] there is a very systematic effort to pass on the accumulated wisdom of teaching practice to each new generation of teachers and to keep perfecting that practice by providing teachers the opportunities to continually learn from each other. (Stigler & Stevenson, 1991)
In addition to supporting ongoing work to improve practice within schools, many high-achieving nations, such as Singapore and Sweden, fund and require as much as 100 hours of professional development time for focused study using resources beyond the school. A number of countries have organized very intensive, systematic professional development that disseminates successful practices in much more effective ways than publishing articles in research journals that practitioners don’t read, or describing ideas in bulleted lists to hand out on professional development days.

England, for example, instituted a national training program in ‘best-practice’ teaching strategies, which led to the percentage of students meeting the target standards in literacy increasing from 63 to 75% in just three years (Barber & Mourshed, 2007). The training program is part of the National Literacy Strategy (NLS) and National Numeracy Strategy (NNS), which provide resources to support implementation of the national curriculum frameworks. These include packets of high quality teaching materials, resource documents, and videos depicting successful practices. A ‘cascade’ model of training – similar to a trainer of trainers’ model – is structured around these resources to help teachers learn and use productive practices.

The National Literacy and National Numeracy Centres provide leadership and training for teacher training institutions and consultants, who train school heads, lead math teachers and expert literacy teachers, who in turn support and train other teachers (Earl, Watson, & Torrance, 2002; Fullan, 2007). As more teachers become familiar with the strategies, expertise is increasingly located at the local level with consultants and leading mathematics teachers and literacy teachers providing support for teachers (Earl et al., 2002). In 2004, England began a new component of the Strategies designed to allow schools and local education agencies to learn best practices from each other by funding and supporting 1,500 groups of six schools each to engage in collaborative inquiry and knowledge-sharing together (Fullan, 2007).

Similarly, since 2000, the Australian government has been sponsoring the Quality Teacher Programme, a large scale program that provides funding to update and improve teachers’ skills and understandings in priority areas and enhance the status of teaching in both government and non-government schools. The Programme operates at three levels: (1) Teaching Australia (formerly the National Institute for Quality Teaching and School Leadership); (2) National Projects; and (3) State and Territory Projects. Teaching Australia facilitates the development and implementation of nationally agreed upon teaching standards, conducts research and communicates research findings, and facilitates and coordinates professional development courses. The National Projects have a national focus and include programs designed to identify and promote best practice, support the development and dissemination of professional learning resources in priority areas, and develop professional networks for teachers and school leaders. The State and Territory Projects fund a wide variety of professional learning activities for teachers and
school leaders under agreements with state and territory education authorities, allowing professional development activities to be tailored to local needs. These projects include school-based action research and learning, conferences, workshops, on-line or digital media, and training of trainers, school project and team leaders (Atelier Learning Solutions, 2005; Skilbeck & Connell, 2003).

Western Australia’s highly successful Getting it Right (GiR) Strategy provides specialist teaching personnel, professional development, and support to select primary schools to improve literacy and numeracy outcomes of high needs students, with a focus on Aboriginal and other at-risk students (Meiers, Ingvarson, Beavis, Hogan, & Kleinhenz, 2006). Each school selects a highly regarded teacher with interest and expertise in numeracy or literacy to be a Specialist Teacher (ST), who is then trained through a series of seven three-day intensive workshops over the course of their initial two-year appointment. The Specialist Teachers work “shoulder to shoulder” with teachers in their schools, for about half a day each week for each teacher. The Specialist Teachers monitor and record student learning, help teachers analyze student learning, model teaching strategies, plan learning activities to meet the identified needs of students, assist with the implementation of these activities, and provide access to a range of resources, sharing expertise and encouraging teachers to be reflective about their practice (Ingvarson, 2005; Meiers et al., 2006). Teachers show greatly enhanced knowledge about how students’ learn reading, writing, and mathematics and much stronger teaching and assessment skills, including their ability to use data to identify and diagnose students’ learning needs and to plan explicit teaching approaches to address these needs (Meiers et al., 2006).

BUILDING AN INFRASTRUCTURE FOR QUALITY TEACHING

Clearly, if students are to achieve 21st century learning standards, we can expect no less from their teachers and from other educators. Furthermore, teachers need to know a lot more to teach today’s diverse students to more challenging learning standards than ever before – including how to teach much more ambitious disciplinary content and cross-disciplinary skills and how to teach special needs learners, new immigrant students, and others who require specialized learning supports.

Developing Strong Initial Preparation Programs

Evidence suggests that some preparation programs are much more effective than others, based both on their employers’ ratings of their effectiveness and on their graduates’ contributions to student learning gains (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2008; Darling-Hammond, 2006). In a New York City study that evaluated the contributions to value-added student achievement of beginning elementary teachers from different programs, for example, several preservice programs had much stronger outcomes than any of the other traditional or
alternative routes. The researchers examined the features of these programs, and found that, in addition to strong faculty, they had:

- More coursework in content areas (e.g. math and reading) and in content-specific methods of teaching;
- A focus on helping candidates learn specific practices that they apply in classrooms where they are practice teaching alongside their coursework;
- Carefully-selected student teaching experiences, well-matched to the contexts in which candidates will later teach;
- Opportunities to study the local district curriculum;
- A capstone project – typically a portfolio of work done in classrooms with students.

Other studies of highly effective teacher education programs reinforce these same features and identify other critical elements, such as coursework and clinical work that are interwoven and pointed at a common conception of good teaching; emphasis on understanding curriculum, learning, and assessment, as well as methods of teaching; and use of case methods, action research, and performance assessments to develop skills for reflecting on teaching in relation to learning (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

In another study of highly effective teacher education programs, I found that their ability to develop new teachers who can teach with the assurance and skill of more experienced, very thoughtful veterans is achieved through several features (Darling-Hammond, 2006). They create a tightly coherent set of learning experiences grounded in a strong vision of good teaching represented both in coursework and clinical placements where candidates can see good teaching modelled and enacted. These programs focus on developing teaching strategies and skills that can be successful with a wide range of learners, for without such skills, beliefs that “all children can learn” soon devolve into little more than rhetoric. They engage candidates in intensive study of learning, child development, curriculum, assessment, cultural contexts, and subject specific teaching methods. This study is connected to at least a full year of student teaching and practicum experiences in carefully selected placements with expert teachers who model excellent teaching in diverse urban classrooms. Candidates’ experiences in these classrooms are linked to guided discussions and readings that help them interpret what they are seeing, learning, and doing as they gradually take on more responsibility for teaching.

