6. Quality in other professions

The evidence gathered during the Review is unequivocal: while teachers are most often described as professional people, teaching is not a profession. The terms of reference of the Review required it to examine the ‘systems and procedures used to prepare for and enter other professions’. Understanding the core issues of what is a profession and what sets it apart from vocations and occupations are important contexts for this Review.

The professions of accountancy, dentistry, engineering, law, medicine, nursing, psychology and social work were looked at particularly because they have:

- some characteristics similar to teaching
- a range of professional training structures
- varying status within the community.

Specific comparisons were made between teaching and nursing, given the similarities they have under the broad umbrella of the ‘helping and caring professions’. Further, nursing and teaching are two professions where the State is the major employer.

Information of this kind has not been collected previously in any recent reviews of teacher education in Australia. The study provided:

- comparative information on how members of different professions are prepared, including the extent and form of on-the-job training, the structure of professional experience, and the systems of accountability and regulation
- information about the ways in which members of different professions update their knowledge and skills
- insights and understandings about the processes and strengths of professional preparation in other areas.

The information gained from the study provided a basis for comparing the quantity and quality of teacher education with professional preparation and continuing education in other professions. (Appendix 4)

Two main models for establishing and maintaining a profession were identified.

The first model is that which covers the statutory professions. These are the professions established by and subject to law, act, decree or statute. Examples of statutory professional authorities in New South Wales include: The Nurses Registration Board (New South Wales); the Dental Board of New South Wales; The New South Wales Medical Board; Psychologists Registration Board; and The Law Society of New South Wales.

The second model covers the self-regulated professions, being those professions established to regulate their own standards and ethics of practice through an independent body. Self-regulating professional bodies are: the Australian Association of Social Workers; the Institution of Engineers, Australia; The Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia; CPA Australia; and the Royal Australian College of General Practitioners.

A key difference between the two models is that those members of statutory professions found to have breached codes of professional or ethical practice, can lose their right to practise. On the other hand, members of self-regulatory professions lose only their membership of the profession and can, theoretically at least, remain working in the general area.

Methodology

Information was provided through a range of primary and secondary sources. Initially, key personnel involved in providing professional experience were interviewed to identify the relevant stakeholders, institutions, processes and structure within each profession. A wide range of settings was visited during the Review where professional experience was provided. Information was obtained from the web sites of the professional statutory and regulatory bodies, many of which are highly sophisticated and comprehensive.

In addition, visits were made to teaching hospitals, The Law Society of New South Wales, and other institutions involved in providing professional experience.

Finally, documentation about pre-service training, regulation, accreditation, registration, and continuing professional development was examined to establish an overview of the professional organisation, preparation and continuing education in the professions selected, as at the commencement of the year 2000.
6.1 Defining a profession

How other professions view themselves is fundamental to how they manage issues such as membership, registration, and the value they attach to professional learning and growth.

Increasingly, professions are moving toward a social contract model emphasising a commitment to client service in return for the privilege of self-regulation. Such a model requires a code of ethics to govern the practice of the profession’s members. In return, the community grants a high degree of autonomy to the profession and accepts that its practitioners are worthy of high status.

The Australian Council of Professions describes the social contract nature of the relationship between a profession and its clients in the Council’s statement on professionalism and professions.

A profession is a disciplined group of individuals who adhere to ethical standards and uphold themselves to, and are accepted by the public as possessing special knowledge and skills in a widely recognised body of learning derived from research, education and training at a high level, and who are prepared to exercise this knowledge and these skills in the interest of others. It is inherent in the definition of a profession that a code of ethics govern the activities of each profession. Such codes require behaviour and practice beyond the personal moral obligations of an individual. They define and demand high standards of behaviour in respect to the services provided to the public and in dealing with professional colleagues. Further, these codes are enforced by the profession and are acknowledged and accepted by the community.

The Council’s code of ethics is set out in Table 6.1. Members of the Council include many of the self-regulated professions studied, including: The Institution of Engineers, Australia; Australian Dental Association; CPA Australia; and The Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia.

Teaching does not operate in this way; it is neither self-regulatory, nor does the profession itself identify its service obligations. To emphasise this point, teaching is not represented by a body through which it could seek membership of the Australian Council of Professions.

Table 6.1  The Australian Council of Professions - Code of Ethics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>at all times place the responsibility for the welfare, health and safety of the community before their responsibility to the profession, to sectional or private interests, or to other professionals;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>act so as to uphold and enhance the honour, integrity and dignity of the profession;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>perform professional practice in only their areas of competence;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>build their professional reputation on merit and shall not compete unfairly;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>apply their skills and knowledge in the interest of their employer or client for whom they shall act, in professional matters, as faithful agents or trustees;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>give evidence, express opinions or make statements in an objective and truthful manner and on the basis of adequate knowledge;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>continue their professional development throughout their careers and shall actively assist and encourage professionals under their direction to advance their knowledge and experience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


---


6.2 Professional registration and regulation models

All professions reviewed, except teaching in New South Wales, have a professional or regulatory authority which is responsible for registering applicants as members of their profession. Many of the registration bodies also manage mandated systems of continuing professional development. The study identified a continuum of professional regulation and registration models. These range from statutory regulation with accompanying registration procedures, to co-regulation and finally, in the case of teaching, to little or no regulation.

Most health professions in New South Wales are managed by professional registration boards, for example, the Nurses Registration Board of New South Wales. The Law Society of New South Wales also acts as a registering authority for the legal profession.

Such registration bodies have a statutory responsibility for accrediting individuals to practise their profession. They are also self-regulatory as their procedures are administered by those within the profession who possess the relevant knowledge to make judgements about professional issues in the workplace. As a result, these registration bodies have both a regulatory and a social contract aspect to their operations. They emphasise the concepts of public interest and public confidence.

An important sanction available to these bodies is that non-registration means that by law an individual may not practise in the respective profession.

In the middle of this continuum of professional registration are co-regulatory systems. In a co-regulatory model, registration systems are established by a professional body. Individual professionals become members of the body and are registered by it. However, the professional body does not operate under statute and is unable to prevent unqualified members from practising in their profession. Such bodies may only refuse membership. Social work and accountancy operate within this particular model. In some of these co-regulated professions, governments have a role monitoring the profession and proposing standards. Co-regulation models place a strong emphasis on their social contract with the community.

Teaching lies at the other end of the regulation scale in that it is largely a ‘no regulation’ model. Although teachers in government schools are required to hold a professional qualification from a recognised university, teachers in non-government schools are not required under the Education Act 1990 to hold professional qualifications. In teaching, there is no professional body to oversee registration, accreditation and the development of professional standards or accountability.

Table 6.2 sets out registration, professional licensing requirements and practising licence mandates across the professions under consideration. The different modes of practice and operation are a response to the needs which exist within each profession.

The Nurses Registration Board of New South Wales approves nurse education curriculum and registers nurses on completion of their nursing courses. The Dental Board of New South Wales registers dentists who have completed an approved course of training.

The registration of solicitors and barristers in New South Wales is set out in the Legal Professions Act, 1987. The legislation establishes a professional body, The Law Society of New South Wales, which issues practising certificates to applicants completing law degrees and professional legal training (PLT) through both universities and the Solicitors Admission Board.

The legal profession in New South Wales has had a staged system of professional registration since 1983. All solicitors are initially registered with a restricted practice licence (Class B). New solicitors are required to work under the supervision of unrestricted (Class A) registrants for a minimum period of two years. Only Class A registrants may establish a new legal practice, become partners in legal practices or provide unsupervised legal advice. In addition to two years’ supervision, Class A registrants must participate in mandated Practice Management Professional Development (PMPD)\(^\text{118}\).

In medicine, practising accreditation is regulated by the specialist Royal Colleges. The New South Wales Medical Board is the registration authority for all medical practitioners in the State. The principal responsibility of the New South Wales Medical Board is to protect the public.

The Board allows only properly trained doctors to be

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profession</th>
<th>CPD Mandated Requirements*</th>
<th>Qualifying Body</th>
<th>Licensing Requirements</th>
<th>Licence Renewal</th>
<th>Statutory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>NSW Nurses Registration Board</td>
<td>Renewable annually</td>
<td>Renewable annually</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental Surgery</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>Dental Board of NSW</td>
<td>Renewable annually practising certificate</td>
<td>Renewable annually</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law (Solicitors only)</td>
<td>Mandatory Continuing Legal Education (MCLE) Minimum of ten hours a year</td>
<td>The Law Society of NSW</td>
<td>• initial admission by Supreme Court</td>
<td>Self regulating</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Practitioner**</td>
<td>Points system over a three year period</td>
<td>Royal Australian College of General Practitioners</td>
<td>Regular point statements provided by RACGP</td>
<td>Triennial</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine - all specialist fields</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>NSW Medical Board</td>
<td>Graduation and successful Internship</td>
<td>Renewable annually</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Work</td>
<td>30 points annually</td>
<td>Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW)</td>
<td>Individuals must submit a log of professional development programs attended</td>
<td>Random biannual audit</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>150 hours in a three year period relevant to area of practice</td>
<td>The Institution of Engineers, Australia</td>
<td>National Professional Engineers Register (NPERI) (individual must keep records)</td>
<td>Random audit</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>Psychologists Registration Board</td>
<td>Annual renewal fee</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mandatory staff development program - 20 points over a two year period</td>
<td>Australian Psychological Society(APS) (must hold a Masters Degree in Psychology for membership )</td>
<td>APS maintain a central record</td>
<td>Monitored by APS</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountancy</td>
<td>90 hours structured CPD averaged over a triennium</td>
<td>Certified Practising Accountants, Australia</td>
<td>Members maintain records of CPD activities</td>
<td>Triennium random audit</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>120 hours over a three year period (at least 20 hours annually)</td>
<td>The Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia (ICAA)</td>
<td>Individual maintains annual record</td>
<td>Annual membership subscription</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* CPD — continuing professional development

** For recognition as a general practitioner by the Health Insurance Commission which establishes a Medical Board to regulate membership of the profession.
registered and requires that they maintain proper standards of conduct and competence. The Board is a statutory authority, established under the Medical Practice Act 1992 (amended in June 2000, now the Medical Practice Amendment Act 2000), to administer the provisions of the Act in relation to the practice of medicine in New South Wales\(^\text{119}\).

The new legislation introduces performance based assessment. The Medical Board will be developing strong links with the specialist Royal Colleges, as one of the requirements of registration will be the need for practitioners to advise the Board of the continuing professional development undertaken.

Current legislation means that the Medical Board investigates only isolated incidents brought to its attention by an individual. However, moves toward performance based assessment would mean that reported incidents could be considered in the context of the wider practice of the medical practitioner involved. Ultimately, performance based assessment would include a review of medical records, interviews and oral examinations, and direct observation of clinical performance.

Standards for initial preparation and continuing education in medicine are the responsibilities of professional organisations. One such body, the Royal Australian College of General Practitioners, is the largest general Practitioner organisation in Australia as well as the largest clinical college. Its mission is to promote high standards of care in general practice through education, training and research for the benefit of members of the community\(^\text{120}\).

Engineering practice is regulated by the Institution of Engineers, Australia, which has developed standards for engineering courses and a registration system to license engineers.

The Australian Association of Social Workers assesses and approves social work course curricula, which guarantees completing students their eligibility to join the Australian Association of Social Workers. Licensing boards operate by:

- assessing, approving and accrediting professional education courses and curricula

- licensing, registering and providing practising certificates to individual professions
- developing and operating disciplinary processes.

Legal, medical, nursing and dental authorities conduct all processes.

**Professional performance accountability**

The social contract nature of professional registration, accreditation and licensing in nursing, medicine, dentistry, accounting and law has resulted in structured procedures for responding to issues of unsatisfactory professional conduct.

In nursing, the Nurses Registration Board of New South Wales, as the statutory authority and the Health Care Complaints Commission [HCCC], an independent body, handle disciplinary matters relating to health issues. This involves:

- accepting complaints lodged by the public
- consulting on the pathway for all complaints
- providing written notification to the nurse concerned
- coordinating mediation or conciliation where warranted
- undertaking investigation if necessary
- referring investigated complaints to Professional Standards Committees established by the Nurses Registration Board of New South Wales
- determining penalties if complaints are sustained.

The New South Wales Nurses Act 1991 defines professional misconduct and unsatisfactory professional conduct. The definition is set out in Appendix 4 (Table A4.4).

In law, a Legal Services Commissioner is empowered by the Legal Profession Act 1987. The Act provides the machinery and procedure for the making and determination of complaints about legal practitioners. The Commissioner’s powers are described in Appendix 4 (Table A4.5).

In medicine, the New South Wales Medical Board is able to receive complaints about doctors from anyone in the community. The Board reviews each complaint and assesses the best means of addressing the issues raised in it. This assessment is undertaken by the Medical Board’s Conduct Committee in conjunction with the Health Care Complaints Commission (HCCC).

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The Medical Board and the Health Care Complaints Commission have a range of avenues available to them to deal with a complaint. These avenues include:

- referring a complaint for further investigation
- taking urgent action, including suspension if the doctor poses a serious threat to the public
- referring a complaint to another person or body
- referring a practitioner to undergo a medical assessment
- determining that no further action be taken on the complaint.

Once an investigation has been completed by the Health Care Complaints Commission, a recommendation may be put to the Board to refer the matter to a disciplinary hearing. This may take the form of a Medical Tribunal, Professional Standards Committee or counselling.

After a complaint has been referred to a disciplinary hearing, the Board makes all the arrangements to convene a hearing and ensures it is conducted in accordance with the legislative requirements. The Board then implements the decisions of the disciplinary hearing and ensures that there is compliance with the orders of the Committee or Tribunal.

In dentistry, matters of conduct are managed by the New South Wales Dental Board and covered by the Dentists Act 1989. The Ethics Committee, which is a sub-committee of the Board, addresses complaints regarding the professional conduct of individual members of the profession. The Australian Dental Association (ADA), the professional organisation for dentists, has also established procedures to deal with complaints made against its members. These are detailed in its Code of Ethics and Conduct Guidelines121.

In accountancy, the Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia (ICAA) and CPA Australia have a joint code of professional conduct that is mandatory for all members, affiliates and registered graduates. The Code recognises that the objectives of the accountancy profession are to work to the highest standards of professionalism, to attain the highest levels of performance and generally to meet public interest requirements. Non-compliance can lead to disciplinary proceedings identified in Article 27 of the Articles of Association for CPA Australia and By Law 40 for ICAA. The processes to manage purported breaches of the code are slightly different in both organisations. These processes may include the complaint being:

- submitted in writing with supporting documentation
- referred to an investigating committee whose sole purpose is to determine whether the member has a case to answer (CPA Australia only)
- referred to a disciplinary committee.

An appeal process is also available.

For complaints upheld, penalties are applied in accordance with the articles. These could include forfeiture of membership, fines, censorship, need for additional professional development or a practice review.

In teaching, matters of professional conduct are the concern of employers rather than the profession acting through agreed standards of professionalism. Employers have developed codes of conduct and practice to provide a framework for professionalism in teaching.

