Special Edition:
Reclaiming and reframing
teacher education in Aotearoa New Zealand
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TE HAUTAKA MĀTAURANGA O WAIKATO

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Teacher education policy in New Zealand since 1970

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Abstract

How can New Zealand schools be provided with a sufficient supply of knowledgeable and skilled teachers at a reasonable cost? This question has shaped teacher education policy over decades but its interpretation and preferred solutions have varied markedly.

By 1970 three-year training for primary teachers was finally achieved and teachers colleges were striving to change their organisational patterns, move away from their image as extended secondary schools and become fully tertiary institutions. Colleges had also acquired their own councils, though important decisions in finance, numbers, curriculum and staffing were all made finally by the Department of Education. In 2012 most teacher education in New Zealand is carried out in university faculties of education offering early childhood, primary and secondary programmes and heavily involved in continuing professional education.

These significant developments have occurred against a backdrop of social and systemic change in New Zealand. In this paper I examine what issues have shaped educational policy in teacher education, what conflicting ideas have underpinned it, and which players have been pivotal. Key themes include (i) the scope, nature and preferred locus of teacher education; (ii) control, funding and quality assurance; and (iii) supply and demand for teachers.

The paper will examine policy documents, reports, critique, and systemic developments with a focus on the changing and often contradictory nature of concepts such as professionalism, accountability, student success, and teacher quality.

Introduction

How can New Zealand schools be provided with a sufficient supply of knowledgeable and skilled teachers to meet student and social needs at a reasonable cost? This pragmatic question has shaped teacher education policy over decades but its interpretation and preferred solutions have varied markedly. All the aspects of the question can be debated. How is a ‘sufficient supply’ to be measured? What do ‘knowledgeable and skilled teachers’ look like? How are student and social needs to be defined? And what is a reasonable cost? This paper examines policy with reference to reports, critique, and systemic developments with a focus on the changing and often contradictory nature of concepts such as professionalism, accountability and teacher
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quality. It documents shifts from a period in which education policy was “consensual and incremental, guided by a combination of individualism and tolerant conformity within … a society characterised by common values to an unusual degree” (OECD, 1983, p. 10) to one in which deregulation and competition were seen as sufficient drivers of quality, and then a period of centrally driven performativity and regulation within a devolved system.

While teacher educators themselves can do much to enhance the quality of their programmes and their relationships with the profession and are held accountable for doing so, they are subject to much greater external regulation than most other professional programmes. Darling-Hammond (2006) claims, “in their efforts to regulate public education, agencies of government have increasingly sought to determine how teacher education programmes will function” (p. 313). Discussion of teacher education policy must examine how successive governments have viewed the aims and purposes of state education, the status and employment conditions of teachers, the expectations of and need for beginning teachers, the locus of training, the length and content of programmes and the quality control mechanisms that are designed to ensure these aims are achieved. The budgetary provision for teacher education is a further variable. Twice in New Zealand educational history teacher education institutions have been closed as a cost-saving measure.

This paper is divided into five sections. Four examine teacher education trends decade by decade. The fifth identifies and discusses trends and tensions and offers suggestions for TEFANZ as it strives to influence the policy process.

The 1970s

In 1970 the future of teacher education in New Zealand looked bright to those involved. Eight stand-alone teacher education colleges were offering prospective primary teachers a three-year pre-service programme. Students were still seen as teachers in training and paid an allowance to attend college and primary teachers were guaranteed their first appointments. Early childhood education was outside the preserve of colleges. Secondary teachers undertook a one-year programme but some schools still employed teachers with degrees but no teaching qualification. An extensive rebuilding programme was taking place across the country as college staffs expanded to cope with the higher numbers of students.

Three-year primary programmes, advocated since the mid 1940s, were implemented nationally over a four-year period from 1966. They had been strongly advocated by successive official reports: the Campbell Report (Department of Education, 1951), the Currie Commission Report (Department of Education, 1962), and the National Advisory Committee on the Training of Teachers Report (1964a, 1964b). All three assumed that teachers needed an in-depth and broad education in general and professional areas if they were to exercise the professional responsibility demanded by curriculum statements and to cope with the demands of a more diverse student body. Campbell posited that beginning teachers should have “some capacity to discriminate between assured knowledge and mere opinion, and between ephemeral stunts and real educational advances” (Department of Education, 1951, pp. 2–3). All recommended higher entry qualifications for entry to college. At the same time, these reports saw teacher education as firmly and properly under the overall control of the Department of Education, which retained responsibility for student quotas, approval of staff numbers,
finance, and appointment of the most senior staff. However, there was often a
comfortable consensus and communication between the leadership of colleges and
departmental officials, many of whom had served as school inspectors or college
lecturers before appointment. Professionalism was demonstrated by continuing
involvement with schools and a focus on children’s psychological needs. Critics have
suggested it was also a time when respectability and acceptance of authority were taken
for granted (Openshaw, 1996).