Like the internships and residencies doctors experience, such apprenticeships with great teachers are critical for learning to teach effectively, especially where students have a wide range of needs that require sophisticated skills from their teachers. In this way, prospective teachers can grow roots on a more complex form of practice that will allow them to teach diagnostically, rather than from scripts or by merely plowing through the text, insensitive to student learning. They learn to adapt their lessons based on ongoing assessment of students’ needs, and they acquire a wide repertoire of practices, which they can apply judiciously based on what is needed for different students and different goals in different circumstances.
This is critically important because teaching cannot be learned from books or even from being mentored periodically. Teachers must see expert practices modelled and must practice them with help. However, such experiences are rare for urban teachers in the US, since many traditional and most alternative programs fail to provide the opportunity to learn under the direct supervision of expert teachers working in schools that serve high-need students well. Student teaching is often conducted in classrooms that do not model expert practice, or it is in classrooms that do not serve high-need students – and what is learned does not generalize to other schools. In alternative programs, it is too often reduced or omitted entirely. This fundamental problem has to be tackled and solved if we are to prepare an adequate supply of teachers who will enter urban or poor rural classrooms competent to work effectively with the neediest students and confident enough to stay in teaching in these areas.

It is not just the availability of classroom experience that enables teachers to apply what they are learning. The experience must be well-guided, allowing teachers to learn to use specific tools in the classroom, such as assessment protocols, guided reading strategies, writers’ workshop techniques, and others. Teachers need tools ranging from knowledge of curriculum materials and assessment strategies to techniques for organizing productive group work and planning well-structured projects and inquiries – and they need opportunities to practice with these tools in specific subject areas and with real students. In this way, prospective teachers learn to connect theory to practice in a well-grounded fashion, developing the adaptive expertise they will need to meet the specific classroom contexts they later encounter.

Candidates also learn to become skilled and analytical teachers by analyzing student work and learning, teachers’ plans and assignments, videotapes of teachers and students in action, and cases of teaching and learning, which – as they do in law and medicine – help teachers draw connections between generalized principles and specific instances of teaching and learning (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Shulman, 2002). In these powerful programs, candidates developed case studies on individual students – including English language learners, special education students, and others – and on specific aspects of schools, teaching, curriculum, families and communities by observing, interviewing, examining students’ approaches to learning, and analyzing these data.

In all of these ways, successful programs foster standards-based teaching that helps students learn challenging content successfully. They also support teaching that is culturally and individually responsive, providing teachers with concrete tools for learning about students’ lives and contexts – tapping what Luis Moll calls the “funds of knowledge” that exist in their homes and communities (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992) – and turning that information into resources that can be tapped for learning. This includes learning to work with parents as partners who can provide insights about their children’s interests and needs, and who can work collaboratively on supporting learning at home. Thus, successful programs help teachers structure the interaction between students and subject
matter that must be intertwined, like the double helix of a DNA chain, if learning is to occur.

The Importance of Developing “Teaching Schools.” Finally, all of the exemplary programs we studied had developed strong relationships with local schools – some of which were formal professional development schools (PDS) that partnered closely with the university. Some colleges even helped to start new schools that were models of practice. For example, Bank Street College, a large, internationally renowned teacher education institution, maintains strong connections with many public schools in New York City, partnering with at least a dozen new and existing reform-oriented schools, some of them populated almost entirely by graduates of the College’s teaching and leadership programs. All of these schools serve racially, ethnically, linguistically, and economically diverse student populations and are committed to experiential and project-based learning. Similar relationships have been developed by Trinity University with schools in San Antonio, the University of Southern Maine with schools in Portland and surrounding communities, and Alverno College with schools in Milwaukee, as well as many other universities across the country.

Since settings that are beacons of excellent education for low-income students of colour simply do not exist in large numbers, they must be created if practice is to change on a wide scale. Seeking diversity by placing candidates in schools serving low-income students or students of colour that suffer from the typical shortcomings many such schools face can actually “work to strengthen pre-service teachers’ stereotypes of children, rather than stimulate their examination, and ultimately compromise teachers’ effectiveness in the classroom” (Gallego, 2001, p. 314). For this reason, a growing number of universities – including Clark University, Stanford University, the University of Chicago, the University of Pennsylvania, and others – have actually created new urban schools and developed partnerships that support and help transform existing schools to demonstrate state-of-the-art practices and to serve as training grounds for teachers.

These kinds of relationships, which simultaneously transform schools and teacher preparation, are critical to long-term reform, because it is impossible to teach people how to teach powerfully by asking them to imagine what they have never seen or to suggest they “do the opposite” of what they have observed in the classroom. It is impractical to expect to prepare teachers for schools as they should be if teachers are constrained to learn in settings that typify the problems of schools as they have been – where isolated teachers provide examples of idiosyncratic practice that rarely exhibits a diagnostic, assessment-oriented approach and infrequently offers access to carefully selected strategies designed to teach a wide range of learners well. No amount of coursework can, by itself, counteract the powerful experiential lessons that shape what teachers actually do.

In highly-developed professional development school partnerships, faculty from the school and university work together to develop curriculum, improve instruction, and undertake school reforms. They work together teaching children and prospective teachers, making the entire school a site for learning and feedback
for all of the adults, as well as the students (Abdal-Haqq, 1998, pp. 13-14; Darling-Hammond, 2005). In many such schools, they actively pursue an equity agenda, confronting the inheritances of tracking, poor teaching, inadequate curriculum, and unresponsive systems (e.g. Darling-Hammond, 2005; Guadarrama, Ramsey, & Nath, 2002). In these schools, student teachers or interns are encouraged to participate in all aspects of school functioning, ranging from special education and support services for students to parent meetings, home visits, and community outreach to faculty discussions and projects aimed at ongoing improvement in students’ opportunities to learn. This kind of participation helps prospective teachers understand the broader institutional context for teaching and learning and begin to develop the skills needed for effective participation in collegial work around school improvement throughout their careers.

Studies of highly-developed PDSs have found that new teachers who graduate from such programs feel better prepared to teach and are rated by employers, supervisors, and researchers as stronger than other new teachers. Veteran teachers working in such schools describe changes in their own practice as a result of the professional development, action research, and mentoring that are part of the PDS. Studies have documented gains in student performance tied to curriculum and teaching interventions resulting from PDS initiatives (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, pp. 415-416). Having centres of support for continuous professional learning is essential for turning around schools that serve the students most often left behind because their teachers are left behind.

**Beginning Teacher Mentoring.** Mentoring for beginning teachers is also important, both for developing teachers’ competence and reducing attrition. Many high-achieving countries invest heavily in structured induction for beginning teachers: they fund schools to provide released time for expert mentors and they fund other learning opportunities for beginners, such as seminars, visits to other teachers’ classrooms, and joint planning time.