Teaching is unique when compared with the other professions studied, having no professional registration authority, no mandated system of continuing professional development and no professional oversight of teaching standards or practice.

6.3 Continuing professional development

Of particular interest to the Review was the view, often expressed both by members of professional bodies and the wider community, that the image of a profession is correlated to public and well advertised procedures for continuing professional development. For example, in accountancy:

As a self-regulated profession it is obligatory to demonstrate to the community a commitment to keep abreast of current developments and provide the high standard expected of chartered accountants122.

CPA Australia has recently announced enhancements to its rigorous continuing professional development requirements.

From 1 January 2000, the continuing professional development (CPD) commitment required of CPA Australia members and fellows will be increased to 90 hours of structured continuing professional development averaged over a triennium. From 1 January 2003, the continuing professional development requirement for members or fellows will increase to 120 hours of structured continuing professional development averaged over a triennium.

In general practice in medicine, the Royal Australian College of General Practitioners approaches professional development through a combination of quality assurance and continuing education. Under the current scheme, general practitioners must complete continuing medical education units, a clinical audit and professional development totalling 130 units over three years. The aim of the College’s quality assurance and continuing education program is to assist general practitioners in Australia maintain and improve the quality of care they give to patients and promote the highest possible standards of care to the community. A key objective is to demonstrate the accountability of general practitioners to the community by:

- documenting participation in effective quality assurance and continuing medical education which responds to community needs
- discussing quality general practice with community groups
- identifying constraints on the delivery of quality general practice care

Furthermore, the College has developed a rationale for continuing professional education and research on its effectiveness. This rationale is set out in Table 6.3. In law, a market research study undertaken in 1996 by Keys Young on behalf of The Law Society of New South Wales indicated that lawyers are acknowledged by the broader community as having specialised knowledge and skills. The research found that the community was aware that in addition to their initial qualification, lawyers had to ‘keep up with changes and new developments in the law’.

Similar studies overseas have drawn the same link between public perception and continuing education.

The Law Reform Committee of The Law Society of New South Wales concluded in 1985 that the mandatory continuing legal education (MCLE) scheme was a necessary response to the public’s criticism of the profession and its own concerns about member competence. While this Committee also recognised that the scheme was not able to solve all the profession’s problems, it did suggest ‘that there is an obligation upon the profession to maintain and improve its standards and to make the public aware of those standards and the value that is to be attributed to them’. A mandatory scheme for on-going professional development is one of the profession’s responses to increased public scrutiny and demands for accountability. In addition, a national discussion paper on the review of the Federal civil justice system released by the Australian Law Reform Commission in August 1999, suggested that ‘all states and territories adopt mandatory continuing legal education (MCLE) requirements for all practising lawyers’. This recommendation was adopted in April 2000.

Within the statutory professional organisations, accountancy, law, medicine, social work and engineering have developed mandatory systems of continuing professional development. For example, Table 6.4 sets out the rationale for continuing professional development in social work and law. In the professions of law, medicine, engineering, social work and accountancy, mandatory continuing professional development has been linked by the relevant registration body to membership renewal. In law and medicine, unless its members keep up-to-date through on-going professional development, licences or certificates to practise are not renewed. There are no such requirements in teaching. The structure, operation and funding of continuing professional development across the professions are set out in Table 6.5. The table shows that teaching, unlike most other professions studied, does not link either professional development requirements or funding of professional development to any mandatory licence renewal or assessment system.

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126 The Law Society of New South Wales, p. 11.
127 The Law Society of New South Wales, p. 11.
The Australian community expects and deserves doctors who continually strive to provide the highest standards of care. Like other clinical colleges in Australia and overseas, the RACGP has responded to this expectation by introducing a Program that requires participation in quality assurance and continuing education.

With the attendant cost to providers and participants, it begs the question: “Does this program make a difference?” To do so, it is based on good research evidence about how quality assurance and continuing education are effective in medical practice.

Evaluation shows that well designed CME almost always improves doctors’ knowledge. More sophisticated research in the past twenty years has aimed to evaluate more complex impacts of CME such as doctor performance and patient health outcomes. Systematic reviews and meta-analyses of CME impact studies show convincingly that quality assurance and continuing education activities can improve doctors’ knowledge, competence and performance and patients’ health outcomes.

Table 6.3 Theoretical Basis of the Quality Assurance and Continuing Education Program

Table 6.4 Objectives of professional development - Law and Social Work

Law

The Law Society’s Handbook for the Legal Education and Professional Development Solicitors articulates the following aim for professional development:

“Professional development will foster the development of skills and knowledge of solicitors necessary to provide high quality legal services to the community and promote a spirit of continuing learning amongst solicitors. Professional development activities will enable solicitors to:

- acquire a wide range of skills relating to the delivery of legal services and the management of their practices;
- work with and train others involved in the delivery of legal services;
- maintain up-to-date knowledge of the law;
- master new areas of law;
- keep up-to-date with changes in the practice of the law; and
- maintain and enhance their level of competence.”

Social Work

The primary objective of the CPE policy is to ensure that social workers maintain the highest possible standards of practice through a commitment to continued learning in all fields of social work practice.

This continued learning takes a variety of forms including conferences, seminars, authoring an article, teaching, professional reading, supervising students.

CPE aims to:

- maintain high standards of practice in the social work profession
- provide members with important information and training
- allow members to achieve Accredited Social Worker status, with high professional standards recognised in the industry and the community at large
- promote accountability.

Note: CPE - Continuing Professional Development

Examples of continuing professional development frameworks for medicine, law and accountancy are outlined in Appendix 4 (Tables A4.1, A4.2 and A4.3).

The medical profession operates the most comprehensive system of licence renewal and continuing professional development.

The emphasis given to lifelong learning across other professions, through mandatory certification requirements, is also reflected in the level of support provided by employers for professional development. This support is either in the form of time away from work or financial assistance through the payment of course costs or travel and accommodation costs.

Although much professional development work is in the form of short courses, either undertaken within or outside the workplace, an increasing proportion is in the form of higher or postgraduate degrees and in particular course work degrees.

The level of employer support for employees involved in postgraduate coursework was surveyed in the 1999 Graduate Destinations Survey conducted by the Graduate Careers Council of Australia. Figures 6.1 and 6.2 compare the level of support across selected professions.

The graphs show that in almost every profession, a greater proportion of employers provide time away from work rather than financial support. There are continuing education activities for teachers that are not captured by these data. But this is no different from other professions. The massive retraining exercise in the accountancy profession that has ensued from the implementation of the Goods and Services Tax (GST) is but one example.

In comparison with the other selected professions, education and training ranks 19 out of 27 for financial support and 27 out of 27 in the provision of time to undertake further studies.

Although there are differences in the size of the professions and their response to the survey, the results are highly informative. The issue of professional learning is taken seriously in other professions and although there is a clear separation of employer responsibilities from those of employees, employers see benefit in advancing their ‘human capital’.

6.4 Maintaining currency: comparing professions

Every profession includes members who leave and rejoin. In the past, initial pre-service training and subsequent professional experience were seen as providing all the necessary competencies for professional practice over the course of professional life.

It is now acknowledged that changes in professional knowledge, skills and attitudes are more rapid and demanding. Significant periods of absence from professional practice now require training to guarantee currency and to renew, refresh and add to the professional skills still retained.

Although recognised as an issue, the bodies considered do not have explicit requirements for a person seeking to re-enter the profession after a period of absence. Nevertheless, in those professions where the employers have systems which require maintenance of currency to be demonstrated, there appear to be two types of systems evolving.

The first involves explicit mandatory requirements where returning professionals must undertake set programs of study. The second involves case-by-case review where returning professionals must demonstrate to registration and accreditation bodies how they have maintained currency.

Medicine, nursing and social work all require continuation of membership or registration to the professional organisation and, where relevant, maintenance of the continuing professional development programs mandated by the professional organisation.

These data support the evidence available to the Review that continuing education for teachers during employment is given a low priority by most employers. It is an area that employers of teachers, the university and the profession must address.

For the professions studied, nursing is the only one that offers a refresher course. These are designed for registered nurses wishing to return to the workforce. There is an understanding within the profession that nurses will undertake a refresher course before re-employment in the State hospital system if they have not worked in the field within the previous five years.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profession</th>
<th>CPD Mandated Requirements</th>
<th>Licence Renewal</th>
<th>Providers</th>
<th>Assessment System</th>
<th>Funding*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>Various providers, no accreditation system</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>Employer and employee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing**</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>Prescribed annual fee</td>
<td>Various providers, no accreditation system</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>Self funded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental Surgery</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>Annual renewal with fee</td>
<td>USyd, Aust Dental Association, others</td>
<td>nil</td>
<td>Self funded</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Law                 | Mandatory continuing legal education (MCLE)   | Self regulating | Various providers within Law Society Regulatory Framework | • Seminar, web site based programs, workshops  
• Must be relevant to practitioners work                                                                                                         | Employer and employee approx. $60-$90 per point |}
| General Practitioner| Points system over a three year period        | Triennial       | Various providers accredited by the qualifying body | • Professional development  
• Continuing medical education  
• Clinical audit                                                                                                                                                                                                 | Self funded                                  |
| Specialist          | Points system for most specialities           | Varied          | Universities (continuing education) Royal Colleges | Varied                                                                                                                                                                                                        | Self funded                                  |
| Social Work         | 30 points annually                            | Random biennial audit | Australian Association of Social Workers, others (double points if activity is offered by the qualifying body) | Published schedule of activities and points.  
• Skills development  
• Professional knowledge  
• Development of improved policies                                                                                                                                                                          |                                                |
| Engineering         | 150 hours in a 3 year period relevant to area of practice | Random audit | Institution of Engineers, Australia  
In-house education programs and other providers | • Formal education  
• Informal learning  
• Conferences  
• Presentations  
• Service activities  
• Industry involvement for academics                                                                                                                                                                        | Employer and employee (dependent on size of employing authority) |
| Psychology          | Nil                                            | Annual renewal  | Nil                                            | Nil                                                                                                                                                                                                              |                                                |
| CPA Accountancy     | 90 hours structured CPD averaged over a triennium | CPA Australia  | Various providers                              | Structured program - clear objectives and frameworks                                                                                                                                                         | Varies - employer or self funded              |
| ICAA Accountancy    | 120 hours over a three year period (at least 20 hours annually) | The Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia (ICAA) | Various providers                              | • Institute organised activities  
• Development maintenance or expansion of professional competence  
• Tertiary courses  
• Researching and writing technical papers  
• Professional journals                                                                                                                                                                                  | Varies - employer or self funded              |

* Self funded — payments by individual professional member

** NSW data only. Some states have compulsory continuing professional development.
Figure 6.1 Proportion of final year postgraduate coursework students receiving financial support, selected professions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profession</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All professions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Built Envr, Urban Planning, Surveying, Architecture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Para-legal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Psychology</td>
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Source: Adapted from Dean Ashenden and Sandra Milligan, Sydney Morning Herald, 12 October 2000.

Based on data from 1999 Graduate Destinations Survey conducted by the Graduate Careers Council of Australia.

Note: Professions with fewer than 10 responses to the survey are not reported individually.

Figure 6.2 Proportion of final year postgraduate coursework students given time-off by their employer, selected professions

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<th>Profession</th>
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Source: Adapted from Dean Ashenden and Sandra Milligan, Sydney Morning Herald, 12 October 2000.

Based on data from 1999 Graduate Destinations Survey conducted by the Graduate Careers Council of Australia.

Note: Professions with fewer than 10 responses to the survey are not reported individually.
Some of the courses are sponsored by the New South Wales Department of Health and attract no fees. Others are conducted through the New South Wales College of Nursing. These courses consist of three weeks (60 hours) of clinical experience and six weeks of course work. Courses are available by flexible delivery. It is interesting to note that the ‘five years recency’ practice is not mandated and no reference is made to it by the Nurses Registration Board of New South Wales. Nurses need to maintain their registration with the Board.

In accountancy, the guidelines from CPA Australia state that accountants employed in public practice, who are absent from the profession for less than five years can renew their membership. To be reinstated as a member or fellow of CPA Australia, former members or fellows must have completed, in the twelve months prior to regaining CPA status, 40 hours of continuing professional development (CPD). They must also undertake to complete ten hours of continuing professional development within six months of reinstatement. Members may be reinstated as Associates while meeting these continuing professional development requirements.

If they return after an absence of more than five years, in addition to the requirements already outlined, applicants must have their educational qualifications reassessed and additional education requirements may need to be met prior to reinstatement. Reinstatement is not automatic and is approved at the discretion of the Divisional Council. Professional conduct in the period following cessation of membership is taken into account when considering applications for reinstatement.

The Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia (ICAA) has a similar process whereby the applicant must apply to State Council for re-admission and meet the criteria in the regulations. The Institute advises that very few members allow their membership to lapse.

In medicine, the New South Wales Medical Board operates a case by case review system for practitioners who have not practised within the last five years.

In social work, the Australian Association of Social Workers advises that the member is encouraged to continue their professional development through reading and attending seminars. At this stage there are no regulations mandating currency in social work.

Teachers wishing to return to employment in a New South Wales government school must have worked in a school during the previous seven years or hold a letter of approval to teach that is no older than seven years. If either criterion is not met then the teacher seeking casual employment must reapply, following the same process as a teacher applying for a permanent employment. The re-application process involves:

- formal assessment of academic qualifications to meet departmental requirements
- assessment of personal suitability through attendance at an interview with a senior officer
- a criminal record check undertaken by the New South Wales Police Service
- an English language proficiency test for applicants who have completed the major part of their qualifications in a country where English is not the main language
- Australian citizenship or a visa which allows the teacher to work in Australia
- probity checks for teachers coming from inter-state or from non-government schools.

Non-government schools have their own employer requirements which often ‘piggy back’ those of the State employer. In New South Wales there are no mandatory requirements for teachers to update their teaching qualifications. A key question which arises: is it a professional responsibility for someone to be acknowledged as satisfactory to return to teaching, or is it an employer responsibility? In times of teacher shortage it is likely that requirements will be weakened so that there is somebody available to fill a teaching vacancy. As teachers have no professional structure they are unable to influence in any way decisions employers make about the qualifications and quality of people they employ to teach.

### 6.5 Competency standards

Generally, responsibility for the development of curriculum standards and guidelines is vested within the profession. The standards provide guidance for:

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course development in universities
recognition of overseas qualifications
course accreditation by professional regulatory bodies
competency assessment standards.

In the legal profession in New South Wales, the Legal Practitioners Transitional Admission Rules 1994, Schedule 5, identifies a range of topics and skills that undergraduate legal education programs must follow. These are described in Appendix 4 (Table A4.6).

In engineering, the Australian Institution of Engineers manual for the accreditation of professional engineering programs has been developed by the Accreditation Board to identify professional competency standards, the teaching and learning environment, generic attributes of graduates and programs and engineering practice standards. Programs of professional preparation must conform to the standards for accreditation. These are outlined in Appendix 4 (Table A4.7).

In social work, the Australian Association of Social Workers has developed competency standards for entry-level social workers using the frameworks developed by the National Training Board. The standards include units and elements of competency and performance criteria, as described in Appendix 4 (Tables A4.8 and A4.9).