The 1970s in New Zealand were characterised by ongoing social change: the
election of the Kirk Labour Government in late 1972; the British entry into the
European Common Market in 1973 and ongoing oil shocks from 1974; increasing
rhetoric from feminists challenging taken for granted ideas about gender roles; and
Māori activism demanding recognition of Māori language and culture and land
grievances, which contributed to the establishment of the Waitangi Tribunal in 1975.
The colleges, developing their new professional freedom, were influenced by the
recommendations of the 1972 James Committee report in England (Department of
Education and Science, 1972) and most established closer relations with their
neighbouring universities. During the decade they also absorbed early childhood
education programmes, and towards the end began a greater involvement in providing
continuing professional study for teachers. Following the recommendations of the Hill
Committee (Department of Education, 1979), they were able to offer qualifications that
led to higher and advanced diplomas which equated for salary purposes to a first
degree. They were governed by councils with limited powers.

Reports into teacher education have been a recurring feature of New Zealand’s
educational history, though they have seldom led directly to major policy
changes. The Education Development Conference (Advisory Council on Educational Planning, 1974)
recommended yet another. The Hill report (Department of Education, 1979) found that
principals and inspectors commented on a steady improvement in the quality of students
leaving the colleges, and that these students appreciated the implications of their pupils’
diverse cultural backgrounds. Nevertheless it also raised a number of concerns. Among
these were the apparently lockstep pattern of college programmes and a desire for a
wider social and cultural mix in the student body. It suggested quotas for Māori and
Pacific Island entrants. However, it was assumed that the professionals in the
Department of Education and colleges would address these concerns together as they
saw fit. During the next decade this easy consensus was to disappear.

1980s

During the first few years of the decade, the Muldoon-led National Government was
still in power. Teacher education policy was driven by the need to cut student numbers
and by the convictions of the Minister of Education, Mervyn Wellington, about what
should be included in college curricula. Net migration losses, coupled with a falling
birth rate, resulted in major drops in school rolls with loss of teacher jobs. The
residential teachers college at Ardmore had closed in 1974 and there were rumours
about further closures with consequent fears among staff. In 1981 the axe fell on North
Shore College and in 1983 there were major redundancy and early retirement schemes
across the remaining institutions. Dunedin’s roll became so small there were queries
about its viability. Much institutional knowledge and skill disappeared. Mr Wellington
also attempted to put his own stamp on curricula by insisting the Department of
Education issue statements about the number of hours to be devoted to particular subjects, including a new area, multicultural studies. The relatively flexible timetables of the 1970s, based on the assumption that students needed time to read and think as well as attending classes, were forced to give way to much more structured programmes. Little emphasis was given to calls for more analysis of social injustice and ways in which it could be addressed, though taha Māori courses were mandated. Some colleges were authorised to introduce Māori bilingual programmes.

The fourth Labour Government, elected in mid 1984, lost little time in pushing through significant economic reforms and deregulation, underpinned by theories of marketisation, privatisation, financial accountability, and human capital theory. While the economy was the key focus in the government’s first term, teacher education came under scrutiny in the Report of the Parliamentary Select Committee for Education and Science into the quality of teaching in New Zealand (Education and Science Select Committee, 1986). It concluded that too many students were leaving school lacking qualifications, that not enough was done to bring unsatisfactory teachers to account, and that the influence of education professionals needed curbing. Its recommendations called for research into models for evaluating teaching that were frequent, reputable and credible and the separation of the inspectorate’s advisory and audit functions. Its recommendations for teacher education were for different and more flexible entry criteria and programme lengths, targeted assistance to under-represented groups, and research into the relationship between selection criteria and assessment, and later success in teaching. It took a much narrower skill-based perspective of teacher education than earlier reports and suggested lecturers should have five-year contracts and be trained in adult learning. Professionalism was demonstrated by measured accountability.