Beginners stay in teaching at much higher rates when they have had strong initial preparation and when they have a mentor in the same subject area and/or grade level, common planning time with teachers in the same subject, and regularly scheduled collaboration with other teachers (Cheng & Brown, 1992; Fuller, 2003; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Odell & Ferraro, 1992; Spuhler & Zetler, 1995). Their practice is enhanced further when their mentors also receive formal training and have release time to provide one-to-one observation and coaching in the classroom, demonstrating effective methods and helping them solve immediate problems of practice (Bartell, 1995; Olebe, 2001; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

**Evaluating Effective Teaching**

Developing good teaching on a wide scale requires not only opportunities for teacher learning but also a shared conception of what effective teachers do, and assessment tools that reflect and develop that kind of practice. Such a shared conception is reflected in professional standards that can guide preparation and
professional development. Standard-setting for licensing, certification, and accreditation represents “professional policy,” used as an alternative to governmental regulation in fields where knowledge is always growing and its appropriate application is contingent on many different factors. Professional standards hold members of a profession accountable for developing shared expertise and applying it appropriately, rather than imposing standardized prescriptions for practice that would fail to meet clients’ different needs (Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Klein, 1999; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999). As Richard Elmore and Susan Fuhrman (1993) note:

As equality of opportunity comes to rest more squarely on the need for quality instruction, issues of how to enhance the professional competence of educators become more important. To ensure equal opportunity in today’s context means enhancing, not limiting, the professional nature of teaching, and for that task state policy as it has been conceived in the past is hardly the best instrument …. We need new ways of conceiving the state role and of the strategies at the state’s disposal. (p. 86)

In recent years in the United States, performance-based assessments of teaching have been designed that not only detect aspects of teaching that are significantly related to teachers’ effectiveness, but also help develop more effective teaching. These assessments have high leverage as policy tools, as they can help shape who enters and remains in teaching, as well as who should be recognized as expert for purposes of compensation and selection as potential mentors and coaches for other teachers. Furthermore, participation in these assessments has been found to support learning both for teachers who are being evaluated and educators who are trained to serve as assessors, thus growing greater competence in the teaching force and focusing the efforts of educators on common practices.

A standards-based approach to assessing teachers was initially developed through the work of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, launched in 1987 and comprised of expert teachers and other members of the public. The Board developed standards for accomplished teaching in each major subject area and then developed an assessment of accomplished teaching that assembles evidence of teachers’ practice and performance in a portfolio that includes videotapes of teaching, accompanied by commentary, lesson plans, and evidence of student learning. These pieces of evidence are scored by trained raters who are expert in the same teaching field, using rubrics that define critical dimensions of teaching as the basis of the evaluation. Designed to identify experienced accomplished teachers, a number of states and districts use National Board Certification as the basis for salary bonuses or other forms of teacher recognition, such as selection as a mentor or lead teacher.

A number of recent studies have found that the National Board Certification assessment process identifies teachers who are more effective in raising student achievement than others who have not achieved certification. Equally important, many studies have found that teachers’ participation in the National Board process supports their professional learning and stimulates changes in their practice.
Teachers note that the process of analyzing their own and their students’ work in light of standards enhances their abilities to assess student learning and to evaluate the effects of their own actions, while causing them to adopt new practices that are called for in the standards and assessments (Athanases, 1994). Teachers report significant improvements in their performance in each area assessed – planning, designing, and delivering instruction, managing the classroom, diagnosing and evaluating student learning, using subject matter knowledge, and participating in a learning community – and observational studies have documented that these changes do indeed occur (Chittenden & Jones, 1997; Sato, 2000; Sato, Wei, & Darling-Hammond, 2008).

These standards, along with the performance assessments that have been developed to evaluate them, greatly raise the expectations for teachers. They incorporate deep understanding of content and how to teach it, a strong appreciation for the role of culture and context in child development and learning, and an insistence on ongoing assessment and adaptation of teaching to promote learning for all students. By examining teaching in the light of learning, these new standards put considerations of effectiveness at the centre of practice – a shift from the behaviourist approach which has viewed teaching as the implementation of set routines, whether or not they actually produce success.

Because of this, National Board participants often say that they have learned more about teaching from their participation in the assessments than they have learned from any other previous professional development experience (Arellado, 1999; Bradley, 1994; Buday & Kelly, 1996; Haynes, 1995). David Haynes’ statement is typical of many:

Completing the portfolio for the Early Adolescence/Generalist Certification was, quite simply, the single most powerful professional development experience of my career. Never before have I thought so deeply about what I do with children, and why I do it. I looked critically at my practice, judging it against a set of high and rigorous standards. Often in daily work, I found myself rethinking my goals, correcting my course, moving in new directions. I am not the same teacher as I was before the assessment, and my experience seems to be typical. (Haynes, 1995, p. 60)

Following on the work of the National Board, a consortium of more than 30 states, working under the auspices of the Council of Chief State School Officers, created standards for beginning teacher licensing. Most states have now adopted these into their licensing systems, and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) incorporated the standards into a new performance-based approach for accrediting teacher education programs.

In the study of exemplary teacher education programs reported earlier, my colleagues and I witnessed the importance of these standards in shaping practice, as they were translated into courses, performance tasks, and assessment tools used to guide prospective teachers in developing much stronger teaching skills for a much wider range of students than was previously expected (Darling-Hammond, 2006). We also saw how the new performance-based accreditation standards drove important institutional changes that created greater coherence, reshaped courses
and clinical work, and secured greater resources for supervising and supporting teachers-in-training.

In a few pioneering states, performance assessments for new teachers, using these INTASC standards and modelled on the National Board assessments, are being used either in teacher education as a basis for the initial licensing recommendation (as in California and Oregon), or in the teacher induction period, as a basis for moving from a probationary to a professional license (as in Connecticut).

These performance-based assessments of teaching ability have also proved to be critically important in driving more effective training and practice. The assessments require teachers to document their plans and teaching for a unit of instruction, videotape and critique lessons, and collect and evaluate evidence of student learning. Like the National Board assessments, beginning teachers’ ratings on the Connecticut BEST assessment and the California PACT assessment have been found to significantly predict their students’ achievement gains on state tests (Wilson & Hallum, 2006).

When combined with mentoring, such assessments also help teachers improve their practice. The BEST system requires districts who hire beginning teachers to provide them with mentors who are also trained in the state teaching standards and portfolio assessment system. Studies in Connecticut have reported that teacher education and induction programs have improved because of the feedback from the assessment; beginning teachers and mentors also feel the assessment has helped them improve their practice as they become clearer about what good teaching is and how to develop it. Thus, the program enhances teacher competence and effectiveness as it shapes and improves preparation and mentoring. A beginning teacher who participated in the assessment described the power of the process, which requires planning and teaching a unit, and reflecting daily on the day’s lesson to consider how it met the needs of each student and what should be changed in the next day’s plans. He noted:

Although I was the reflective type anyway, it made me go a step further. I would have to say, okay, this is how I’m going to do it differently. It made more of an impact on my teaching and was more beneficial to me than just one lesson in which you state what you’re going to do … The process makes you think about your teaching and reflect on your teaching. And I think that’s necessary to become an effective teacher.