The Australian Nursing Council has developed national nursing competencies, which form the core standards for all nurses. These standards are used by the Nurses Registration Board of New South Wales to assess and accredit courses in undergraduate nurse education. These are described in Appendix 4 (Table A4.10).

In accountancy, the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Australia has a strong accreditation program with relevant guidelines.

Although they exist in other countries, and are being developed in some other States, there are no agreed professional standards or profession-wide competency descriptions for teaching in New South Wales.

### 6.6 Comparisons of professional experience

Most professions incorporate practical, on-the-job experience as a component of preparation programs. In general, professional experience is linked to or integrated with formal studies and is supervised by a senior, experienced member of the profession. This experience is most frequently in the kinds of work environment where the person will eventually practice.

#### Quantity of practical experience

Analysis of the quantity of practical experience indicates considerable variation between professions. Figure 6.3 shows that teachers in New South Wales in their professional training have the least quantity of experience in the workplace when compared with other professions.

One-year postgraduate programs in education have the smallest component of practical experience in professional preparation when compared with any other profession. These programs generally are now regarded as inadequate and are becoming more the exception than the rule in preparing teachers.

Typically, teachers are four-year trained, with a bachelor of education or a bachelor degree and a diploma in education, or increasingly a double degree. They undertake 40 and 60 days practicum experience respectively. By contrast, nurses undertake a three-year undergraduate course of professional training, involving 90 days of clinical experience in the workplace, usually followed by a nurse graduate transition program in their initial year of employment. In completing undergraduate training, nurses typically have the opportunity for 30 per cent more on-the-job training or clinical experience than teachers, despite the fact that their degree is one year less. Social work students usually complete a minimum of 120 days of professional placement in their four year undergraduate degree.

A number of professions have minimum mandated requirements for professional experience in pre-service training. For example, in social work the Australian Association of Social Workers specifies that pre-service training must include a minimum of 140 days of placement in two separate locations to fulfil requirements for membership of the Association.

De facto minimum standards operate in nursing. Nurse education programs offer a minimum of 90 clinical
placement days in the workplace in at least six clinical contexts of practice over the period of training. Doctors and dentists undertake a minimum of 350 days of clinical experience in a four or five-year undergraduate or graduate program. In dentistry, the amount of experience varies, being dependent on patient availability and staffing levels.

In accountancy, the Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia advises that the practical experience is as much a function of induction as it is of pre-service training. Many accountants undertake a two-year traineeship in an accounting practice as part of their degree requirements. Acceptance into the Institute requires a minimum three years mentored practical experience before full membership and registration can be considered. De facto minimum standards also operate in law where 15 weeks of practical legal training is accepted by the Supreme Court for admission to legal practice for solicitors.

The data about practical experience in teaching, and the comparison with other professions, confirm advice to the Review that in their preparation the amount of on-the-job experience teachers have prior to employment is inadequate. Unlike most other professions which have mandated requirements, there is no minimum time set down for the professional experience component of a teacher-in-training and no professional body to determine such requirements.

In the case of teaching, new teachers are faced with a double jeopardy: the least amount of professional experience as preparation prior to employment and the greatest expectation of their level of ability to perform in the profession at entry. On appointment, they are immediately responsible for a whole class, full time. No other profession functions in this way.

### Mandated minimum quantity of practicum in teacher preparation: national and international comparisons

Both nationally and internationally, a number of education employment authorities have developed minimum practicum requirements. These mandated requirements specify the minimum practical experience necessary to qualify for employment as a teacher. The requirements in some other states and overseas countries are provided in Figure 6.4.

In Australia, the duration of practicum required is different in each state and territory. New South Wales, South Australia, Tasmania and the Northern Territory have no minimum requirement. In Victoria, the Standards Council of the Teaching Profession (SCTP)\(^\text{10}\) recommended that all undergraduate teacher education courses should include at

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least 80 days of supervised teaching practice. Postgraduate teacher education courses were recommended to include at least 45 days of supervised teaching practice, with a minimum of 60 days required for P-12 courses (preparatory–Year 12).

In Western Australia, teacher education courses must include an education component and a teaching practice of at least six weeks (30 days). In South Australia, legislation requires that each teacher education course must include supervised practicum work in schools. No mandated quantity, however, is specified.

The Queensland Board of Teacher Registration specifies that practicum experiences in initial teacher education must include practicum of 100 days, 80 of which must be in schools. An example of requirements in another country is the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), a one-year teacher education course in the United Kingdom. To be fully accredited, a teacher must complete 96 days of in-school clinical experience during their course.

**Number of clinical placements across the professions**

Several submissions to the Review commented on the need in teacher education for professional experience in a diversity of settings. Diversity in this context can refer to the geographic locations of the practical experience and to the age and background of students encountered. Increased time in a clinical setting provides more opportunity to experience different placements.

Typically, student teacher practicum experience comprises two to three school placements. This is similar to social work, engineering, and dentistry. However, in social work and dentistry, hospital and community placements provide the opportunity to work with a much broader cross-section of society, most often from diverse geographic and social backgrounds than student teachers would ordinarily encounter in their placements. As a result, their clinical experience more readily mirrors the initial employment conditions they will encounter. Currently, doctors and nurses have the opportunity of working in a series of at least six different clinical settings in a range of hospitals and health care facilities. Proposals have been developed so that student doctors and dentists include a rural placement in their experience. Figure 6.5 provides information about the number of clinical placements across the professions studied. The evidence indicates that the opportunity to encounter a diverse geographic and social population is much less evident in the practicum in teacher preparation programs compared to some other professions, unless it is specially planned for.
Because most other professions have a much more gradual induction into undertaking full professional responsibility, the diversity of experience provided is an important base upon which first employment and induction can rest. This diversity would be ideal for teaching, because a teacher is expected to be fully competent on employment. The professional experience undertaken prior to the first appointment as a teacher needs to be as similar to the employment setting as possible. There should be a more gradual induction into the full teaching responsibilities of employment, if preparation for the profession is to be the guide.

Unless employers are able to provide this induction, then the diversity of field experience must be traded for priority to be given to teaching experience as close to that to be encountered in first employment. There are too many examples of young teachers being quite unprepared for the settings in which they found themselves on first appointment.

6.7 Costs of practical experience across the professions

Providing practical experiences in any professional preparation is expensive. Four main types of costs are incurred.

- **Field placement units**: based in the tertiary institutions, these units arrange for the organisation of professional experiences in a workplace environment.
- **Tertiary supervision**: universities usually provide a supervisor to assess the competencies and skill development of professionals in training. The supervisor establishes liaison with workplaces, monitors student progress and assesses competencies, standards and most statutory and other requirements. The universities often employ experienced casual staff as supervisors.
- **Workplace field education units**: Schools, hospitals and professional practices allocate staff to assist in field education. Usually this cost is met by the professional workplace.
- **Other professionals providing workplace supervision**: Indirect costs arising from the involvement of a range of other professionals from registration agencies, government accreditation authorities and government and private agencies are also involved in developing practicum and supervision plans.

Appendix 4 (Table A4.11) details costs of practical experience across the professions.
All professions, except dentistry, operate field placement units, at significant cost to those faculties involved in professional training. Dentistry uses existing infrastructure, and placements are supported by local dentists.

Tertiary supervision of students undertaking professional experience is also a significant cost, a variable dependent on the number of students in professional workplaces. A current trend to limit tertiary supervision costs is to reduce the amount of university supervision and increase the responsibilities of professionals providing it in the workplace.

Of all the professions reviewed, only teaching provides significant payments to professionals offering workplace supervision.

Information about the Award governing payment to the cooperating teacher is provided in Appendix 4 (Table A4.12).

Responding to funding constraints

Reducing costs and increasing the cost effectiveness of clinical placement is a continuing theme in all professions.

In nursing, a crucial role in professional clinical experience is played by Clinical Nursing Supervisors. These are hired and paid by the university and faculty. They are registered nurses usually on leave, retired or working part-time whose role is to:

- facilitate pre-service nursing student placement
- manage the hospital placement
- assess trainee progress.

Often the nurses have strong informal links with the nursing unit manager and other hospital staff. They manage experience for pre-service nurses at a ratio of 1:8. The cost to universities of clinical supervision fees for each group of eight pre-service nurses for a 28-hour hospital week is approximately $1,000. The average cost of clinical supervision fees per student over the three-year life of a course is $2,250.

There is a perception that the supervision ratio of 1:8 has changed over time. Universities are focusing on reducing the cost of clinical components of their programs. For universities, the future in nursing is seen to revolve around attaching clinical experience to teaching hospitals to take advantage of the extra resources they may have available.

Currently, postgraduate nurse education is located in these hospitals and negotiations are proceeding to extend this to pre-service training.

The trend to reduce the amount of university supervision and increase the responsibilities of professionals providing workplace supervision in nursing is not based solely on cost savings. Another consideration is changes in health care delivery models and the organising of clinical time and supervision so students can better meet the objectives of particular units.

### 6.8 Models of partnerships in other professions

**Integrating theory and practice: partnerships across the professions**

Practical experience is an integral component within most professional courses as graduates are increasingly expected to undertake defined professional roles.

Generally, accepted goals for the practical experience in professional programs include:

- giving students insights into the professional world and assisting them to adapt to the work environment
- developing professional skills
- developing professional values and attitudes
- developing interpersonal and social skills
- linking theory to practice
- enhancing employment prospects of graduates\(^{131}\).

Practical experience is expensive to administer, requiring significant academic time in arranging placements, maintaining liaison with host organisations and supervising neophyte professionals. The traditional model of practical experience, under direct supervision of professionals, is becoming increasingly difficult to provide due to limited availability of placements and financial constraints in universities.

Many submissions to the Review made reference to the structure and organisation of professional experience. In particular, submissions called for:

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incorporating the practicum as the focal point of student learning
integrating the practicum into the curriculum of the teacher education course
immersing practicum students in a culture of ‘best teaching practice’
integrating the practicum over the full period of the course.

These comments reflect perceptions that the structure, organisation and quality of professional experience in teacher education all need to be improved. As well, the comments recognise the cost and difficulty of providing the practicum. There are two conflicting views: a new professional in training makes extra work in the workplace, contrasted with their providing an extra pair of hands to help. Both are no doubt true, but effective models of professional experience will limit the first and exploit the second.

All professions agree that linking university and field components are highly desirable and that effective learning on campus is dependent on associated and clearly inter-related learning in the field. Achieving these outcomes, however, requires a careful integration of theory and practice.

University training and professional education requires universities and the profession to develop partnerships to provide relevant and effective professional experience. To date in teaching this has not been achieved to the necessary extent.

The Teaching Hospital Model

The structure and organisation of professional placements in teaching hospitals were examined to illustrate how the medical and dental professions integrate theory and practice. The most striking aspects of medical and dental professional and clinical experiences are the quantity and quality of provision (Figure 6.3).

In dentistry and medicine, both professional and clinical experience takes place in teaching hospitals which are jointly funded by universities and the New South Wales Department of Health through Area Health Services.

The teaching hospital model integrates theory and practice. These teaching hospitals have:
- medical and dental pre-service education centres
- lecture theatres and classrooms
- teaching materials
- specialised education staff who are coordinators and lecturers in a medical speciality
- joint provision, use and access to medical and dental facilities
- medical and dental education courses.

Appendix 4 (Table A4.13) sets out the model for the State Dental Hospital.

Teaching hospitals have been established and funded to structure, develop and operate clinical experience and education to pre-service medical and dental practitioners. In medical and dental education, the courses of training in many cases involve a structured clinical experience as outlined in Appendix 4 (Tables A4.14 and A4.15).

Teaching hospitals have joint academic and hospital staff appointments including clinical academics, professors, lecturers and clinical educators. They operate medical education through:
- problem-based learning
- clinical attachment
- presentations
- practical rotations in wards
- lectures and seminars.

In a teaching hospital, teachers include hospital staff, specialists, registrars, general practitioners, medically qualified researchers and visiting medical officers (VMOs). Registrars and visiting medical officers are expected to teach. Teaching is included in the employment contract for staff specialists. There is a strong ethic in medicine to provide training to the profession. It is interesting that such an approach is identifiable in films and television shows about medicine, but never in those about teaching.

In medicine, teachers are appointed jointly by the hospital and the university. Some teachers are academics, and their salary is paid by the university. There are instances where a small proportion of salary is paid by the hospital. Clinical academics, including professors and associate professors, may be funded by universities. Visiting medical officers generally are not paid by the university. When general practitioners assist with teaching they are paid a
casual rate by the hospital. Employment arrangements are different in each hospital and also vary depending on the policies of the Area Health Service managing the hospital. Some joint employment arrangements are set out in Appendix 4 (Table A4.16).

In dentistry there are memoranda of understanding between the university faculty and the various clinical teaching institutions. The memoranda include dental hospital staffing and management organisation. Academic teaching staff can also be appointed as honorary staff in a teaching hospital.

In dentistry there is a commitment of care. The profession has developed a sophisticated nomenclature for honorary and volunteer teaching and clinical supervision. These include:

- honorary associates
- clinical associates
- specialist clinical associates
- clinical professor
- adjunct associate professors.

These titles are an enticement, in part, for professionals to assist in the training of students without receiving payment. The individual receives a career progression within an honorary framework. In relation to funding, it is difficult to identify separate funding sources because of the joint funding arrangements between universities and Area Health Services. Basically, teaching hospitals are funded in three ways:

*Teaching grants.* The hospitals receive a teaching grant based on the number of students. Private hospitals are used for training but they receive no separate funding allocation from Area Health Services.

*Fund raising.* Lecture theatres are hired out to assist with the payment of staff salaries. Equipment is refurbished through university and hospital funding and donations from charities. Donations from private organisations, for example, the New South Wales Cancer Council, also contribute.

*Professional development courses.* These are conducted for on-going professional development of medical staff and students and provide a source of revenue.

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**The social work model**

Social workers regard field training as a significant component of professional preparation. It is the cornerstone of the requirements for professional education in New South Wales universities. After an initial orientation in first year, students undertake practicum subjects totalling 140 days during their degree.

Social work students are placed with social workers in a range of settings where they are exposed to the complexities of professional practice in health, welfare and community service organisations. In line with all professional education, links are continually made between classroom learning and field experience. Students generally regard the field education component of the degree as the single most significant aspect of the course.

**The nursing model**

The operation of clinical experience is conducted as a partnership between the faculty of nursing, the hospital ward and its Nursing Unit Manager (NUM) and Clinical Nursing Supervisors.

Nursing Unit Managers manage wards on a shift by shift basis for registered nurses. The final legal responsibility for patient care rests with these hospital staff. Pre-service nurses undertaking their Bachelor of Nursing must be under the direct supervision of a clinically registered employee in the performance of their training duties. On any ward, two pre-service nurses only can be accommodated at any one time. Hospital staff and registered nurses are not paid by faculties of nursing or their hospitals or Area Health Services for their roles in training.

Hospital staff may have attended mentoring or training programs but there is no formal link between the university, pre-service nurses and training staff. A perception exists that the move away from hospital located nurse education has led to a loss of ownership of pre-service training by the hospital nurses. Also, at any time, a range of pre-service nurses from different years and different faculties are training on wards, preventing closer relationships between trainees and registered nurses.