The second term of the fourth Labour Government brought sweeping changes to the education sector, including teacher education, with Prime Minister David Lange taking personal responsibility for the education portfolio. Treasury produced an unprecedented and detailed educational briefing to the incoming government (The Treasury, 1987). Its underlying new right assumptions about the balance between public and private benefit, its economic analysis of educational benefits, and its direct questioning of “simplistic assumptions about the effect of increased inputs on educational outputs” (p. 7) were seen as frightening portents in the field. On the basis of US research, Treasury challenged “the common mechanistic assumption that increased expenditure per child, smaller classes, longer teacher training and suchlike, lead automatically to improved student performance” (p. 8). Its rhetoric privileged choice, cost savings, accountability and change over continuity and professionalism.

Lange commissioned major reports on the administration of education and of post-secondary education. The Picot Report (Department of Education, 1988) and the Hawke Report (Hawke, 1988) were followed by government responses, then by legislation to implement reforms. In this case reports led directly to action. Teacher education was to be affected by both. Under the new legislation, schools were to be self-managing, governed by elected Boards of Trustees, and audited by a new body, which eventually became known as the Education Review Office (ERO). The Department of Education, accused of over-bureaucratisation, was wound up and a new policy-oriented Ministry of Education established. A New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) would take over the design and administration of national school qualifications and begin the
ambitious task of designing a framework for all qualifications in the tertiary sector, including teacher education.

1990s

Underpinning the massive changes to the tertiary sector mandated in the Education Amendment Act (1990) was a new right ideology that considered education a private rather than a public good, and insisted that students should invest in their future by paying increasing levels of fees. Competition was regarded as the driver of excellence so institutions were expected to compete rather than cooperate. While colleges continued to try to work collegially, the impact of the competitive funding model imposed by government caused strains to appear.

Teachers colleges, freed from Departmental control, became autonomous, totally responsible for finance and budgeting, determining staff needs, industrial relations, recruiting students and determining curriculum. The enormity of this step posed difficulties and challenges (Alcorn, 2006). Initially college leaders welcomed the apparent freedom to work as catalysts for change. They saw an opportunity to enhance the professional status of teacher education and enlarge its scope by an emphasis on the career-long learning needs of teachers. Their optimism was tempered, however, by financial stringencies—government funding per student fell each year during the 1990s and in 1993 funding for secondary programmes was arbitrarily cut by one third. Some colleges diversified into new fields or explored possible mergers. Hamilton Teachers College merged with the University of Waikato in December 1991. Palmerston North Teachers College merged with Massey University in 1996.

For the first five years or so of the new environment, teacher education policy at national level remained in a vacuum as the new Ministry of Education and other bodies grappled with issues of schooling. Nevertheless, colleges found the rhetoric of institutional freedom masked a level of control, though initially this was fragmented and diffused.

By mid decade, the exigencies of teacher supply were dominating policy and the plans of teacher education providers. The demographic trends of the 1980s had been reversed. School rolls were increasing rapidly and principals complained of difficulties in attracting qualified teachers. Concurrently, the Minister of Education, Lockwood Smith, promised improved staffing ratios within a short time frame. The Ministry of Education, no longer merely a policy body, was faced with a staffing crisis. In response it operated a number of ‘policy levers’. It initiated an international recruitment plan, provided funds for the retraining of teachers who had left the profession and offered incentives for one-year intensive courses for graduates wanting to enter primary teaching. These moves, short-term responses to staffing shortages in schools, were not underpinned with any wider strategic or professional assumptions. Rather, they were pragmatic responses to a shortage that had been predicted by educationalists.

The five colleges of education and the University of Waikato were forced to comply and develop new one-year programmes, often against the advice of local professional groups. One college that initially refused came under considerable Ministry of Education pressure to conform. But the Ministry was not convinced there was sufficient capacity within existing institutions and new providers were also encouraged to enter the field by contracting to recruit and train teachers. This move was greeted with alarm
by the New Zealand Council for Teacher Education (NZCTE). It feared new providers would lack resources and experience, cut corners and lower standards. The Council also feared the influence of England’s Teacher Training Agency, which mandated programmes that were two-thirds school-based.