The same learning effects are recorded in research on the very similar PACT (Performance Assessment for California Teachers) assessment used in California teacher education programs. Launched by the University of California campuses with Stanford University, Mills College, San Jose State University, and San Diego State University, and now used by 32 universities, the assessment requires student teachers or interns to plan and teach a week-long unit of instruction mapped to the state standards; to reflect daily on the lesson they’ve just taught and revise plans for the next day; to analyze and provide commentaries of videotapes of themselves teaching; to collect and analyze evidence of student learning; to reflect on what
worked, what didn’t and why; and to project what they would do differently in a future set of lessons. Candidates must show how they take into account students’ prior knowledge and experiences in their planning. Adaptations for English language learners and for special needs students must be incorporated into plans and instruction. Analyses of student outcomes are part of the evaluation of teaching.

Faculty and supervisors score these portfolios using standardized rubrics in moderated sessions following training, with an audit procedure to calibrate standards. Faculties use the PACT results to revise their curriculum. In addition, both the novice teachers and the scoring participants describe benefits for teacher education and for learning to teach from the assessment and scoring processes. For example:

For me the most valuable thing was the sequencing of the lessons, teaching the lesson, and evaluating what the kids were getting, what the kids weren’t getting, and having that be reflected in my next lesson…the ‘teach-assess-teach-assess-teach-assess’ process. And so you’re constantly changing – you may have a plan or a framework that you have together, but knowing that that’s flexible and that it has to be flexible, based on what the children learn that day. (Prospective teacher)

This [scoring] experience … has forced me to revisit the question of what really matters in the assessment of teachers, which – in turn – means revisiting the question of what really matters in the preparation of teachers. (Teacher education faculty member)

[The scoring process] forces you to be clear about “good teaching;” what it looks like, sounds like. It enables you to look at your own practice critically, with new eyes. (Cooperating teacher)

As an induction program coordinator, I have a much clearer picture of what credential holders will bring to us and of what they’ll be required to do. We can build on this. (Induction program coordinator)

In addition to selecting teachers who can, indeed, teach well, these kinds of standards and assessments can help teachers learn to teach more effectively, improve the quality of preparation programs, and create standards and norms that are widely shared across the profession so that good teaching is no longer a magical occurrence.

*Standards-Based Evaluations of Teaching.* Similarly, standards-based teacher evaluations used by some districts have been found to be related to student achievement gains for teachers and to help teachers improve their practice and effectiveness (Milanowski, Kimball, & White, 2004). Like the teacher performance assessments described above, these systems for observing teachers’ classroom practice are based on professional teaching standards grounded in research on
teaching and learning. They use systematic observation protocols, based on well-articulated standards of practice, to examine teaching along a number of dimensions. In a study of three districts using standards-based evaluation systems, researchers found positive correlations between teachers’ ratings and their students’ gain scores on standardized tests (Milanowski et al., 2004).

Standards-based evaluation systems have been used to evaluate beginning teachers for continuation and tenure and to identify struggling teachers for additional assistance and potential dismissal. The most long-standing evaluation systems that have successfully supported evaluation and personnel actions for both beginning and veteran teachers are those that have used Peer Assistance and Review Programs that rely on highly expert mentor teachers to conduct evaluations and provide assistance to teachers who need it. The systems in Rochester, New York; Cincinnati, Columbus, and Toledo, Ohio; and Seattle, Washington have all been studied and found successful in identifying teachers for continuation and tenure as well as intensive assistance and personnel action.

Key features of these systems include not only the instruments used for evaluation but also the expertise of the evaluators – skilled teachers in the same subject areas and school levels who have released time to serve as mentors to support their fellow teachers – and the system of due process and review that involve a panel of both teachers and administrators in making recommendations about personnel decisions based on the evidence presented to them from the evaluations.

In these systems, beginning teachers have been found to stay in teaching at higher rates because of the mentoring they receive, and those who leave (generally under 5%) are usually those the district has chosen not to continue rather than those who have quit. Among veteran teachers identified for assistance and review (usually 1-3% of the teaching force), generally about half improve sufficiently with intensive mentoring to be removed from intervention status and about half leave by choice or by district request. Because teacher associations have been closely involved in designing and administering these programs in collaboration with the district, the union does not bring grievances when a teacher is discontinued.

In Rochester and Cincinnati, which have developed career ladders that extend beyond the beginning years of teaching, the accomplished teachers identified through more advanced evaluations of practice serve as mentors for these beginning teachers, among other leadership roles. These evaluations depend both on standards-based assessments of teaching – through local evaluations and/or National Board Certification – and, in Rochester’s career ladder, evidence of student learning assembled by the teacher in a portfolio.

Arizona’s career ladder program – which encourages local districts to design their own systems – requires evidence from both standards-based evaluations of practice and student assessments, assembled by teachers, that illuminate teachers’ effectiveness. One study of the Arizona career ladder programs found that, over time, participating teachers demonstrated an increased ability to create locally-developed assessment tools to assess student learning gains in their classrooms; to develop and evaluate pre- and post-tests; to define measurable outcomes in “hard
to quantify areas” like art, music, and physical education; and to monitor student learning growth. They also showed a greater awareness of the importance of sound curriculum development, more alignment of curriculum with district objectives, and increased focus on higher quality content, skills, and instructional strategies (Packard & Dereshiwsky, 1991). Thus, the development and use of standards-based evaluations of practice combined with student learning evidence seem to be associated with improvements in practice.

Studies on standards-based teacher evaluation suggest that the more teachers’ classroom activities and behaviours are enabled to reflect professional standards of practice, the more effective they are in supporting student learning – a finding that would appear to suggest the desirability of focusing on such professional standards in the preparation, professional development, and evaluation of teachers. Many studies also find that teachers involved in assessing other teachers using standards-based tools also improve their own understanding of teaching, thus spreading good practice.

These kinds of results led one analyst to conclude in his review of teacher pay systems that tying teachers’ advancement and compensation to their knowledge and skills and using evaluation systems that help develop those skills, as these systems do, may ultimately produce more positive change in practice than evaluating teachers based primarily on student test scores (Hassell, 2002). Indeed, studies of merit pay plans that have sought to reward teachers based on their students’ scores confirm this view. A major experimental study in the US recently found no positive effects on achievement from bonuses tied to student test scores (Springer et al., 2010), and another study of Portugal’s efforts to tie teacher pay to student test scores found that the system appeared actually to decrease student achievement. The researcher hypothesized that this form of merit pay likely reduced teacher collaboration to the detriment of student learning (Martins, 2009).

Certainly, knowing what teachers are doing that is leading to improvements in student learning is more valuable than merely watching scores go up or down without clues to the practices that are associated with these changes. When individual teachers, collegial groups of teachers, and schooling systems examine how practices are related to student learning, they can develop efforts to improve teaching throughout the profession as a whole.