During the pattern of clinical experience in the Bachelor of Nursing, pre-service nurses would usually have the opportunity to work in six hospitals. It is recommended
that nurses be exposed to a wide variety of hospitals and clinical experience. The broad range of medical and surgical experiences in a general hospital are seen as very valuable. Most wards in teaching hospitals are highly specialised and therefore offer only specialised experience.

The usual pattern of clinical experience, separate to clinical simulation, in a three-year Bachelor of Nursing is set out in Appendix 4 (Table A4.17). By way of contrast, the structure of industrial preparation in engineering is shown in Appendix 4 (Table A4.18).

6.9 Comparisons across the professions

Size

Teaching is the largest single occupational category in industrial statistics. In New South Wales there are almost certainly more than 80,000 qualified teachers, including those not in full-time permanent positions.

By contrast, data from the 1996 Australian Bureau of Statistics indicate that there are over 50,000 nurses currently practising (90,000 registered), over 31,000 engineers, 15,000 medical practitioners (23,000 registered), 2,700 dentists and 9,000 social workers.

The Law Society of New South Wales advises that there are 15,700 registered practising solicitors in New South Wales and every year approximately 900 new registrants. The Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia estimates that there are 55,000 members of professional accounting associations in New South Wales.

Nursing is the one profession approaching teaching in the large numbers involved and if all the professions working in the health sector were totalled, it would approach the number of teachers. In 1999, the Nurses Registration Board of New South Wales processed applications for over 2,000 enrolling nurses, whereas over 3,000 potential teachers completed applications with the Department of Education and Training.

The main difference is that health is highly differentiated, whereas teaching is much more mono-professional. A consequence is that teacher educators tend to focus on the numbers involved rather than their quality. A focus on quality in most other professions is significantly more in evidence than it is in teaching.

Rise of para-professionals

A stark contrast between teaching and other professions has been the rise of para-professionals in other professions. As the knowledge and procedures in other professions have increased, specialisation has developed. Specialised roles have evolved for para-professionals who offer specific services within a profession. Conveyancing in law, dental hygienists and therapists in dentistry are examples of new occupations that have resulted from increased specialisation.

In education, teachers’ aides and Aboriginal Education Assistants fulfil somewhat similar specialist roles. One of the recurring themes in the reviews and renewal of other professions is the role of para-professionals and their relationship with fully accredited and registered specialist staff. Teaching has not been affected to the same extent by increased specialisation and new relationships which have arisen as a consequence in other professions.

Salaries

The issue of teachers’ salaries was raised during the course of the Review. Views were put that:

- teachers salaries need to be at a level which makes the profession an attractive career, relative to other professions, vocations and occupations
- the declining status of the profession is in part accounted for by the perceived decline in teacher salary levels on a comparative basis over the past 20 years
- present remuneration structures do not differentiate teachers on the basis of performance and are not sufficiently linked to a credible professional accountability process.

While the evidence about comparative salary movements over the past decade in relation to average weekly earnings should be noted, account needs to be taken that over this period the general skill level of the workforce rose, resulting in an overall higher salary level. Additionally, teachers generally maintained or improved their conditions and were substantially unaffected by the significant restructuring which occurred in many other professions, vocations and occupations.
Information was gathered about salary structures in other professions, and how these structures relate to promotion and career prospects.

In law, salary is related to years of practice, the size of law firm and the type of practice; for example, family law or corporate law.

In government employment across the professions of nursing, medicine, social work and teaching, salary and professional progression is similar. The details are set out in Appendix 4 (Table A4.19).

It should be noted that in the private sector there is opportunity for individuals in the professions studied, including teaching, to earn considerably more than that listed.

Teachers in government schools who successfully complete their probationary year and are awarded a Teacher’s Certificate, have a salary increment of $1800 per year which ceases after eight years\(^\text{132}\). This salary bar is roughly the same as other professions in public service. Given the age structure in teaching, the majority of current teachers have reached the highest salary increment level.

Many other professions have a greater opportunity to receive fee-for-service than do teachers. But this is changing, with for-profit providers of education moving into the industry and more and more teachers setting themselves up as small enterprises to help people learn. This trend is likely to continue and preparing teachers for such possibilities must be given greater attention by universities.

\(^{132}\) Based on salary scales as at 1 January 1999.
Recruitment and induction patterns – teaching and nursing

The Review compared recruitment procedures for teachers in government schools and nurses in public hospitals. The recruitment procedures are broadly similar. Information about these procedures is provided in Table 6.6.

Representatives from the Graduate Nurse Recruiting Consortium (GNRC) and representatives from the New South Wales Department of Education and Training visit the university sector to conduct information sessions during the academic year. Offers of employment are made by the Consortium at the conclusion of the academic year, whereas in teaching offers for employment in government schools are not made until the January of the following year. It should be noted that not every hospital uses the Consortium for the recruitment of nurses.

The recruitment and induction procedures in nursing have been developed for both public and private sectors, unlike teaching. The induction processes are significantly different. The nursing system includes a more highly structured induction process over the first year of nursing.

Hospitals, like schools, have flexibility in using their resources to develop induction programs. The Area Health Services provide significant funds for the induction process.

Advice was provided during a visit to a hospital that the New South Wales Health Department contributed $900 towards staff development for each person employed at the hospital. The majority of this funding was used in resourcing the hospital induction program.

### Table 6.7  Typical induction pattern in teaching in government schools and nursing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEACHING</th>
<th>Nursing</th>
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<tr>
<td>School based induction program - includes half day release time from class in some districts. Non-mandatory support sessions conducted by District Office after school hours. On-going assessment for Teacher’s Certificate based on: teaching skill, interpersonal relationships and professional and personal qualities. Formal assessment by supervisor or principal* - includes observation and written report. Casual teachers must provide evidence of 195 days teaching experience within the previous 18 months which must include one full term in the assessing school. Teacher’s Certificate issued.</td>
<td>Graduate Transition Program – program varies across hospitals but can involve a five-day orientation, and a three-day workshop. Health Service-based induction program involving a variety of models. Usually a structured 6 - 12 month rotation program with clinical supervision and on-going assessment (surgical, medical and speciality area).</td>
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<td>FEBRUARY</td>
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<td>*If unsuccessful, the probation period can be extended and an improvement strategy introduced.</td>
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A number of submissions to the Review commented on the low level of professional development funding made available to schools irrespective of sector, and how important such activity was to the growth and success of a teacher.

**Induction**

Information was gathered about induction in teaching and nursing. Induction practices in teaching employment vary widely within jurisdictions and from employer to employer. They are described in general terms in Table 6.7 for government school teachers and nurses.

Induction into nursing is far more structured. After graduation, many nurses undertake the nurses graduate transition program (NGTP). Although not compulsory, the program is undertaken because it consolidates what the nurses have learned at university and offers them a greater range of experiences. The program involves a structured rotation, with clinical supervision in a range of areas. These are usually surgical, medical and a speciality area. There is no salary benefit for participating in the program; a graduate nurse is paid a full salary, but the graduates experience a broader range of nursing and so are considered more employable. The program duration is between six months and one year. A graduate nurse also has the support of a preceptor. The preceptor is a resource person based in each ward who undertakes a mentor role to the graduates. If the preceptor is busy, the graduate can always ask a clinical educator to assist them. Experienced nurses can attend training courses to become a preceptor through the nursing and clinical support services of a hospital.

There are several orientation models, ranging from a formal, structured program to ones that are self-directed or individually tailored. In one hospital visited, the orientation program for graduate transition nurses involved up to eight days of support and training. Initially, the nurses participate in a three day orientation program to become familiar with the hospital environment, policies and equipment. They spend the fourth day on the ward, where there is a focus on the supply and issue of medications. On the fifth day the recruits regroup to discuss any unresolved issues and ask any questions.

In the second week, the nurses spend two days on the ward, shadowed by a registered nurse and by the third day they are given their own patient load. If a nurse is not coping, the load could be reduced from the normal six patients down to as few as two patients. At night, the load could be up to 12 patients.

The hospital, in conjunction with the nursing profession, conducts mandatory courses covering topics such as evacuation procedures, resuscitation and safety. Training is also provided to improve the broader knowledge base: update on HIV, managing pain and cross-cultural issues. The nursing and clinical support services also offer courses to assist the hospital meet the Australian Council of Healthcare Standards. The Council sets clinical indicators against which hospitals can measure their clinical performance. They have been designed as a measurement tool to assist in assessing whether a standard in patient care is being met.

The hospital conducts a number of compulsory programs for all except medical staff. These cover a range of topic areas including waste management, child protection, and protocols for dealing with aggressive incidents. The courses are conducted twice a month with up to 200 people attending each session. The nursing and clinical support services unit is responsible to maintain a register of the people who have attended the courses.

Unlike nursing, teaching does not have the strength of an organised profession to back its processes for induction and entry into both employment and the profession itself. ‘Sink or swim’ was mentioned often as the process a new teacher had to endure, rather than limiting the load to more manageable proportions which is the case in nursing. For a nurse not to be coping can be a matter of life and death for their patients. For a teacher not coping, the effects on individual students in the short-term are largely hidden, but can have devastating effects on their future in terms of learning and employment prospects.

### 6.10 Reviews in other professions

Teaching is the most reviewed profession in Australia. As outlined in chapter 4, since 1980 there have been 20 significant national and state reviews of teacher education. The most common characteristic of these reviews has been
the lack of action on their recommendations. This situation contrasts markedly with other professions.

For instance, three major reviews of engineering education were conducted between 1988 and 1996. Furthermore, these reviews were followed up with three subsequent evaluations to ascertain progress on the implementation of the recommendations.

The 1996 review into engineering education was conducted by the Institution of Engineers Australia (the profession), the Academy of Technological Services (the scientists) and the Australian Council of Engineering Deans (the universities).

The primary aims were: to examine, report upon, and make recommendations relating to the evolving structure of engineering education in Australia primarily at professional level, but with due regard to the increasing importance being placed on articulation, recognition of prior learning and continuing education. As the Review developed, it became necessary to plan for a smaller, complementary review to address the education provided for engineering associates and engineering technologists. This review is now being formulated by the Institution of Engineers, Australia\textsuperscript{133}.

Nursing education is reviewed regularly by State authorities. Universities are subject to compliance reviews and the Department of Health has carried out many workforce studies which involve the training of registered nurses. The Nurses Registration Board of New South Wales has undertaken research and held seminars, the most recent focusing on the requirements for accreditation of courses leading to registration. In 1997, the Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs commissioned a national review of specialist nurse education as a result of continuing growth of medical and scientific knowledge increasing the range and depth of specialist skills required of nurses. It can be argued that legal education is under on-going review as both the New South Wales and Australian Law Reform Commissions and The Law Society of New South Wales have been established to manage and conduct professional education of legal practitioners. The Law Society of New South Wales undertakes continuous reviews which inform the development of education in the legal profession. Comprehensive reviews have included the 1987 Pearce Report on Australian Law Schools, conducted for the Commonwealth Government, and a study in 1992 to review Australian Law Schools as a follow-up to the Pearce Report. Undergraduate legal education and admission to practice have been continuously and constructively reviewed.

Teaching contrasts markedly when it is considered how greatly other professions have been influenced by review recommendations, and how little impact recommendations from reviews have had in teacher education.

6.11 Conclusion

A number of conclusions can be drawn from comparisons between teaching and other professions. Particularly:

- professional associations provide most other professions with a sense of identity as professional practitioners which is difficult to find among teachers
- while the level of self-regulation varies in other professions, it is non-existent in teaching
- entry into and remaining in teaching is a matter for the employer to decide, as distinct from practice in many other professions where a professional body also has responsibilities
- most professions have explicit further education requirements or have a culture where further learning is valued; by contrast this is much less true of teaching
- professional experience is at the centre of pre-service training and is much more highly valued in most other professions than it is in teaching
- the quality of professional experience in teaching indicates the low priority attached to the level of engagement of the profession in the preparation of teachers, a level much lower than for other professions
- in most professions, responsibility for preparation and induction of new members is viewed as a significant professional responsibility; such a view does not strongly characterise teaching

\textsuperscript{133} Review of Engineering Education, p. 11.
educators in other professions, but particularly in health, traverse the boundaries between their own professional practice and their role as a teacher or educator; such a situation is not reflected in teacher education.

Structures and practices in other professions provide clear models for teachers in their quest to become fully professional. Teachers receive academically at least the equivalent level of training as do other professions. They have one of the most responsible jobs in our community, namely the education of our next generations. The level of skills required is at least the equivalent of other professions.

There is no doubt that the content of teachers’ work is professional; they must move to act from professional principles rather than the requirements of arbitrary rules as determined by employers or negotiated with unions. Only in this way will a strong culture of professional initiative be established.

To go down the route of establishing a formal profession of teaching raises issues related to restriction of trade which must be addressed. These issues apply, however, not only to teaching but to other professions and vocations as well. In teaching, the widest diversity of people should be allowed to enter the profession and, provided that they can demonstrate acceptable levels of skill, be allowed to practise and receive appropriate designation as a professional teacher.

No employer really wants to deal with a profession as separate from a union. They prefer not to deal with a union either. Yet, in the way a union looks after the industrial interests of its members in negotiation with employers, a profession looks after the professional interests of individuals in our community so that the contract of the practitioner with the public is duly honoured by those practising.

Nor is a union likely to embrace warmly a profession involving its members. It will lose some authority as power shifts from collective action for the good of the group to individual action for the good of the clients. Nonetheless, it is clear that a move away from the often adversarial conflict between employer and union that too often obtains in New South Wales will bring benefits to teachers and to students. A three-way balance of interest between the profession, the employer, and the unions will be to the best advantage of the young people of the State and of teachers themselves.

A profession also limits employers in terms of who they can employ to undertake certain professional tasks. This is essential in other professions, so why not teaching? For so long as class size determines the number of teachers, there will always be people employed to teach who should not be given professional accreditation. But this is true of other areas: engineering and accountancy have a range of people doing their kind of work under the supervision of a professional. So can it be with teaching.

Teachers must ask themselves whether they want the responsibilities now held by their employers to decide who should be a member of their profession. And, where there is a vacuum in terms of educational debate, do they want it filled by their union where major responsibility has to be to its members, rather than to the students they teach and the community at large.

Increasingly, the education sector will be divided into smaller enterprises, individual practitioners, and people who work across a range of schools. Where previously there were few employers, a professional organisation seemed to matter less. Now teaching must have a professional voice, comparable with that of other professions to serve the interests of teachers and their clients.

It is clear that teachers are unable to establish their own profession. Most attempts in the past have fallen on stony ground, both here and overseas. It is for government, in the interests of the State and including the children and young people, to do so to give teachers an opportunity to take up their individual professional responsibilities separate from either the dictates of their current employer or their union.

The test as to whether teaching has become a profession will come when an advertisement can be placed, similar to the one CPA Australia placed recently on behalf of its accountant members.

“When it comes to business, you can ask us anything”.

Teaching will be a true profession when, through an organised structure, teachers are able to say:

“When it comes to education, you can ask a teacher anything”.