The Teacher Registration Board (TRB) established in 1990 shared these concerns but it had been emasculated when the National-led Government elected in 1990 made teacher registration optional on the grounds that school Boards of Trustees should be free to make their own employment decisions—a clear example of new right ideology triumphing over issues of pupil protection. Teacher registration was made compulsory again after the passage of a Private Member’s Bill in 1996. The TRB worked hard to curb what it saw as unsuitable new programmes, insisting that each receive its approval before being funded. This approval was contingent on site visits and documentation of aims, course content, assessment, methodology and outcomes of the new programmes as well as evidence that programmes met revised unit standards developed by NZQA. These standards themselves were the subject of considerable academic debate (Codd, 1988; Gibbs & Aitken, 1996; Gibbs & Munroe, 1994; A. Hall, 1997; C. Hall, 1995). The proposed standards oscillated between more than 200 detailed and largely technicist skills and the final approximately twenty generic competencies. They have never been officially adopted.

While the Education Review Office (ERO) had no direct control over teacher education, it had a legitimate interest in the competence of teachers. In 1999 ERO conducted a review of teacher education programmes, which was heavily criticised by tertiary institutions for its lack of tertiary, teacher education or research expertise (TEFANZ, 1999). ERO considered teacher education to be ‘pre-employment training’. It expressed disappointment that employers, defined as the members of the more than 2000 Boards of Trustees around the country, had little say in the standards to be met by graduating teachers and noted inconsistencies in the competencies of beginning teachers (ERO, 1999). It was an industrial model that downplayed professional judgements.

The decade from 1990 was one of considerable pressure for school leaders as they came to terms with the competitive and entrepreneurial environment of self-managing schools. There was a new curriculum document to be implemented, as well as pressure to respond to increasing cultural and linguistic diversity among students. Small wonder that principals employing new staff wanted them to be competent across all areas and to need little or no additional support. In 1996 the Principals Federation, with support from the School Trustees Association (STA) and teacher unions, requested that the Minister of Education commission yet another review of teacher education. In October 1997 a Green Paper, Quality Teachers for Quality Learning, was published (Ministry of Education, 1997).

The Green Paper was produced entirely by Ministry of Education officials who commissioned reports from consultants and academics. Their aim was ambitious: to find “policy solutions to support a long term vision for education [which] must ensure that New Zealand has a world class teaching profession capable of serving our country’s needs into the future” (Ministry of Education, 1997, p. 6). The report delineated a policy context including a range of government initiatives such as a unified teaching force, the concurrent review of tertiary education, the Māori education strategy, and the qualifications policy. Gone was the concern for individual students that characterised the Scott report (Education and Science Select Committee, 1986).
twelve years earlier. The Green Paper had learned from Treasury and aimed to set standards to ensure that “taxpayer funds appropriated for pre-service teacher education are producing well trained beginning teachers” (p. 29), “versatile and committed to success” (p. 5). Interestingly the Green Paper recommended the establishment of a professional body for teachers to develop standards of professional competency. Until this was completed, the NZQA sponsored unit standards “could provide a basis for government’s specification of the functional competencies it wishes to fund” (p. 30).

2000s

The Green Paper in its turn passed into history, though its recommendation for an Education Council was one of the triggers for the establishment of the New Zealand Teachers Council, which replaced the Teacher Registration Board in 2002. To the disappointment of teacher educators, there was no provision for them to be represented on the Council as their counterparts in other countries were. Like the TRB before it, the Council has seen a major part of its role in approving and monitoring teacher education programmes. While the monitoring process has been sometimes seen as irksome and time-consuming, the publication of graduating standards for teachers (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2007) has been generally welcomed. Developed after lengthy consultation, the standards signal that the profession has the right to determine who can enter the profession. Institutional programmes must demonstrate how the standards will be developed and assessed. As Darling-Hammond (2006) claims, this delegates substantial authority to a profession while leaving it accountable. But the position of the Teachers Council, sitting uneasily between the profession and government, has at times been precarious and its functions are once again under review.

The incoming Minister of Education in 2000, Trevor Mallard, expressed concerns about the proliferation of teacher education providers and imposed a moratorium on new programmes. Since then a number of the new providers of the 1990s have abandoned the field—often on economic grounds. But the profile of providers is very different from that in 1990. Three wānanga offer teacher education in a Māori context. Several private training establishments have continued, and the situation is complex and diverse in early childhood where field-based programmes have survived. The bulk of teachers for the primary and secondary sectors now enrol in university programmes.