Enabling Teachers to Continue to Improve. A strong system of teacher learning must provide not only a solid foundation of knowledge for entering the profession and clarity about teaching goals and practices, but also ongoing opportunities for learning throughout the career.

Over the last two decades, a new paradigm for professional development has emerged from research that has distinguished approaches that impact teachers’ practices and student outcomes from the typically ineffective traditional one-day workshops that proliferate. Among other things, effective professional development is sustained, ongoing, content-focused, and embedded in professional learning communities – where teachers work over time on problems of practice with other teachers in their subject area or school (Darling-Hammond, Wei,
Richardson, Andree, & Orphanos, 2009). Furthermore, it focuses on “concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation and reflection,” (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995, p. 598.) looking at how students learn specific content in particular contexts, rather than emphasizing abstract discussions of teaching. Equally important, it focuses on student learning, including analysis of the skills and understandings that students are expected to acquire and what they are in fact learning (Carpenter, Fennema, Peterson, Chiang, & Loe, 1989; Cohen & Hill, 2001; Lieberman & Wood, 2002; Merek & Methven, 1991; Saxe, Gearhart, & Nasir, 2001; Wenglinsky, 2000).

The Design of Effective Professional Learning Opportunities. Research has found that teachers are more likely to try classroom practices that have been modelled for them in professional development settings. And teachers judge professional development to be most valuable when it provides opportunities to do “hands-on” work that builds their knowledge of academic content and how to teach it to their students, and when it takes into account the local context (including the specifics of local school resources, curriculum guidelines, accountability systems, and so on) (Carpenter et al., 1989; Cohen & Hill, 2001; Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon, & Birman, 2002; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007; Saxe et al., 2001; Snow-Renner & Lauer, 2005; Supovitz, Mayer, & Kahle, 2000). Equally important, professional development that leads teachers to define precisely which concepts and skills they want students to learn, and to identify the content that is most likely to give students trouble, has been found to improve teacher practice and student outcomes (Blank, de las Alas & Smith, 2007; Carpenter et al., 1989; Cohen & Hill, 2001; Lieberman & Wood, 2002; McGill-Franzen, Allington, Yokio, & Brooks, 1999; Merek & Methven, 1991; Saxe et al., 2001; Wenglinsky, 2000). To this end, it is often useful for teachers to be put in the position of studying the very material that they intend to teach to their own students.

For example, one well-known study focused on elementary science teachers who participated in a 100-hour summer institute, during which they actively engaged in a standard science “learning cycle” that involved exploring a phenomenon, coming up with a theory that explained what had occurred, and applying it to new contexts. After going through this process, teachers went on to develop their own units and teach them to one another before returning to their classrooms. Later, the researchers tested randomly selected students in those classrooms and found they scored significantly higher in their reasoning ability than did a control group of students taught by teachers who had not had this experience (Merek & Methven, 1991).

Similarly, David Cohen and Heather Hill distinguished successful from less successful approaches to professional development in their study of California’s decade long effort to reform the teaching of mathematics (Cohen & Hill, 2001). The new curriculum required elementary teachers and students to understand complex concepts of mathematics, not simply computational algorithms. Of the many professional development opportunities that were offered to support this
reform, only two contributed to changes in teachers’ practices and increases in student achievement.

The first of the two successful approaches was organized around new curriculum units developed to teach these new standards. An ongoing set of workshops engaged teachers themselves in using the mathematics strategies students were expected to learn and then on developing strategies for teaching the units well. Teachers taught the units and returned to debrief their experiences with other teachers and to problem solve next steps, while preparing to teach subsequent units. Over time, these teachers reported more reform-oriented practices in their classrooms, and their schools showed larger gains in achievement.

The second effective approach involved teachers evaluating student work on assessments directly linked to the reform curriculum. While assessing student work, which showed students’ problem solving strategies and reasoning, teachers examined conceptual roadblocks students faced on the assessments and became knowledgeable about how to anticipate these misunderstandings and address them in their classrooms. Student achievement was ultimately higher for these teachers as well.

In another study that compared professional development for mathematics teachers, researchers found large gains in conceptual understanding for students whose teachers had focused on looking at student work and learning through the Integrated Mathematics Assessment (IMA) program. These teachers attended a 5 day summer institute and then met 13 times, once every two weeks, throughout the year. During the workshops teachers looked at samples of student work or videotapes of problem solving; learned to assess student motivation, interests, goals, and beliefs about abilities; and developed specific pedagogies, including how to lead whole class discussions, assess student works with rubrics, and use portfolios. They discussed their practice and solved problems collaboratively. Ultimately, they piloted assessment tools of their own and publicly shared their work. This propelled extensive changes in practice that led to significant student learning gains; meanwhile, researchers found no gains for students whose teachers received traditional workshops, or who participated in a professional community without a strong focus on curriculum content and student learning.

Many studies have found it useful for groups of teachers to analyze and discuss student-performance data and samples of students’ course work (science projects, essays, math tests, and so on), in order to identify students’ most common errors and misunderstandings, reach common understanding of what it means for students to master a given concept or skill, and find out which instructional strategies are or are not working, and for whom (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Dunne, Nave, & Lewis, 2000; Little, 2003.). Notably, studies of high-achieving or steeply-improving schools have found that student gains were associated with teachers’ regular practice of consulting multiple sources of data on student performance and using those data to inform discussions about ways to improve instruction.5

Contexts for Effective Professional Learning. Professional development is also more effective when it is a coherent part of the school’s overall efforts, rather than
the traditional “flavour of the month” one-shot workshop (Cohen & Hill, 2001; Garet et al., 2001; Supovitz et al., 2000). Teachers are unlikely to apply what they have learned if it is at odds with the demands of their local school context. Curriculum, assessment, standards, and professional learning opportunities need to be seamlessly integrated to avoid disjunctures between what teachers learn in professional development and what they are required to do in their classrooms and schools.

When schools are strategic in creating time and productive working relationships within and across academic departments or grade levels, the benefits can include greater consistency in instruction, more willingness to share practices and try new ways of teaching, and more success in solving problems of practice (Friedlaender & Darling-Hammond, 2007; Hord, 1997; Joyce & Calhoun, 1996; Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001; Newman & Wehlage, 1997). For example, a comprehensive five-year study of 1,500 schools undergoing major reforms found that in schools where teachers formed active professional learning communities, achievement increased significantly in math, science, history, and reading while student absenteeism and dropout rates were reduced. Particular aspects of teachers’ professional communities – including a shared sense of intellectual purpose and a sense of collective responsibility for student learning—were associated with a narrowing of achievement gaps in math and science among low- and middle-income students (Newman & Wehlage, 1997). A number of large-scale studies have confirmed that professional community-building can deepen teachers’ knowledge, build their skills, and improve instruction (Bryk, Camburn, & Louis, 1999; Calkins, Guenther, Belfiore, & Lash, 2007; Goddard, Goddard, & Tschannen-Moran, 2007; Louis & Marks, 1998; Supovitz & Christman, 2003).