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There is no doubt that the quality of teachers and the standards of teaching in our schools is a matter of deepening concern in the community: among parents, employers and young people. Whether there has been a real decline in teaching quality or whether the expectations held about teachers have risen faster than their ability to fulfil community requirements is difficult to judge.

Even so, over the course of the Review many excellent teachers were encountered, often working in difficult school environments, who expressed concern that what they were doing was not sufficiently well understood. On the other hand, there were teachers who would be better placed doing something else. They were unhappy, frustrated, with unreal expectations about the resources that could possibly accrue to schools, and unable to ‘light the fire’ of the young people in their charge.

7.1 A matter of quality

The challenge of quality education for all is one that Australia has already implicitly accepted. Issues of quality and standards were recurring themes in the evidence presented to the Review, with students and parents commenting that the quality of teachers and teaching varied from the inspirational to the incompetent. The Review identified a real sense of frustration among parents that there was little evidence of quality control or even that teachers were required to live up to certain standards and expectations. They saw it was often by good luck that a child had a good teacher. As one parent representative succinctly put it:

‘I know more about the contents of a can of tomatoes than I do about the quality of my children’s teachers’.

In response to an assertion that this was little different to our knowledge about the competence of the family doctor, the response was:

‘Yes, but I can choose another doctor’.

This sense of frustration was not restricted to parents and children. Many teachers feel thwarted by their inability to defend themselves from criticism about the quality and professionalism of what they do. The following quote from the submission of The Australian College of Education, New South Wales Chapter captures the mood:

Without clearly defined standards against which we as teachers or teacher educators can judge ourselves, we cannot expect others to recognise, acknowledge and suitably reward teacher achievements. Nor can we differentiate satisfactorily the competent professional from the incompetent, the competent from the truly accomplished. This situation leads to professional discontent when some teachers receive the same financial remuneration for less commitment, input and achievement of results in student learning.

There was general support for the establishment of professional teaching standards, but the submissions foreshadowed a series of implications:

- for teachers

  ...if professional learning is the responsibility of [teachers], it follows that effective professional standards should enable the process of self-evaluation and demonstration just as much as it should enable consistency in external assessment processes when competence is brought into question.

- for the Government

  ...while supporting the concept of standards, a submission from a non-government employer expressed concern that where government becomes involved in setting such standards “that it has more to do with hierarchical surveillance and extending the dominance of managerial culture than with promoting teacher development and a professional culture”.

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135 Submission 129.

136 Submission 129.

137 Submission 66.
...a comprehensive national framework of teacher registration will ensure that standards of entry into the profession are established and protected so that in the public interest in general, and in the interests of students in particular, only qualified teachers are able to be classroom practitioners.

A system of teacher registration recognises that teaching is a profession, with unique knowledge, skills and aptitudes and has the capacity to affirm and enhance the status of the profession.

Many submissions made strong claims about the need for better preparation of beginning teachers and increased support for continuing teacher education. Few, however, including those from parent organisations, made a strong connection between the need for professional standards and potential learning benefits for young people in school.

This indicates that many organisations and individuals responding to the Review do not have a strong focus on, or are unable to articulate clearly, a connection between teaching practice or pedagogy and student learning. Many parents would concur, having first-hand evidence from their experience of parent-teacher evenings that the role and efforts of the teacher are generally distant from discussions about how their children can improve. Yet, it is quite apparent to them and to their children that the teachers who are able to connect with their students, to enthuse and keep them on task, do make a substantial difference to the quality and extent of student learning.

The terms ‘standards’ and ‘quality’, so often used when referring to teaching, have a beguiling simplicity which belies the complexity of the issues relating to how quality and standards may be guaranteed in the education sector.

The debate on standards is international in character and there are high stakes in terms of implications for the quality of teaching. Striving for quality improvement is fundamental to almost all life activities today. The focus is on improving the quality of our lives, the quality of our relationships, the quality of work and, not least and as a consequence, the quality of our education provision.

The following section comments on current emphases for improving quality in education, through quality assurance, accountability and competition-based policies. It notes that a different emphasis may be needed to make the fundamental changes in education required to prepare people for the future. This emphasis should arise from a clearer conception of the teacher as a professional practitioner. These changes may best be achieved through strategies that focus on supporting professionalism. Unlike other professions, teachers do not have structures for clarifying the nature and ethics of their practice. A clear focus on pedagogic practice related to professional standards is required to provide the means for teachers to meet future challenges.

7.2 The prevailing quality context

In broad terms, two quality movements may be identified. The first has arisen from relatively recent quality management theory and practice. It relates to quality assurance, accountability and competition-based policies. The second relates to how professions regulate themselves, and how their members develop and grow.

Over the past decade and a half, practices emphasising quality assurance, accountability and competition have dominated the improvement policies being pursued in small and large organisations and enterprises, including government agencies.

In some instances quality assurance has arisen from the desire of organisations and individuals to provide evidence of the high quality of their products, processes, procedures and management, and to establish conditions under which it may be enhanced. Quality assurance generally arises from concerns internal to an organisation; for example, among members of a small enterprise, such as within a school or a group of schools in a region. Self-improvement and self-regulation of individual units, parts of organisations or the organisation as a whole is the main aim. This process of continuous improvement is based on formative judgements about how to meet stated objectives and goals.

Accountability, more commonly, arises from the efforts of external bodies or whole systems to measure outcomes, and to hold managers accountable for processes, programs and outcome levels achieved. Benchmarking and comparison with other similar enterprises in terms of productivity and quality are core issues.

Accountability is fundamentally about overall verification.
of the quality of outcomes, or more particularly, whether the expectations of key stakeholders are met. Accountability is essentially a top-down or externalised process, and typically refers to large systems, based on the accountability of individuals or enterprises to those in higher authority. From a systems perspective, it is applied at intervals rather than being continuous, and is summative in terms of determining whether acceptable outcomes for the systems have been achieved.

Although these two quality movements are not mutually exclusive, there is a tendency for them to be so applied. In the education sector, quality assurance refers to collective or personal activities or outcomes within individual schools while accountability refers more to schools or school systems with a single overarching management structure.

In the New South Wales context, the State is constitutionally responsible and hence accountable for both government and non-government schools. This accountability is irrespective of the source of funds, whether from the State or Commonwealth Government, parents or other sources. The State, therefore, has a significant responsibility for monitoring the outcomes of all schools. This State monitoring differs from the internal accountability the State education department has for its own schools, emphasising the long-standing dilemma of the State as monitor of sectors, and the State education department as manager of the outcomes of a public system which directly employs teachers.

Nonetheless, efforts to provide for quality assurance and accountability in education have been generally less effective than in other industry sectors where the issue of efficiency can more easily be related to the productivity of workers and bottom line targets.

In education we talk about the effectiveness of teachers, a concept which is not easily defined. Consequently, school system administrators have found it difficult to achieve greater system accountability and teachers have been suspicious of the validity of measures to support evaluation against standards and of the potential misuse of the information gained. This has resulted in the active resistance of teachers and schools, often led by unions concerned that such measures place an unfair burden on teachers, and that there is insufficient contextual data to make valid comparisons between schools.

A case could be made that the tendency towards establishment of standards in education, both in curriculum and teaching, is an indication of declining trust in the capacity of schools and teachers to deliver the required educational improvement. A significant contributing factor is the inability of schools to demonstrate explicitly and to the satisfaction of parents and the general public the outcomes they are achieving at system, school and individual class or student levels.

In education, when compared with other industry sectors, there has been much less specificity until recent times about what clients require or expect. Hence, there has been only limited pressure on teachers to provide information about the quality of outcomes being achieved.

Parents of today, however, are placing ‘a higher priority on receiving information about their children’s progress than any other type of information they receive from school’\(^\text{139}\). Many also want to play a more active role in the management of their children’s education, including recognition that they, not the school, are ultimately responsible for what their children achieve from their education.

Generally, parents:

…make judgements about schools using their own criteria and utilising information from a range of both formal and informal sources. At present most parents indicate that they rely almost entirely on informal sources as very little objective and reliable information is available in the public domain for either government or non-government schools\(^\text{140}\).

Thus, from the Review’s perspective, there is an apparent need for more productive accountability relationships between schools and the broader community. Some commentators\(^\text{141}\) suggest that this could be achieved through the schools themselves becoming communities of responsibility. Schools need to be self-managed, self-regulated and internally accountable against State and locally derived standards, with accountability guaranteed through a balance of school-based quality reviews and a level of external supervision.

\(^{139}\) P. Cuttance and S. Stokes, \textit{Reporting on student and school achievement}, DETYA, Canberra, 2000, p. ix (p. 9).

\(^{140}\) Cuttance and Stokes, p. xi (p. 11).

There is increasing evidence that the best approaches to improving the quality of education are those that support both school level improvement through quality assurance and system level accountability.

From the perspective of this Review, in Australia at least, more often than not policy discussion concerning the quality of teachers and teaching, has focused on quality assurance and accountability structures designed to identify those teachers who meet acceptable standards, and consequently those who do not. Rarely has there been a focus on how best to provide the means for teachers, more generally, to enhance their practice. While both quality assurance and accountability could be described as micro-economic in focus, the application of market-based theories and the ‘invisible hand’ of competition in education is macro-economically driven. According to this approach, the best, as determined by the cut and thrust of the market place, are likely to survive against others regarded as competitors. Experience in other industry sectors shows, however, that it is often not the best but the strongest that survive.

Karmel considered the issue of markets in education from the perspective of the change paradigm encapsulated in the term ‘economic rationalism’.

The changed paradigm is usually encapsulated in the term “economic rationalism”. In its stronger form, economic rationalism takes the position that, while market forces do not always produce optimum results, any intervention in the workings of markets always produces a worse situation, i.e. no government intervention is better than any. This is an ideological position not subject to proof. For some it is reinforced by a conviction that minimal government is a necessary condition for personal freedom.

In its weaker form, economic rationalism is the belief that the economy’s performance can be enhanced by exposing as much of it as possible to market forces. There is a body of evidence that supports this proposition. Such a doctrine is consistent with government interventions of various kinds, especially interventions to correct market failure.

Advocates of market-based policies as applied to education believe that quality will be improved by broadening parental choice in schooling. In this view of the market, parents and students will be drawn to quality schools: under-performing schools will need to improve to stay in the market. Proponents of individual students being provided with vouchers are, in reality, attempting to encourage a market in education using government funds.

A less direct approach is the current increased Commonwealth Government support for the non-government school sector, which is fuelling a surge in enrolment growth. Consequently, although total New South Wales school student numbers increased by 8,036 in 1999, this represented an increase of 8,266 students in non-government schools and a fall of 230 students in government schools. Translated into numbers of teachers, these enrolment changes represent, at average pupil teacher ratios, a fall equivalent to 15 full-time teachers in government schools and an increase of 550 in the non-government sector. Most of the enrolment growth in the non-government sector, however, is amongst communities of average or above socio-economic status which suggests a demand for teachers in schools with access to above average resources.

In addition to the market operating between schools, an educational employment market for teachers was also identified. This market allows quality teachers to move more freely to where they perceive the teaching environment to be more positive, the teaching to be more highly valued and, if possible, where they will be remunerated above award rates. There are already signs of this market in operation, with non-government schools regularly recruiting teachers with three or four years experience and a proven record from the government sector. This trend is likely to increase in the future as demand for teachers in the non-government sector continues to develop.

Given the emergence of this market, there is a need for a system that rewards demonstrated effectiveness as a teacher, irrespective of employer. In addition, to serve this growing market for quality teachers, responsibility for preparing teachers, not only prior to entry but during their careers, becomes increasingly important. The mantra ‘a teacher is a teacher, is a teacher’ that has guided employ-

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143 Australian Bureau of Statistics, Cat. 4221.0.
ment practices in education for so long can no longer be sustained.

Some proponents of market and competition policies argue that, in general, public providers of services and particularly schools and teachers can be advantaged through undesirable levels of protection. In a sense, both government and non-government schools are protected because schooling can never be a true market where the user pays all. Even the so-called private schools are heavily subsided by governments. While voucher systems may have their place for disadvantaged groups, when applied equally to families with a markedly wide range of resources, considerable inequity of provision results from the differential ability to take advantage of the additional support.

In the case of government schools, they have both a moral and a legal responsibility to provide all people with access to education of the highest possible quality, at least to the end of compulsory schooling.

The extent of current experience of market-based approaches in education is insufficient to be able to predict with certainty its long-term outcomes. All schools and teachers will be under increasing pressure, however, to meet the expectations of their communities. Increasing numbers of teachers are likely to opt for self-employment to meet new demands for consultants, itinerant specialist teachers or teachers working in people’s homes.

The opportunity to resist this broadening of the educational market is almost entirely out of the hands of teachers. Rather, the market and who will survive in it, is increasingly being determined by parents based on their perceptions and expectations of schools and a broadening educational sector. In these circumstances, schools most resistant to providing for quality improvement are those most likely not to survive. Competition, both from current players within the education sector and from new forces outside of education, is likely to increase. Schools will face the same fate as other industry sectors that lost focus on the need to undergo continuous quality improvement and change to meet changing community service expectations.

A market in education is easy to conceive where there are significant population aggregations: it is much more difficult in regions where population diversity is sparse.

The dilemma for government arising from such developments is one of social justice. How can governments see that all people benefit from the changes now under way in education, and not just those who can take advantage of the opportunity that the additional non-government schools offer? The consequences of not addressing this question have deep social and personal implications for those unable to benefit.

Increasingly in New South Wales, we must view the schooling system as consisting of a range of providers, offering a greater choice to parents, particularly in areas of significant population who are able to contribute to their children’s education, supported to a greater or lesser extent by governments, both State and Federal.

Significant implications will arise if, as some predict, the outcome of such a choice is a residualised government sector, which, because of the declining quality of its teachers and student base, causes government schools to make a more limited contribution to the overall development of the education system.

This need not be the outcome, and in fact the current trend may provide the impetus to revitalise the government school system. In any event, all schools, and not just schools in the government sector, will have to take much greater responsibility for both the initial and continuing education of teachers.

Since market-based approaches seem here to stay – the clock cannot be turned back – it is time for stakeholders to work out how all schools, both public and private, and increasingly in the future ‘education service providers’, can coexist to offer effective education for all people in New South Wales. Most importantly for this Review, whatever evolves must, in conjunction with universities, the TAFE system and other providers, offer appropriate high quality education and training for both potential teachers and those already in employment if the education system encompassing both government and non-government schools is to be uniformly of world class.

Although these so-called market strategies provide a significant context for the Review, they are not the only imperatives for change. Indeed, they are insufficient to bring about the kind of changes required to position education for what are rapidly changing futures.

The exponential development of technology is another issue transforming the educational landscape. Teachers will need to learn new roles and new pedagogy. This will
require on the one hand that they be supported by employers to make these changes, and on the other supported from within their own ranks by a renewed professionalism. Such movements are evident elsewhere, especially in the United States where issues about teacher professionalism are now coming into greater focus, including by teachers themselves.