Teacher education’s move into the university sector finally took place without overt policy pressures. By 2000 all the remaining colleges were offering their own NZQA-approved degree programmes at undergraduate and master’s levels. A move by the Auckland College of Education in 1996 had triggered a shift from four-year Bachelor of Education degrees in cooperation with universities, to three-year professional degrees that the Ministry of Education agreed would qualify beginning teachers for the same salary level. Cost must have been a factor in this decision. While this decision led to industrial strife between the Ministry and PPTA, it placed the colleges on a more equal footing in negotiating mergers. The last two independent colleges of education merged with neighbouring universities in 2006.

The Tertiary Education Advisory Commission set up by Minister of Tertiary Education Steve Maharey made no firm recommendations about teacher education, which it singled out “as an instructive microcosm of the ways in which the competitive ethos has affected tertiary education” (TEAC, 2002, p. 118). Having stressed that cooperation rather than competition should drive developments in the national interest,
it suggested yet another review “of the future shape of pre-service teacher education provision, taking into account international literature on teacher education, the role of the proposed Education Council, and the long-term needs of the school and early childhood systems” (p. xxvi). However, it perpetuated a long-term New Zealand ambivalence about the location and level of teacher education that partly stems from the way it spans the compulsory and tertiary sectors. It suggested colleges of education should be a ‘specialist teaching’ category, concentrating on undergraduate education and carrying out research that supports these programmes. Other professional occupations, such as medicine, engineering and architecture, would be carried out in specialist teaching and research institutions working at both graduate and postgraduate levels. The Commission exhorted universities “to take a leadership role in promoting teacher education” and “examine how they can best utilise their resources to develop and support teacher education programmes suited to the needs of a knowledgeable and critical minded workforce and citizenry in the 21st century” (p. 75). Two key phrases in this sentence reflect the Campbell Report (Department of Education, 1951). The Commission expressed support for critical thought and citizenship as well as technical skills for the workforce.

In mid-decade, to inform work being carried out on teacher standards, the Ministry of Education and the New Zealand Teachers Council sponsored four research reports including a literature review (Cameron & Baker, 2004), an analysis of New Zealand Teachers Council documentation (Cameron, 2004), an extensive survey of initial teacher education policy and practice (Kane, 2005) and a study of perceptions of people involved in initial teacher education outside tertiary institutions (Greenwood, Cobley, Mikaere-Wallis, & Fa’afoi, 2005).

In 2010 the Ministry of Education published the final report of the Education Workforce Advisory Group set up to examine initial teacher education, induction and mentoring of beginning teachers, career pathways, leadership and accountability systems. Its scope was much wider and more integrated than many earlier reviews. This report made a bold suggestion for raising the standard of beginning teachers by moving to graduate entry to teacher education programmes. All initial teacher education would be at master’s degree level and include a period of internship. This model builds on patterns from Finland, the US and parts of Australia. They note their belief that “establishing such an approach across the teaching profession will raise the quality, status and attractiveness of the profession” (Education Workforce Advisory Group, 2010, p. 7). Treasury ideas from 1987 appear to have been superseded.

Conclusion

Teacher education in New Zealand has changed markedly since 1970. It is difficult to estimate how much this is due to articulated policy, how much to short-term response to social, economic or demographic changes, how much to international and local research, or policy borrowing. New Zealand’s small size makes systemic change relatively easy to contemplate, as the Picot and Hawke reforms demonstrate, but teacher education has not been subject directly to sudden dramatic shifts, such as occurred in the United Kingdom and Australia where teachers colleges were incorporated into the university sector by government decree. New Zealand did not adopt the policies of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) in the United Kingdom, which mandated a shift to largely school-based teacher education programmes and inspection of programmes.
Institutions and their staffs have adjusted to changing conditions, sometimes willingly and sometimes with reluctance.