CONCLUSION

Teaching can only become a profession that supports effective instruction if societies construct systems of universal high-quality preparation, mentoring, and support – including well-designed schools that allow and enable good practice. Rather than short-term incentives and quick fixes, policy making must focus on building capacity across the entire system. Reforms must couple thoughtful standards and meaningful assessments with resources that enable educators to acquire deep knowledge and develop high-quality practice. When combined with serious efforts to develop equitable schools, it is possible to create classrooms in which all educators have the opportunity to become expert and all children have the opportunity to be well-taught.

NOTES


ii This section draws on Darling-Hammond (2005) and Wei, Andree, and Darling-Hammond (2009).
Boyd et al. (2006) found that, on average, holding student and school characteristics equal, beginning teachers who came through college preservice programs produced stronger achievement gains than those who entered through alternative programs and temporary licenses. In 2008, the same team examined the contributions to student learning gains of graduates from these preservice programs and identified the features of programs whose graduates produced the strongest value-added gains.

The concept of adaptive expertise and how it is acquired is described in Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005).

Luis Moll, re: funds of knowledge.

For a summary see Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005, pp. 415-416).

See, for example, Bond, Smith, Baker, and Hattie (2000); Cavaluzzo (2004); Goldhaber and Anthony (2005); Smith, Gordon, Colby, and Wang (2005); Vandevoort, Amrein-Beardsley, and Berliner (2004).

See, for example, NCTAF (1996); Van Lier (2008).

See, for example, Strahan (2003).

REFERENCES


LINDA DARLING-HAMMOND


BUILDING A PROFESSION OF TEACHING


Strahan, D. (2003). Promoting a collaborative professional culture in three elementary schools that have beaten the odds. The Elementary School Journal, 104(2), 127-133.


AFFILIATIONS

Linda Darling-Hammond
School of Education
University of Stanford, USA
TEACHERS: HOW LONG UNTIL THE FUTURE?

INTRODUCTION

Teachers have become central in societies claiming to be “knowledge societies” and that have expanded their education systems in a manner considered unthinkable not long ago.¹

In this chapter I develop thoughts under the title Teachers: How Long until the Future? to critically analyse the distance between discourses about teachers and the tension and dilemmas that the teaching profession faces. This chapter is written in essay form that takes into account the original meaning of the term, which is a trial or an attempt to answer a question using personal perspectives.

According to Aldous Huxley “the essay is a literary device for saying almost everything about almost anything” (1971, p. v). The intent of this paper is not to build a scientific argument, but instead to share personal views arising from my own historical and philosophical location. These issues have been with me for a long time, and “all this fricassee that I am scribbling here is nothing but a record of the essays of my life” (1968, p. 826), as stated by the first essayist, Montaigne, in the sixteen century.

There is too much talk about the future and there is not enough critical thinking to enable us to build this future. Therefore, this paper suggests the following four theses that expound, at the same time, problems of the present and intentions for the future, which is referred to here as the future present.

– From inside the profession;
– Activity is the road to knowledge;
– The risks of dialogue;
– Education as a public space.

I attempt to avoid the usual language when talking about teachers and teaching, and work on these four ideas mainly through the eyes of historians and philosophers that dedicated a part of their lives to educational matters.

PERPLEXITIES AND FAMILIARITIES

Please allow me to begin with two educationalists who are part of my personal library, one from the past and the other from the present: Gabriel Compayré and David Labaree.

The French educator Gabriel Compayré was one of the most influential thinkers and reformers at the end of the 19th century. His work has been widely diffused, not only in Europe but also around the world. In his well-known Cours de Pédagogie,
he wrote, “As an educator, I spent half of my life fighting for some ideals, and the other half fighting against the false assumptions of these ideals and the way how they are wrongly applied” (1889, p. 43).

My academic experience is full of the same perplexities as the work of Gabriel Compayré. How many times was I warned of the misuse of concepts for which I had struggled? For an educationalist, each portion of hope needs to be balanced with a portion of scepticism, not cynically but critically. Fashion is the worst way to deal with educational issues because it entails magical solutions that are always false. They are false not only because they are necessarily wrong, but because they dispense us from thinking.

In education, nothing can replace our own awareness, our own decisions and our own judgments. Marcel Proust says that no one can avoid his or her own journey with dilemmas and turbulence: “the only true voyage of discovery would be not to visit strange lands but to possess other eyes” (1923, p. 109). There is no knowledge without a process of personal appropriation, but this process is not complete without a dialogue and a conversation with others.

The second remark is related to the work of David Labaree. In the article, *Life on the Margins*, he explains that “although progressive rhetoric is everywhere, progressive practice is much harder to find,” concluding that evidence “shows the dominance of progressivism over teacher talk rather than teacher practice” (2003, p. 1).

David Labaree asks a very important question: Why have teacher educators been so ineffective at shaping policy in their own domain? He also provides some answers. One problem is that teacher education programmes occupy a low status in the hierarchy of higher education. Another factor that undermines our influence is that teaching is an extraordinarily difficult form of professional practice that looks easy. A third reason relates to the fact that we are too predictable. Finally, he points out that, in the mind of the public and despite all of our railing against the traditional system of schooling, we are seen as inveterate defenders of the status quo in public education.

These problems are very prejudicial for the field of teacher education and for the credibility of educationalists:

> We are in the unlovely position of being seen both as pillars of the establishment and as zealots of the constructivist insurrection and, thus, we find ourselves defending the indefensible while also demanding the unrealizable. (Labaree, 2003, p. 5)

I share the perplexities of these two authors. There is a strange familiarity to how educational issues are discussed around the world. One of our main tasks is to deconstruct these “evidences,” showing that the obvious is not so obvious. We need to isolate “the systems of thought that have now become familiar to us, that appear evident to us” and “to work in common with practitioners, not only to modify institutions and practices but to elaborate forms of thought” (Foucault, 1996, pp. 424-425).
TEACHERS: HOW LONG UNTIL THE FUTURE?

FROM INSIDE THE PROFESSION

My first thesis is about the need to avoid excessive talk about teachers without the participation and the presence of the teachers themselves. I argue that we need to build an educational perspective from inside the profession. During the last three or four decades, several groups and professional communities have developed around the teaching profession: teacher educators, international experts, educational researchers, curriculum experts, “the teaching industry,” educational administrators, educational technologists, etc.

The 1970s saw the scientific rationalization of teaching, an effort to plan and control the work of teachers. Throughout the 1980s, major educational reforms were launched with the main focus on curriculum. In the 1990s, special attention was given to school management and to quality and international comparisons. The sign at the beginning of this century is the growing interest in digital technologies.