A school is a learning environment where students, teachers, parents and even the wider community can learn. We now have hard evidence that the more teachers learn, the better the outcomes for their students. The more parents know about the school and what their child is learning, or is meant to be learning, the better for their child.

Therefore, in the context of this Review, the most significant questions concern the development of mechanisms to guide and support teacher learning. These mechanisms, managed through the profession, consisting of teachers from both the government and non-government systems, teachers in preschools, schools, universities and the TAFE system, need both to act as catalysts for change, and to provide the government and the wider community with the assurances of quality they are seeking. Standards of professional practice setting out what is expected of teachers provide a unifying foundation upon which to build such improvement strategies.

The following sections of this chapter expand this theme through:

- an outline of how self-regulated professions address issues of quality and standards
- a discussion of the professional standing of teaching and whether standards provide the means to raise the quality and professionalism of teachers
- an investigation of how standards of professional teaching practice have been developed in other places, and how effective they have been in changing pedagogy.

These provide the basis for the identification of possible structures and frameworks for enhancing, illuminating and guaranteeing teacher quality in New South Wales.

7.3 The wider context: self-regulated professions

The terms of reference of the Review required, in particular, advice on ‘the systems and procedures used to prepare for and enter other professions’. An investigation of these issues is provided in the previous chapter. The findings of this study of other professions in New South Wales have been substantiated, in part, by research undertaken internationally and particularly by the Ontario College of Teachers in Canada.

In general, both sets of research show that other professions have opted for self-regulation through a range of quality assurance mechanisms, both in terms of the quality of initial preparation and continuing development. These are intended to deal with how a person becomes a licensed member of that profession, how they maintain currency in the profession and how they can lose that licence.

Self-regulated professions have a clear public mandate to stop or limit the practice of the incompetent and those found guilty of professional misconduct. This responsibility cannot be left to the employer, and the more diversified the employment is, as is happening in the education sector, the more important this approach becomes. Without regulation, an employer will hire anybody they wish to do a job. Employers, and particularly those involved in ‘for profit’ activity, are unlikely to support employee regulation even though it may be in the public interest to do so. Although the prescriptions for ensuring quality and standards in self-regulated professions in New South Wales, Australia and Ontario, Canada may differ in minor ways, they are seeking to address the same key questions144.

- what is an effective professional?
- what kind of regulatory authority does the professional body have over competence, ethics or the quality of practice?
- how is that regulatory authority translated into action?
- what program of activity will best enable the profession to record and assess efforts by members to remain competent, and also to support efforts by members to seek remediation when deficiencies are identified?

how does the role of the employer intersect with that of the regulated profession’s role in maintaining and improving standards?

Given the increasing number of those who are self-employed, this final question is becoming more relevant for teachers.

In Australia, many diverse occupations, such as lawyers, architects, engineers, doctors, veterinarians and, more recently, information technology specialists enjoy the status of a self-regulated profession. In a practical sense, formal recognition as a profession implies that those afforded this status have attained:

- a highly developed and specialised body of knowledge
- professional autonomy
- self-regulation, especially with regard to professional ethics
- a commitment to public service
- a highly developed collegium.

Standards are a more recent mechanism by which the majority of professions give meaning to their professionalism. They are generally expressed in terms of levels of competence or education and training required for initial membership, as well as requirements for the maintenance of competence. This second category is seen to be acutely important for professions where the body of scientific or case knowledge or skills on which the profession is grounded is growing rapidly and issues of public protection, public health and safety come to the fore.

This is increasingly true of teaching where its body of knowledge and skills is well identified and growing rapidly.

Central to the concept of a profession is the notion of reciprocity. The community bestows on the profession the responsibility and privilege of self-regulation, and in return the profession fulfils the obligations of its social contract.

A key feature of all professions registered with the Australian Council of Professions is a code of ethics, which sets out the social contract against which the profession engages the community. For example, the Australian Institution of Engineers noted in a recent report that the:

…social contract model of a profession emphasises the service orientation to which professionals are supposedly committed, in return for the privilege of self-regulation of their profession. In this model professionals are not solely wedded to economic self-interest, but rather they are the guardians of public trust.

7.4 The status and professionalism of teachers

Three inter-related issues are central to the search in this Review to establish and maintain quality teaching. These are the public standing of teaching; the quest for formal recognition of teaching as a profession; and the professionalism of teachers.

The public standing of teaching has been raised as a major concern for teachers, employing authorities and the community. For teachers, the perception is that their work is not sufficiently well understood or appreciated. For employers, there are concerns about the perceived lack of attractiveness of teaching as a career, and the consequent implications for the supply of quality teachers in schools. For the broader community, it is a matter of re-establishing respect for teachers as people whose work is critical in the lives of children, young adolescents, and their parents.

These issues have been canvassed in national and international reports. A Class Act, the report of the Senate Employment, Education and Training References Committee into the Status of the Teaching Profession referred to in chapter 4, differentiated between the status or standing of the ‘individual’ and that of the ‘group’.

The report commented that many individual teachers are held in high regard by their students, communities and peers because of their skills, integrity and professional acumen. As a group, however, teachers have, to date, been unsuccessful in establishing a unified professional voice and hence have failed to consolidate the degree of group status befitting the importance of their work. The view almost universally put to the Senate Committee was that the public standing of teachers in Australia was declining.


As stated earlier, this view was also advanced in submissions to this Review.

The 1997 report of the Joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers\textsuperscript{148} identified a range of factors, operating internationally, which have reduced the attractiveness of teaching as a profession. These include:

- stress and teacher dissatisfaction associated with the gradual breakdown of traditional consensus regarding the purpose and functions of education and, more specifically, the role of teachers
- recruitment practices, and loss of attractiveness, resulting in a general ageing of the profession, particularly at the school level, which is seen as inhibiting an infusion of new blood, ideas and career progression
- the process of economic rationalisation, which has had an adverse effect on their professional standing in many countries, where teaching is seen as something of a second class option.
- the steady feminisation of the profession at the pre-secondary and increasingly at the secondary levels tends to stereotype teaching as a female profession with the result that fewer men are attracted to teaching.

The report identified general causes, operating within different countries and regions, for a decline in the standing of teachers in the community. These include:

- perceived failure of governments to interact effectively with teachers to establish proper educational policies and to provide resources to implement them, particularly as public resources directed to education have declined
- a failure by teachers to promote their own professionalism in times of economic austerity; almost by default, they have allowed a community perception to develop that their main preoccupation has been with their own salaries and benefits
- the emergence of community perceptions that teachers are failing to deliver an educational outcome considered to be satisfactory, thereby attracting widespread public and governmental criticism, to the detriment of their professional status.

The report went on to say that:

> The status of teachers and the status of education are so intertwined that whatever produces change in one will normally produce change in the same direction in the other. \ldots if education does not command the respect and support of the entire community, then teachers will not command that respect and support\textsuperscript{149}.

\textit{A Class Act} noted also that while teachers see themselves as professionals, their professional standing and professionalism are generally not recognised by other professions or by members of the public.

Although the decline may be part of a general public disaffection with all professional groups, it is ironic that the professional standing of teaching is declining given the evidence, generally, that schools and teachers are performing better than in the past. There is increased opportunity for children from diverse backgrounds to remain longer in school than in previous decades. Literacy and numeracy standards as judged by Basic Skills Test results are increasing. More people in the workforce are engaging in further education and training than ever before. The reality, however, is that these gains appear not to have kept pace with increasing community expectations of teaching as a profession.

Consequently, although many individual schools have been able to build strong links with their local area, there is a sense of declining reciprocity between teachers and the broader community. The collective actions of teachers are not always interpreted as being in terms of their commitment to the social good, and in the best interests of their students. Too often their actions are interpreted as self-interest because these tendencies are newsworthy whereas all of the good things teachers do are much less so.

One reason may be, when compared with self-regulated professions, that teachers and teacher educators have been slow to adopt mechanisms for improvement to increase public confidence in the quality of their work. They certainly do not place high priority on making the public


\textsuperscript{149} Joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts on the application of the recommendation concerning the status of teachers.
aware of the good learning outcomes achieved by a large proportion of their students.

In addition, teachers do not have the institutional structures necessary to support formal professional recognition and advocacy, which include:

- establishing a single professional body as evident in other professions, which eligible practitioners may join.
- promoting the benefits of self-regulation to the community
- agreeing on the knowledge base of the profession and having the power to require its acquisition
- agreeing on standards of practice and codes of ethics against which quality may be benchmarked.

While an informal code of ethics does exist, relating largely to expected teacher relationships with students as individuals, there is no agreement on standards of professional educational practice. The public senses this; the teaching profession knows it. A widely held perception exists that teachers of low quality are not formally identified as a matter of course, and very few are eventually excluded from practice if all efforts to improve their performances fail. As one correspondent remarked during an analysis of this complex issue:

…a teacher might well get fired for predatory sexual misbehaviour with a young student, but others who mess up the lives and achievement prospects of their students through low professional competence remain entrenched in the system.150

This is especially so when funding pressures and managerial styles in schools inhibit supervision, especially of a developmental kind.

Failing the use of self-imposed quality assurance procedures by schools, the responsibility for assuring the community of the quality of teachers and their work has been taken largely out of their hands. Instead, employers imposed this responsibility on schools through so-called accountability measures. But placing the quality emphasis on accountability rather than assurance leads to its own problems. Indeed, industrial action by unions over attempts by employers to increase accountability in government schools in New South Wales could be said to have further reduced the community’s confidence in schools and teachers. While individual teachers typically have the best interests of their students and schools at heart, their motives for such industrial actions are not always accepted by members of the public who daily face demands for increased productivity and accountability in their own workplace.

Like any other profession, there are degrees of proficiency amongst teachers. If their quality is to be improved in terms of on-going competence then issues related to improving the proficiency of some teachers must be taken out of the industrial arena and confronted as professional issues. The failure of teachers as a group and their supervisors within the profession to grapple adequately with the issue of the quality of professional practice is fundamental to the issue of the standing accorded them by the wider community.

The introduction of relevant quality measures can be seen as critical to the future of the teaching profession. This is not only through the self-regulation implied by a system of quality assurance, but also by the appropriate use of quality measures in an accountability system developed in consensus with relevant education authorities and employers. In an essentially ‘open’ system such as K-12 education, both forms of quality indicator have their place. Well managed, one form flows into the other.

It is obvious that it would not be a simple matter to develop and implement these quality standards. They will need to be ones which the profession is instrumental in developing and with which the profession then willingly aligns itself. They would be applied first as the bases of the profession’s own quality assurance measures, and then, when needed, to the broader accountability measures reasonably asked for by the community. The need for good collegial and developmental supervision within schools and systems, derived from the standards, must also be recognised unless they are to become no more than high-sounding documents. All of this is easier to say than to do, of course.

The next section examines ways in which the complexities of teacher quality are approached in other countries.

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150 Name withheld.
7.5 Professional standards for teachers: developments in other places

Educational improvement has been firmly on the policy agenda of nations for the past two decades. Increased significance of technology has emphasised the importance of a highly skilled workforce for future prosperity. The rapid emergence of electronic communications in industry, and society generally, is making education more important.

The primary focus of government educational improvement strategies has been on curriculum standards for most of the past two decades; this is now shifting to a focus on the quality and standard of teachers and teaching. This latter focus on the quality of teaching is a much more complex issue than the former. The availability of student outcome data enabling research into the effect of teacher quality and qualifications on student learning has increased significantly the interest of governments and teachers themselves in their professional standards.

The Review noted a number of recent reviews of policy developments in this area. Locally, these include Towards Identifying Professional Teaching Standards for New South Wales Schools151. In Canada, the Ontario College of Teachers152 developed a paper in response to a Ministerial request for advice on the possibility of introducing forms of teacher testing. Another, offering both an international overview and a critical local perspective, is the recent report of the New South Wales Parliamentary Library Research Service153.

The Review is aware of teacher quality and standards developments internationally and more specifically the United States, in the Canadian Provinces of Quebec, Ontario, and Alberta, in the United Kingdom including England, Wales and Scotland, as well as in France, New Zealand and Mexico. In Australia, the development of standards is being pursued in Queensland, Victoria, Western Australia, and the Northern Territory.

What follows is an evaluation of the key features and outcomes of developments in three international jurisdictions, chosen because of differences in approach to establishing, maintaining and monitoring teacher quality. These three jurisdictions, the United States, the United Kingdom and Ontario, Canada, a province which has significant parallels to the state of New South Wales, provide a snapshot of different approaches to how the issues of teacher quality, professional standards and accountability are being addressed. The three jurisdictions chosen also have some of the elements of our own Commonwealth-State relations.

The United States of America

The United States presents specific parallels to the Australian context. As in Australia, education is constitutionally a state responsibility. Nonetheless, there is an increasing national presence, both in the policy arena and in the funding of education.

At the national level, the establishment of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), which is setting standards for accomplished teachers, has dominated discussion of professional standards in the United States. There are, however, several less well known national standards developments. These include:

- standards for teacher education (National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, NCATE)
- standards for beginning teachers (Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, INTASC)

At the state level there are separate developments of teacher standards. These have arisen out of state need, consistent with their constitutional responsibility, to establish standards in teacher education, licensure and the maintenance of accreditation. The form and scope of state-based teacher standards vary significantly.

The National Board established in 1987 in response to the criticisms of teaching standards in A Nation at Risk154, is credited as being the catalyst for action in the United States. The National Board’s mission was to establish

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152 Ontario College of Teachers, A consultation paper: Formulating a response to the letter of November 10, 1999 from the Minister of Education re teacher testing program.
rigorous standards for what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do. It was also to operate a voluntary national system to assess and certify teachers who meet these standards. The Board’s standards are defined around a core of five propositions about teachers:

- commitment to students and their learning
- knowledge of the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students
- responsibility for managing and monitoring student learning
- systematic reflection on their practice and learning from experience
- membership of learning communities

Darling-Hammond claimed that the National Board would professionally define the body of knowledge upon which good teaching rests. She argued that current teacher licensure tests in the United States:

…are not professionally controlled; nor do they adequately represent what a teacher needs to know about teaching and learning. That knowledge is complex, and requires judgement in applying general principles to unique and specific problems of practice … a real test of professional knowledge could have a profound influence on teacher preparation, both before and during a teacher’s career.

The National Board’s standards are different from most other teaching standards. Rather than providing lists of tasks or competencies, which are relatively decontextualised, they give descriptors setting out expectations of accomplished professionals. They are both subject and school-stage specific rather than generic. When completed there will be twenty-six statements of standards, such as those for Early Childhood/Generalist (ages 3-8), Early Adolescence/Science (ages 11-15) and Adolescence through Young Adulthood/English Arts (ages 14-18+). Only sixteen of the standards have been completed to date. The initiatives have a high degree of professional ownership and support as they are seen to be outside of government. Unlike many other teaching standards, they require performance-based assessment of teachers.

The National Board’s standards have provided the framework or base upon which all other national initiatives are founded. The proponents of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) standards saw the need for a common core of knowledge and skill to be acquired by all teachers. Continuity between standards for teacher education, the initial certification of teachers and accomplished teaching was seen to be important. Proponents of the National Board comment that the high expectations of the potential for change arising from the Board’s work have in part been realised. James Kelly, the initial and now former President of the National Board, had the following to say of the Board’s initiatives.