There appear to have been no consistent long-term policy goals for teacher education, though some gradual trends can be identified: a move to higher entry qualifications; an acceptance that teacher education programmes should take place in multi-purpose institutions; an acceptance that teacher educators should be researchers as well as teachers; an acceptance that teacher education is a continuing process and covers all sectors; and a redefinition of the nature of professionalism, accountability and standards. There have been a plethora of reviews and investigations with few firm policy strategies adopted as a result. Teacher education has seldom been a policy priority and when it has—as in 1997—it was for the wrong reasons and without consideration of longer-term issues. It is hard to avoid the conclusion that, since the injection of funds that accompanied the move to three-year primary teacher training, a prime consideration of those responsible for government teacher education policy has been to cut costs, refusing to consider the true cost of practicum or the optimum length of courses. The recent recommendations of the Education Workforce Advisory Group (2010) would, if implemented, reduce the cost of teacher education by shifting much of it into other degree programmes. Now that teacher education takes place within multidisciplinary institutions there is a need to ensure a fair share of government and fee funding from internal allocations.

Teacher education programme leaders face complex professional challenges. As shifts in the expectations of educational outcomes change so do the demands on teacher education. Teacher educators need to prepare students to work inclusively and develop culturally responsive pedagogies. They have absorbed enormous shifts in the nature and purpose of assessment, and enlarged their understanding of literacy and numeracy and the relations between disciplinary knowledge and generic competencies. ICT has become a significant part of the learning and teaching context. They must balance research and theory-based programmes and enhanced practica. However, they also know that apprenticeship models are not dead. Aspects of them are retained in proposals for programmes derived from the Teach for America schemes.

There is a particular tension for university academics designing teacher education programmes. On the one hand they expect to develop a critical awareness in their students, an ability to question the status quo. On the other hand they must prepare students to work in a system that is constrained and in which professionalism means questioning your own classroom practice but not the wider contexts in which schools operate and the factors outside the classroom that affect children’s learning. Balancing these demands can be delicate.

A significant policy dilemma is defining who is ‘fit to be a teacher’. In 1970 some students were admitted to a three-year programme holding only School Certificate. Secondary teaching students needed a degree. Now all need to qualify for entry to university. If the 2010 Education Workforce Advisory Group report is adopted they will need a first degree. Then, as now, suitability was determined by interview, to establish oral communication skills, range of interests and community involvements. In 1970 most students were school leavers and the majority were New Zealand Pākehā. Today the mix of ethnicities and ages is far greater. Some policy levers such as officially set quotas for Māori or Pasifika students or incentives such as government scholarships have been used to help achieve this. There continues to be ongoing tension between the
need for advanced academic qualifications and the belief that the teaching force should be widely representative of student demographics. This should not be merely an issue for individual students and institutions but addressed on a national level. Nor should we assume that all students require a programme of the same length or design. Standards need not mean uniformity.

Accountability has always been a feature of teacher education. In the 1970s teachers colleges were responsible to the Department of Education and inspectors reported regularly on the performance of beginning teachers. The Scott report (Education and Science Select Committee, 1986) suggested greater accountability to students and parents. The 1990s imposed an evaluative state model. In 2012 teacher education providers are accountable to the New Zealand Teachers Council through their approval and regular monitoring of programmes and most to the Committee on University Academic Programmes. Both these processes involve peer review. But these processes monitor input variables. Measuring the competence of beginning teachers is a much more complex issue, depending on a host of contextual factors. However, it is tempting to blame perceived shortcomings in teacher performance on their initial professional preparation.

There has been curiously little sustained policy contestation in teacher education in New Zealand. The Teachers Colleges Association (TCA) during the 1980s battled valiantly to mitigate the effects of cuts to institutions. All such associations and unions were mistrusted in the new right period that followed. Academics have examined aspects of policy (Alcorn, 1999, 2006; Codd, 1998; Ell, 2011; Jesson, 2000; Snook, 1992, 2000). NZCTE in the 1990s maintained a vigorous programme of liaison with other groups including teacher organisations, the Minister and Ministry of Education and was part of the Tertiary Consultative Committee. TEFANZ continued this work and also the programme of national conferences to debate ideas. Because of its small size, these New Zealand organisations lack the resources available to the Australian Council of Deans of Education or UCET in Britain, which have been able to commission important research (ACDE, 1998; Preston, 1997) and lobby politicians. Indeed only the right-wing think tank associated with the (former) Business Roundtable has been able to afford commissioned research, producing a sustained commentary on the Green Paper (Education Forum, 1988). TEFANZ needs to take its role as advocate for teacher education seriously, both in developing and promoting policy principles and in strengthening partnerships with other groups and the Ministry of Education. This conference takes a new and interesting path and I hope will lead to renewed vigour and purpose.

References