All of these groups and movements have been extremely important in fostering new ideas and in rendering visible the complexity of educational issues. Yet, at the same time, paradoxically – even when their intention was to “empower teachers” – they inevitably contribute to the depreciation of teachers. We need to understand the paradox if we want to overcome this problem.

In fact, most of these developments related to the science of teaching, including the expansion of educational research, the teacher professional movement and the reflective practitioner, to mention a few, led to a definition of the teaching profession “from outside.” This definition inevitably entails a reduction in the professional and political space of teachers.

In a certain sense, the useless sociological concept of teaching as a semi-profession or a quasi-profession – a concept that has been very harmful for teachers – has never been so true as it is today, ironically, after thirty years of elaborating on the professionalization and empowerment of teachers. That is why I am calling for the coming back of teachers, a provocative expression intended to illuminate the role of teachers in the debates about their own profession “from inside,” to expand (and not reduce) their professional space.

I am addressing a crucial change in the manner in which we place our thinking and ourselves in the educational arena. This change is essential to rebuilding new strategies for the recruitment and training of teachers and, at the same time, to strengthen the autonomy and the forms of organisation of the teaching profession.

First, let me underline the need for teachers to have a predominant place in the training of their peers. Nothing will be achieved if the “teacher education community” and the “teachers’ community” do not become more permeable and overlapping. Writing text after text about praxis and practicum, about phronesis and prudentia as bases for teaching knowledge is not possible if teachers do not reach a greater presence in training their future colleagues. These proposals cannot be mere rhetorical declarations. They only make sense if they are constructed within the profession and if they are appropriated by the teachers themselves. If they remain injunctions from outside, the changes within the teaching profession will be rather useless.
Second, most of our proposals become unrealistic and unworkable if the profession continues to be distinguished by ingrained individualist traditions or by rigid external regulations. The paradox is well known among historians: the more one talks of teacher autonomy, the more teachers are controlled in various ways, leading to a reduction in their margins for freedom. Professional collegiality, sharing and collaborative cultures cannot be imposed through administrative means or decisions from above. Pedagogic movements or communities of practice consolidate a feeling of belonging and professional identity that are essential for teachers to appropriate processes of change and transform them into concrete practice.

Currently, despite many ambiguities, teachers have seemed to acquire a new centrality, as recognised in an interesting OECD report published in 2005, *Teachers Matter*. Teachers tend to reappear as irreplaceable elements, not only in the promotion of learning, but also in the development of the process of integration that responds to the challenges of social inclusion, diversity and cultural dialogue.

ACTIVITY IS THE ROAD TO KNOWLEDGE

My second thesis is formulated in a peculiar way – activity is the road to knowledge. Explaining why I choose this title is easy. In *Maxims for Revolutionists* published a century ago, Bernard Shaw wrote the famous aphorism: “He who can, does. He who cannot, teaches” (1971, p. 784). This shameful aphorism has been repeated throughout the last century as a criticism and denigration of teachers. I will not go back to this discussion because Lee Shulman provided an excellent response: “We reject Mr. Shaw and his calumny. With Aristotle we declare that the ultimate test of understanding rests on the ability to transform one’s knowledge into teaching. Those who can, do. Those who understand, teach” (1986, p. 14).

I would like to draw attention to the following sentence of Bernard Shaw, which has been unnoticed: “Activity is the only road to knowledge,” as well as another aphorism, a little further, on experience: “Men are wise in proportion, not to their experience, but to their capacity for experience. If we could learn from mere experience, the stones of London would be wiser than its wisest men” (1971, p. 792).

Underlining the importance attached by Bernard Shaw to activity, to experience and primarily to the “capacity for experience” is very interesting. In doing so, he points out the importance of two dimensions for teaching.

First, consider the idea of travelling or crossing over to the other border. Teaching carries on a principle of activity, and that is why one of my recent papers had the title of a tale by the Brazilian writer Guimarães Rosa, *Pedagogy – The Third Bank of the River*. The third bank is the river itself, it is the river flow. The true path takes place in the middle.

I end this text with a reference to one of the most influential authors in my academic life, the French philosopher Michel Serres. His book *Le tiers-instruit* underlines the importance of travelling for learning:
Who doesn’t move doesn’t learn.
Without travelling there is no learning.
All learning involves a journey with the other and towards alterity. (1991, pp. 28, 86)

The analogy with the teaching activity is inspiring. Teachers’ reflection must be conceived as a sequence of ideas and thoughts arising from the activity and with consequences in their practice. To say that this process needs rules and needs to be systematic and organised, or cannot be realised without interaction and cooperation between teachers and between teachers and academics is unnecessary. In contrast, the capacity for experience, the capacity to nourish theoretically the experience, is what best define the teaching profession.

Travelling should lead us to ways of estrangement (distancing from practice) and entrenchment (immersion into practice) because we cannot remain prisoners neither of theory built outside the profession nor of a practice that is routine and repetitive without creation.

The process of reflection needs to avoid the “capitalization of the self” present in the languages and policies of the teacher as a lifelong learner, but also in the salvation narratives that look at teachers as a kind of social redeemers. We need to avoid the social undervaluing of teachers and a discourse that puts enormous pressure on the profession through redemption narratives. The distance between teachers as heroes and teachers as the guilty ones for all of our social problems is often very short.

As modest as our job can be, it should focus on the ability to reveal the richness and complexity of teaching through a “knowledgeable activity.” Maybe it is a modest task, but it is certainly the most ambitious one that an educationalist can accomplish.

THE RISKS OF DIALOGUE

The work that I have been arguing for cannot be done in isolation, which is why teachers need to engage in dialogue and primarily in professional dialogue. My intention is not to sing the praises of collaboration as a kind of magical solution for all problems. Undoubtedly, networks, communities of practice, school cooperation and partnerships are important initiatives to enrich the educational field. However, the worst service that we can provide to collaboration is to transform it into a litany without rules and without consequences.

Adapting to our field an argument developed by the anthropologist Arjun Appadurai (2006) would be useful, an argument in which he talks about the risks of dialogue between cultures and civilizations.

The first risk of dialogue is that the other party may not understand what you mean. The risk of misunderstanding is inherent in all human communication.

The second risk of dialogue is that we may in fact be understood clearly – exactly the opposite. This paradox is partly based on the concern that the other party may see through our surface expressions and understand the motives or
intentions that we prefer to conceal. But the deeper risk of being fully understood is the risk that the other party will actually see our deepest convictions, our foundational opinions and even our doubts.

Dialogue cannot be seen as a kind of rhetoric or a mere declaration of goodwill. Saying the words does not make it so. Dialogue is not about everything and anything. It needs to have solid grounds and lead to collective action. Dialogue is an inspiration for the future of education because it liberates new meanings and entails new understandings of communalities and differences.