Having a systemic vision of excellent teaching enables and allows a nation to treat teaching as a policy variable rather than as a cultural and institutional ‘given’.

Ingvarson commented in a paper supporting the National Board that “a certification system [such as the NBPTS] is also a powerful instrument for empowering teaching as a profession and improving the quality of teaching”.

Despite the high level of public support for these national initiatives, it is the legislated requirements of states that impact more directly on teacher quality in the United States. An examination of licensure requirements of the various states reveals apparent differences in their approach to standards and quality. Although a majority of states accept the INTASC standards as the basis for their initial teacher licensure or certification, applicants investigating the possibility of teaching in one or more states are faced with a confusing mix of input-based measures, such as course requirements, standards, and performance-based skills testing. For example, the

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requirements for teacher licensure in New Jersey are as follows:

- Bachelors degree from an accredited college or university.
- Passing scores on Praxis II/NTE Programs specialty areas test(s) for secondary teaching and in the General Knowledge test of the Core Battery for elementary teachers.
- Completion of a major in liberal arts or sciences for elementary education. Completion of a major in the subject teaching field for an endorsement in that field. For additional endorsements, completion of at least 30 semester hours in a coherent major in the subject field.
- Successful completion of one of the following:
  - the provisional teacher program, or
  - a state approved college teacher preparation program and one year of full time mentored teaching under a New Jersey provisional licence, or
  - a state approved college teacher preparation program and one year of teaching under a valid state licence.

In 1998 as many as 38 states required a written test as part of the certification process for new teachers. Tests and examinations used include:

- the Praxis I and/or Praxis II
- the College Board Academic Subject Exam, or
- another standardised test of basic skills.

The Praxis Series tests are taken by undergraduates seeking admission to a teacher education program or by college graduates. Some states use a state examination that is fully customised for the initial licensing stage. Yet the use of tests as a means of raising teacher quality has not always achieved the desired result. The Texas Examination of Current Administrators and Teachers (TECAT) was introduced in 1986 as a basic literacy test to weed out teachers with less than satisfactory communication skills.

The evaluation of the project found that enormous effort went into preparing teachers to take the TECAT. After some $5 million dollars of public expenditure, 96.7 per cent of teachers passed the test at their first attempt, and 99 per cent of teachers at their second.

The authors of the evaluation report commented that the 99 per cent success rate did little to assure the public that incompetent teachers had been eliminated. Teachers felt that the public had been deceived and were embarrassed by the portrayal of their profession as being semi-literate. Subsequent public opinion data showed greater disenchantment with teacher competency testing than with any other educational reform measure. The effect of the TECAT might have been exactly opposite to that intended.

The TECAT seemed so simple at first; give a test and eliminate the few teachers with indefensibly weak communication skills. The negative side to what happened involves unforeseen consequences: enormous costs, frenetic preparation and worrying about the test, demoralized teachers and a public unimpressed by the extremely high pass rate. Although these outcomes were not intended, they may be inevitable features of a reform that hangs so much importance on a test pitched to the lowest level of performance on the lowest teaching skills. But testing of teachers is not the only issue. Regardless of the national initiatives noted above, states are concerned also to maintain their constitutional responsibility for education, including responsibility for the quality of teachers and teaching in their schools.

Despite the continuing widespread use of teacher tests, there is increasing emphasis at the state level to move to a more “integrated and holistic approach to ensuring competency and public accountability.” The impetus for these more thoughtful approaches are the National Board and National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. The new expectations of states emphasise “performance, new forms of assessment, collaboration with schools, technology and diversity – all in the context of high-

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quality programs and continuous program evaluation” 164.

A report by the Ontario College of Teachers in Canada on recent developments in the United States noted the following:

States began to establish partnerships with accrediting agencies, teacher groups and schools of education to initiate projects to address the area of teacher competency in a coherent fashion. Local policy-makers began to understand that teacher preparation, licensure, and professional development needed to be reviewed and improved as an integrated whole, so that each part was linked and assessment strategies built on and reinforced each other through the career continuum165.

One example of this more holistic approach is that taken in the July 1998 report of the New York State Regents’ Task Force166, which outlined a comprehensive plan to improve and maintain the quality of teaching in New York State. The plan links teacher education and induction requirements for teachers. Initial certification is subject to completion of the equivalent of one year of mentored teaching and three years of satisfactory teaching experience beyond the mentored experience. Annual professional reviews are also required.

In addition, to maintain this certification, all teachers receiving a professional certificate on or after 1 September 2000 will need to successfully complete at least 175 hours every five years of professional development, directly related to student learning needs. Each school district will be required to prepare a professional development plan describing how they provide the teachers they employ with opportunities for maintaining their certification.

The intent is that a menu of professional development opportunities be available to teachers, including a variety of formats and providers, with programs paid for by the school district or the teacher. While these and other state-based developments appear worthwhile, their range and variety is a major problem. The wide differences in requirements for teachers across the states go a long way towards explaining the limited interstate movements of teachers in the United States.

Despite the widespread support for the National Board at the national level noted earlier, there might be problems on the horizon. Tom167 notes that “not all is going well with the National Board process”.

Three problems with National Board certification – the slow development of certificate areas, the small number of certified teachers, the high cost of the assessment process to teachers – are all problems which grew out of the National Board processes, or might reasonably have been anticipated to follow from that process. A fourth problem, however, is something which Darling-Hammond and other supporters of the National Board could not have foreseen in the mid-1980s: the accountability movement168.

Whereas, the primary aim of the National Board standards was to professionalise teaching, Tom commented that the states’ agenda is firmly focused on “teaching quality measured in terms of a teacher’s ability to produce student results on state mandated K-12 assessment” 169.

He noted, “simply put, the logic of state accountability plays to the entrenched American idea that the only thing that really counts is results – the proof is in the pudding, not the recipe”. But this is not new. As early as 1992 teacher assessments were being shaped “to tighten the connections between states’ explicit educational goals and teachers’ demonstrated proficiency in helping them achieve them” 170.

The obvious question for the state accountability movement raised by Tom is: “Do the students of board-certified teachers do better on state assessments than do students of other teachers?” 171.

He notes the implications of this yet unanswered question are that:

165 Ontario College of Teachers, p. 8.
168 Tom, pp. 19-20.
169 Tom, p. 20.
171 Tom, p. 20.
…state legislators … are reluctant to provide financial support for the National Board registration fee or to increase state funding for teacher salaries unless Board-certified teachers are distinctly better than other teachers, i.e. produce more student learning on state assessments.¹⁷²

The differing assumptions about teacher quality that underpin state accountability and National Board certification have the potential to undermine the Board’s work.

National Board proponents presume that teachers who are knowledgeable in their subject and have good professional judgement will be effective, while state accountability proponents believe that the best indicator of teaching effectiveness is the ability to achieve results with students. Of these two views of teaching quality, the logic of state accountability is simpler to understand and has fewer elements, and as a result of this results-oriented view seems to be winning the battle over how teaching quality is to be judged in the United States.¹⁷³

Not everyone in the United States is convinced of the validity of current national standards approach. One recent paper criticised the proposals to reform the way teachers are trained and licensed.¹⁷⁴ The paper’s primary concern about the agenda of the National Commission for Teaching and America’s Future for reforming teaching and teacher education was that it would “transfer considerable regulatory power out of the public domain into private education organisations”, namely the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

More recent evidence is beginning to show the effectiveness of the National Board approach with an annual ten-fold increase in the number of teachers certified and a view that these teachers obtain better outcomes with their students.

It is not simply a case of either a standards-based or an accountability-based approach. As Table 7.1 shows, information linking teacher characteristics to student outcome data are important for determining future directions in teacher education as well as identifying which pedagogical practices of teachers have the greatest impact.

To proponents of a phonics approach, the above results must be of concern. Yet it shows how such results can illuminate pedagogy. This evidence presented by Darling-Hammond of a direct link between teacher quality and student learning outcomes provides powerful arguments for strengthening teaching and teacher education. From her study of the relationship between state policy developments and student achievement Darling-Hammond¹⁷⁶ commented that those states:

…that repeatedly lead the nation in student achievements in mathematics and reading have among the most highly qualified teachers in the country and have made longstanding investments in the quality of teaching.

Further, she noted that:

…reform strategies during the 1980s that did not include substantial efforts to improve the nature and quality of classroom work have shown little success in raising student achievement, especially

¹⁷² Tom, p. 20.
¹⁷³ Tom, p. 21.
if the reforms relied primarily on student
testing rather than investments in teaching177.

These are strong arguments that testing and accountability
need to be accompanied by strategies that provide the
means for teachers to improve their practice. That these
arguments are couched in terms of student results adds
significantly to their impact on future policies. The debate
in the United States will continue as long as some remain
unconvinced that teacher preparation and development are
essential elements to quality teaching and that this deeply
affects student learning. No doubt the same will be true in
this country in the period ahead.

England

The issue of standards for teachers has been a focus of
policy development in England for most of the last decade.
Three separate agencies are now involved in the develop-
ment, monitoring and accreditation of teachers against
educational standards. The first of these, The Teacher
Training Agency (TTA) was established by the Education
Act 1994. Its brief is to “raise standards in schools by
attracting able and committed people to teaching and by
improving the quality of teacher training”. The agency’s
core aims are to:

- promote teaching as a profession and
  boost the recruitment and retention of
  high quality people;

- increase the proportion of initial
teacher training (ITT) places allocated
to high quality providers;

- raise the standard and quality of initial
teacher training; and

- support the Government and others in
  wider initiatives to raise standards of
  teaching by helping to ensure that
  teachers in their induction years receive
  the structured support they need; by
  contributing to improving the knowledge,
  understanding and skills of serving
  teachers; and by helping to secure
  teaching as an evidence and
  research-based profession178.

The initial remit letter for the Teacher Training Agency
was broad. By 1995 it was assuming responsibility for an
ever-widening range of activities. Two requirements in
Initial Teacher Training given prominence in the remit
were “the formal requirement for the TTA to promote
SCITT” (School-Centred Initial Teacher Training) and a
“requirement to link funding [of ITT] to quality”179.

An initial attempt by the Teacher Training Agency to raise
the quality of initial teacher education focused on the
development of a Career Entry Profile. Furlong, Barton,
Miles, Whiting and Whitty180, commented that although
the pilot was unsuccessful, “the competences defined in
the profile would have, in effect, become a national
curriculum of initial teacher education”.

The Teacher Training Agency has been active also in the
development of national standards for teachers. Its
standards development activities are designed to:

- set out clear expectations for teachers
  at key points in the profession;

- help teachers at different points in the
  profession to plan and monitor their
  development, training and performance
effectively, and to set clear, relevant
  objectives for improving their
effectiveness;

- ensure that the focus at every point is
  on improving the achievement of pupils
  and the quality of their education;

- provide a basis for the professional
  recognition of teachers’ expertise; and

- help providers of professional develop-
  ment to plan and provide high quality,
  relevant training which meets the needs
  of individual teachers and head teachers,
  makes good use of their time and has
  the maximum benefit for pupils181.

To date, National Standards have been developed by the
Agency for:

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177 L. Darling-Hammond, Teacher quality and student achievement,
A review of state policy evidence, p.19
178 Teacher Training Agency. National Standards, (Date unknown),
Information about the TTA http://www.teach-tta.gov.uk/info/index.htm
(accessed April 2000).
179 J. Furlong, L. Barton, S. Miles, C. Whiting and G. Whitty,
Challenge and change in initial teacher education: Lessons from the
English experience: paper two, From Conservative to New Labour –
The reforms of the late 1990s (Period 3). Paper presented to
symposium: ‘Repositioning teacher education’, The University of
180 J. Furlong, L. Barton, S. Miles, C. Whiting and G. Whitty,
Challenge and change in initial teacher education: Lessons from the
English experience: paper two, From Conservative to New Labour –
The reforms of the late 1990s (Period 3). Paper presented to
symposium: ‘Repositioning teacher education’, The University of
181 Teacher Training Agency. National Standards, (Date unknown),
the award of Qualified Teacher Status - QTS induction
special educational co-ordinators and specialist teachers
subject leaders.

Monitoring of educational standards in schools is the responsibility of the Office for Standards in Education, usually referred to by the acronym OFSTED. Established in September 1992, OFSTED is a non-ministerial government department, independent from the Department for Education and Employment.

OFSTED’s remit is to improve standards of achievement and quality of education through regular independent inspection, public reporting and informed independent advice. OFSTED’s principal task is the management of the independent system of school inspection defined originally by the Education (Schools) Act 1992. This provides for the regular inspection of all 24,000 schools in England which are wholly or mainly state-funded.

A similar system of inspection applies to all institutions in receipt of public funding providing education for under four-year olds.

In 1996 the Secretary of State for Education required OFSTED to inspect the provision of both primary and secondary initial teacher training courses.

Where any aspect of an institution’s program or provision is deemed not to be adequately complying with the Secretary of State’s criteria, a further inspection and report is made. The criteria for the assessment of quality and standards in initial teacher training was agreed jointly by OFSTED and the Teacher Training Agency. A third body, the General Teaching Council (GTC), established in 2000, is designed to be an independent professional body for all teachers. The Council’s aims are to:

- provide a voice for the teaching profession
- maintain and enhance the profession’s high standards
- enhance the public standing of teaching.

The Government’s information to teachers indicates that the General Teaching Council is intended to be a leading player in shaping the education service of the future, giving a professional voice to almost 400,000 teachers in England. The GTC will give teachers the opportunity to lead and shape change, working in partnership with the government, local education authorities, schools and others. The consultation document leading to the establishment of the Council suggested that it would:

- advise the Secretary of State and others on a wide range of issues, including:
  - the recruitment and supply of new teachers
  - initial training and induction
  - on-going professional development
  - medical fitness and professional conduct
  - teacher training and professional development
- have a legal right to be consulted on any future change in the standards required for entry to teaching
- keep a register of qualified teachers, and registration will be a requirement for practising as a teacher in a maintained school. Other fully qualified teachers will also be encouraged to register, so that the Council can represent the profession as a whole
- develop and consult on a Code of Professional Conduct and Practice expected of registered teachers
- have powers to remove individual teachers from the register if it finds them guilty of serious professional misconduct or incompetence.

The Council has 64 members. These include:

- 25 elected teachers
- 9 teachers appointed by the main teacher unions
- 17 appointments by various representative bodies, mostly from within the education system
- 13 Secretary of State appointees.

The elected teachers come from five constituencies:

- 11 primary teachers
- 11 secondary teachers
- 1 primary head teacher
- 1 secondary head teacher
- 1 special school teacher.

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The reforms in England have been controversial. Furlong and others\textsuperscript{184} document the chronology of developments and their impacts on teacher education and teaching. The reforms of the Conservative governments were designed to reconceptualise teacher professionalism. Traditional views of teachers as autonomous professionals were based on principles:

For example that [teacher education] students needed to develop explicit educational values, that they needed to be knowledgeable about current educational practice and theoretically informed so that they could recognise the principles underlying current practice, and that they were capable of combining their values and their knowledge in order to make their own independent judgements as to what was and what was not effective practice\textsuperscript{185}.