All dialogue is a form of negotiation, and negotiation cannot be based on complete mutual understanding or a total consensus across any sort of boundary or difference. To be effective, dialogue must be, to some extent, about shared ground, selective agreement and provisional consensus. Appadurai (2006) suggested a strategy of selectivity to build a contingent and evolving framework for conviviality.

These ideas are very intriguing and, at the same time, inspiring for teachers. A dialogical approach to education is about *presences*, which is about recognising differences and building a space for dialogue and to enter into conversation. One of the most important consequences is the construction of entirely new institutions for teacher education, overcoming the traditional division between schools and schools of education.

Looking at the history of teacher education, it is possible to identify three major phases:
– In the mid-nineteenth century, there were no training programmes and teachers learned their craft in schools along with a more experienced teacher through the logic of apprenticeship;
– Between the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, teacher education acquired a separate institutional status and came to be held in normal schools, prevailing logic of a theoretical and pedagogical preparation that ends with practical training in schools;
– From the last decades of the twentieth century, teacher training progressively acquired a university status, with a gradual distancing from the profession even when initiatives were undertaken to build strategies of cooperation and partnership between teacher education programmes and schools.

Today, we face a new challenge with enormous consequences: the merging of schools and teacher training institutions. In recent years, the field of medicine developed academic medical centres, bringing together the provision of health services, medical education and scientific research. Medical facilities are a good example for the kind of institutions we need to create in the area of education, which are academic centres of education bringing together schools, teacher training institutions and educational research. The success of such an initiative requires two fundamental conditions: the unified leadership of the spaces of practice, training and research and the reduction of disparities between the professional status of university professors and schoolteachers.

These academic centres of education must be capable of relating personal biographies with social contexts, life histories with political processes and the
individual with the social. They must be open to politics of collaboration that bring new levels and dimensions, connecting teachers and schools with social and political debates and commitments.

EDUCATION AS A PUBLIC SPACE

“Knowledge societies” are inevitably societies of the unknown, not because we know less than in the past, but because we do not know enough and we do not have the intellectual tools to answer the questions that we ask (Innerarity, 2006).

In historical moments of transition, like the one in which we are living in at present, two tendencies must be avoided: prophecies of the past and prophecies of the future.

In education, the past always strikes back. We do not need more past, with an inescapable nostalgic vision of education and teachers. The past has no lesson to give us. We need more history, more historical consciousness and more historical understanding because history invites us to be prudent and raises our awareness.

History helps us avoid a vision of schools as a place where all problems of “knowledge societies” will be answered. Prophecies of salvation through the school tend to enclose teachers in unreasonable ambitions and blame them for all of the failures of school reforms.

Avoiding prophecies of the past and the future help us to understand the importance of education as a public space or, to be more precise, the importance of building the public space of education.

Differently from societies of the last two centuries, contemporary societies enormously expanded social institutions for education, culture, arts and science. At the same time, families and communities are much more educated than in the past. There is no reason for teachers and schools to take responsibility for a huge quantity of educational and social missions.

I am calling for a redefinition of schools as institutions focused on learning, in the broader sense of the term, avoiding an excessive view of their missions and possibilities. Paradoxically, this place, which seems more modest, will allow schools to play a more important role in contemporary societies. Schools are revitalised around a strong “knowledge” agenda; this focus needs to be well understood by the public and avoids the risk of ever-widening social remits, making impossible demands on schools. The teacher corps will be reinforced as a more distinct profession (OECD, 2001, p. 89).

My point is that this scenario will not be achieved if other agencies and institutions of society do not accept their responsibilities in a wide range of educational matters. Adapting the well-known concept of public sphere (Habermas, 1989) to education, I have been talking about the development of the “public space of education,” a space for debate and civic participation but also for deliberation and collective decision making.

The public space of education is broader than public school and brings together institutions, associations and social movements in promoting education. *In the school what belongs to the school; in the society what belongs to society.* This
approach avoids stifling the school by excessive missions, and calls all of society to the educational mission, which is a major shift for the teaching profession and for the organization of public school systems.

Around this theme, imagining a series of new possibilities, a way out for current crises and dilemmas, is possible. The centrality of knowledge in contemporary societies grants new responsibilities for teachers and for families and communities. The strengthening of presences in the educational field is crucial for the reinvention of societies based on democracy and participation.

FINAL COMMENTS

In a very simple manner, these four ideas attempt to open new lines of reflection for teachers. They can redirect our attention to central themes for the future of the profession by:
– Firstly, pointing out the importance of a professionality that is built inside, and not outside, the teaching corps;
– Secondly, underlining the meaning of professional knowledge that is elaborated through a pedagogical journey, where reflection on activity and experience assume a prominent role;
– Thirdly, emphasising the significance of practices of professional collaboration, not as a rhetorical statement but as a new way of organising the teaching profession;
– Fourthly, stressing the implications of the public space of education with a redefinition of schools and teachers and the celebration of a new social contract for education.

These ideas are crucial in order to foster an educational project from different and even contradictory influences. Sometimes we remember too much, which leads us to nostalgia. Sometimes we forget too much, frustrating the inscription of our action in the course of history. A wise balance between remembering and forgetting is a precondition to think critically, to avoid the burning of the present in the mirage of the future. 

Teachers: How Long Until the Future? My answer is that the future is now; it is being defined through our ideas and commitments, through our voices and silences:

To be at the same time an academic and an intellectual is to try to engage a type of knowledge and analysis that is taught and received in the university in a way so as to modify not only the thought of others but one’s own as well. This work of modifying one’s own thought and that of others seems to me to be the intellectual’s reason for being. (Foucault, 1996, p. 461)

Please allow me to end with a tribute to Michel Serres. For a long time, I have been reading his book Le tiers-instruit, probably the book that has greatly influenced my way of thinking about education. Each time that I read the book, I find new ideas, new meanings and new connections that have been absent from my first readings.
On the last page of the book is a blank space and, after that, two lines that I had not noticed for a long time:

Reborn, he knows, he takes pity.
Finally, he can teach. (1991, p. 249)

Now, I think that maybe these lines are the key to the book and, in a sense, the key to the teaching profession.

– Reborn: to be teacher is to reborn, to do a work about ourselves and about our relationship with others;
– S/he knows: to be teacher is always a dialogue with knowledge and with the ways that knowledge changes our perceptions of the world;
– S/he has pity: in the philosophical assertion of dedication and generosity, to be a teacher is to take care, to assume our own responsibilities towards the other.

Finally, s/he can teach.

NOTES

1 This text is the transcription of the keynote address given at 15th Biennial of the International Study Association on Teachers and Teaching (5 July 2011). I would like to thank the organisers for this invitation, and mainly to Maria Assunção Flores for her friendly insistence to participate in this Conference.

REFERENCES


AFFILIATIONS

António Nóvoa
Institute of Education
University of Lisbon, Portugal