The Conservative Government’s agenda:

…was to establish a different conception of professionalism where teachers were highly competent practitioners, proficient in working in ways that were currently demanded by schools\textsuperscript{186}.

Furlong and others note:

Governments did make considerable progress towards achieving their aspirations. The cumulative effect of a range of different policies – the invention of new routes into teaching that specifically excluded higher education, the definition of competences, the prescription of how partnerships were to be formed, the undermining of the financial stability of schools of education in universities and colleges – all of these factors contributed progressively to curtail the influence of those in higher education on the professional development of new teachers\textsuperscript{187}.

These reforms of teacher education have continued under New Labour.

Even so, the combined effects on teacher education of the Teacher Training Agency and OFSTED, under Chris Woodhead, have provided the strongest forces for change and hence for conflict. The authority of OFSTED to inspect schools was extended to initial teacher education in 1996, with the outcome that the Teacher Training Agency’s condition of grant to accredited providers of initial teacher education requires access by OFSTED to inspect the provision of such courses.

In addition to reform of teacher education, the United Kingdom Government is pursuing a range of other teacher quality improvement strategies. These strategies arising from Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change\textsuperscript{188} represent an attempt by the Government to address the critical:

…issues of training, recruitment, leadership and support for teachers in the classroom and beyond. It also describes our proposals for pay and performance. We must reward good teaching better, recognising its vital role in raising standards.

Consequently, the Government has proposed that there should be a performance threshold for teachers. If assessed by their head as suitable and provided the decision is endorsed by an external assessor, teachers will receive an immediate pay increase of up to £2000 and access to a new upper pay spine, enabling them to earn up to £30,000 without taking management responsibilities\textsuperscript{189}.

All applications will be judged against a set of national performance standards covering five areas:

- professional knowledge and understanding
- teaching and assessment
- pupil progress
- wider professional effectiveness
- professional characteristics.

\textsuperscript{184} Furlong et al., Challenge and change in teacher education: Lessons from the English experience: paper one, 2000.

\textsuperscript{185} Furlong et al., Challenge in initial teacher education: Lessons from the English experience: paper two, 2000, p. 1.

\textsuperscript{186} Furlong et al., Challenge in initial teacher education: Lessons from the English experience: paper two, 2000, p. 1.

\textsuperscript{187} Furlong et al., Challenge in initial teacher education: Lessons from the English experience: paper two, 2000, p. 2.

\textsuperscript{188} Secretary for State and Education, Teachers: Meeting the challenge of change, UK Green Paper on Education, 1998.

Although teachers will progress by annual increments (one point per year) towards the pay thresholds, ‘fast track’ options are available to allow the recruitment and development of new and serving teachers with the potential to become school leaders. Candidates progressing down the fast track will be able to accrue two points per year through a program of challenging teaching posts and extra professional development and support. Fast track candidates can expect to cross the performance threshold within five years.

In addition to this performance threshold, the Government has proposed that every school should have performance management arrangements in place from September 2000. Teachers will negotiate with their team leader on objectives covering student progress and professional development. Progress towards achieving these objectives will be reviewed regularly.

The basis of the performance threshold will be the framework recently published by the Department for Education and Employment describing effective teaching based on evidence of what effective teachers do in practice at different stages in the profession. The framework implements the proposals in the Green Paper Teachers: Meeting the challenge of change. Teaching skills, professional characteristics and classroom climate were identified as factors interacting and working within the ambit of teacher influence that significantly affect student progress.

The situation in the United Kingdom is complex, with three bodies all operating in the area of teacher, school and teacher education quality. The Review concludes that it is not possible to separate the inspectorial function in terms of the quality of schools and teachers (OFSTED) from the responsibility to accredit courses (Teacher Training Agency) from the General Teaching Council which is responsible for the professionalism of teachers.

In reality, the nature of training courses flows from the needs of the profession and its clients. Whether standards are being met is integral to this process. Professionalism should be at the core, not an inspection process, although assessment of standards both of teachers and courses is a critical responsibility.

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**Ontario, Canada**

The Ontario College of Teachers established by the Provincial Government to improve the quality of teaching represents a unified approach to addressing the issues of teacher quality at the provincial level, and hence has a number of parallels to the situation in New South Wales. The College, established in 1996, was an outcome of the February 1995 report of the Royal Commission on Learning, For the Love of Learning. The report recommended that:

…a professional, self-regulatory body for teaching, the Ontario College of Teachers, be established with the powers, duties and membership of the college set out in legislation. The college should be responsible for determining professional standards, certification, and accreditation of teacher education programs.

The thirty-one member College Council is serviced administratively by an independent organisation. The Chief Administrator of the Council is the Registrar who is responsible for four Departments:

- **Executive** – responsible for communications, policy and research, and corporate services
- **Membership Services** – responsible for client services, evaluation services and membership records
- **Investigations and Hearings** – responsible for complaints and investigations
- **Professional Affairs** – responsible for standards of practice and accreditation.

It is worth noting that the proposal to establish the College was initially resisted by the teacher union. Subsequent to the College’s establishment, the union was successful in having its members elected to all positions reserved for teachers on the College Council. According to College staff members, the union is now a supporter of the College.

Although it might be expected for elected representatives of teachers, at least in the early years, to be members of the union, it does not mean, nor has it meant in the case of the Ontario College of Teachers, union domination. The body is professional rather than industrial in nature, and in a professional environment teachers act professionally as the situation demands. In New South Wales currently,

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there is no formal professional environment relevant for all teachers within which they may operate. Membership of the College is compulsory for any person whose job requires:

…by law, regulation, by-law, resolution of board of directors or job description—that you be a qualified teacher, then you must be a member of the College. This includes teachers, principals, vice-principals, consultants, co-ordinators, and supervisory officers (academic) whether they are full-time, part-time, or long-term occasional employees\(^{192}\).

The College has approximately 175,000 members and is the largest self-regulating professional body in Canada. The College notes that:

Self-regulation involves the delegation of government regulatory functions to a professional body outside of government. This power is conferred only on professions that meet certain criteria, such as a specialised body of knowledge, and the profession’s readiness to deal with incompetence and misconduct\(^{193}\).

Since its inception the College has consulted widely with the profession to develop *Standards of Practice for the Teaching Profession*, and *Ethical Standards for the Teaching Profession*. The College has also developed guidelines for the accreditation of teacher education programs\(^{194}\). More recently, the Minister for Education and Training asked the College for advice on:

- how to implement a program for teacher testing which is cost effective and within the following parameters:
  - regular assessment of knowledge and skills
  - methodologies which include both written and other assessment techniques
- a link to re-certification
- remediation for those who fail assessments

The Board’s response to the Minister’s letter provided fifteen recommendations on the issue. These were concerned with:

- refinement of the Board’s existing accreditation requirements for teacher education and registration of teachers
- written tests of knowledge related to the Ontario curriculum, education legislation and policy appropriate for beginning teachers
- a two-year period of induction for beginning teachers
- support for teachers returning to practice
- well defined programs of assessment to be embodied within courses supporting on-going professional certification
- restrictions on the use of teachers teaching out of field or in specialist areas for which they do not hold appropriate qualifications
- on-going performance appraisal of teachers
- requirements for members of the College to maintain a professional portfolio which is:
  - reported to the College every five-years for inclusion on the statement of qualifications
  - part of evidence presented in performance appraisal processes.

The Ontario College model differs from the previous examples in that it provides for a range of functions to be managed from within a single organisation.

Further, consistent with action within the New South Wales context, the Ontario Minister’s request for advice could be seen to be a response to an unresolved tension between the quality assurance focus, characteristic of self-regulated professions, and the accountability requirements of the government and communities. Accountability, if defined in terms of external monitoring, is present only in terms of the accreditation of teacher education institutions. The College imposes no apparent accountability demands on individual teachers themselves or on schools. These remain responsibilities of employing authorities.

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\(^{194}\) Ontario College of Teachers, *Staff procedural handbook for pre-service teacher education program accreditation*, Toronto, September 1999.

7.6 Australian developments

While professional standards have been the subject of serious educational policy discussion in Australia since the late 1980s, less progress has been made on their prescription here than overseas.

Towards Identifying Professional Teaching Standards for New South Wales Schools (1998) presented a detailed commentary on national and state standards developments in Australia. State developments canvassed include those in Queensland, Victoria and South Australia. National developments include the National Competency Framework for Beginning Teachers and more recently the National Standards and Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education. Since the publication of that report, there has been some evaluation and re-development of the approach taken by individual states and territories.

Apart from this Review in New South Wales, which has broader parameters, the most extensive was in Victoria, initiated in 2000 by the new Government. It recommended that the Victorian Government establish a committee to advise on the establishment of a Victorian Institute of Teaching with the power to establish professional standards, to register teachers and to support professional development for teachers. The advisory committee is to report in June 2001 on the most appropriate way to establish the institute. Its predecessor, the Standards Council of the Teaching Profession, has been abolished.

Both Queensland and South Australia, the only states currently to register teachers, are evaluating their registration arrangements. Western Australia, through its Level 3 classroom teacher competency project, has moved from the pilot stage to implementation of what is arguably the first step in Australia towards an authentic assessment of teacher competence. The Level 3 project sought to establish competencies for identifying those teachers capable of providing:

...leadership in the school environment through modelling high standards of teaching practice, and by developing and supporting initiatives aimed at improving teacher and school effectiveness.

The process seeks to assess teachers against five competencies through:

- a portfolio to document their real teaching experiences. The teaching portfolio is constructed within very strict guidelines to alleviate potential problems of irrelevant information
- a reflective review undertaken in an assessment centre. This review requires the applicant to present and subsequently discuss the merits of their application.

Although this process is somewhat less rigorous than that of the National Board in the United States it is still a more objective form of assessing teacher competence than presently operates in the majority of Australian jurisdictions.

In all Australian states and territories, however, there is a heightened awareness of the importance of quality teachers and teaching for student learning.

At the national level, there has been a little over a decade of policy involvement with professional teaching standards. The Commonwealth Government has been active in providing funds for standards developments. Two recent examples include funding of the Australian Council of Deans of Education report, Preparing a Profession: Report of the National Standards and Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Project, and the award of research grants supporting the development of subject-specific professional standards for teachers of English, mathematics and science. This latter work is progressing under the auspices of the respective national subject organisations.

The outcomes of these teaching standards projects are not expected to be available until after this Review.

Preparing a Profession, sets out standards and guidelines for initial teacher education in Australia. These were expressed as graduate standards and guidelines, program standards and guidelines and organisational standards and guidelines.

The graduate standards and guidelines covered the following aspects of beginning teacher preparation:

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138 G. Martin, Preparing a teaching portfolio, Education Department of Western Australia, Perth Western Australia, 1997, p. 4.
general professional attributes
duty of care and health and safety
students and their communities
indigenous education
content studies
literacy
numeracy
teaching and learning
relationships with learners and behaviour management
technology
assessment and evaluation
working with others
working in schools and systems.

The Program Standards and Guidelines established criteria for:
program development, implementation and monitoring
program staff and their qualifications and experience
physical and other facilities
selection and entry of students
curricula
duration
structure and procedures
teaching and learning approaches
assessment.

While the directions set out in Preparing a Profession are ambitious they are difficult to argue against. An analysis of the report by Gore and Morrison201 noted, however, that although there is much to commend in the report, its chief failing is that it did not address adequately how faculties of education might implement this new vision of teacher preparation. They described the report as “an instance of ‘wishful rationalism’, setting itself and the profession impossibly high goals”.

Gore and Morrison went on to say that despite the strong support from deans of education for Preparing a Profession, there is little evidence of support by the Commonwealth Government or State and Territory Governments, or progress towards implementation within individual universities. They added that “many of the weaknesses of the Adey Report [Preparing a Profession] are not of its own making, but symptomatic of current bureaucratic, institutional and public discourse on teacher education”.

It is easy, however, to blame forces external to universities and faculties of education for their own inactivity in this direction. Given that universities are autonomous institutions and the proposed standards and guidelines are not inconsistent with current mandated requirements in New South Wales, faculties of education, in this State at least, do not require any endorsement of the standards except their own.

During the course of this Review, Preparing a Profession was rarely mentioned in discussions with teacher educators about the principles or standards underpinning existing courses or in terms of planning for future courses. More commonly, teacher educators referred to past frameworks such as the Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers (1993) or the National Competency Framework for Beginning Teachers (1996).

There appear to have been three weaknesses in the process of developing Preparing a Profession. The first was the failure of the process to build support and awareness amongst teacher educators themselves. The second was that the standards and guidelines were largely driven by concerns of the universities rather than schools or the profession. Third, without the necessary structures to implement them no matter how pertinent the recommendations there was no on-going impetus to make the changes happen.

In these circumstances, failure of governments to support the report and of faculties of education to implement it should not be surprising, given the history of failed reform in Australian teacher education over the past decade.

Two evolutionary phases in the development of professional teaching standards are now apparent in Australia. The first wave of standards, prior to 1999, has been dominated by:

…the large State government school systems, and influenced by competency-based conceptions of standards …

long lists of duties, opaque language, generic skills, decontextualised performances, an expanded range of duties, and weak assessments.\textsuperscript{202}

The emerging second wave of standards developments is being led largely by professional associations. Louden\textsuperscript{203} expects that second wave standards will be “brief, transparent, specialised, contextualised, focused on teaching and learning, and matched by strong assessment”. ‘Driven by pedagogy’ should be added to this list.

Evidence of the increased professional association support for standards can be seen in the current emphasis placed on standards by such bodies as the Australian College of Education. Both the September 1999 and February 2000 issues of the College’s journal, \textit{Unicorn}, were devoted to the issue. The College has also actively promoted forums to discuss related matters.

Yet, developing and agreeing upon standards, and even providing a structure within which they can be developed, maintained and assessed, is only a small part of the issue. Quality will arise out of agreed standards if and only if processes and procedures are established to measure, recognise and reward performance against standards.

This part of the equation is beyond the capacities of professional associations. Indeed, while the National Board in the United States and the Ontario College of Teachers are seen as professional bodies, it was government that established them.

The evidence is clear that the issue for New South Wales is not so much whether a system of professional teaching standards should be established, but how.

This will be no easy task because it has been delayed for so long. Models from elsewhere provide useful guides, but it is essential that the one chosen meets the needs of New South Wales.

Once this has been achieved, in the absence of any thrust for a national system of standards, state-by-state bilateral arrangements may bring sensible cooperation, cross-accreditation, and a more national approach to this important issue.

\textbf{7.7 Positions taken in submissions}

As expected, the positions set out in the debate accompanying the 1998 \textit{Teaching Standards Bill}\textsuperscript{204} in New South Wales dominated advice in submissions on the issue of teacher quality. Generally, submissions to the Review were supportive of professional standards for teachers or standards for the accreditation of teacher education programs. There was less consensus, however, on the purpose of standards, how they should be applied and who should be responsible for implementing them.

Teacher unions generally were supportive of standards and registration. The New South Wales Teachers Federation noted, despite its concern about the effort that had been expended over the past decade on the development of standards “which are gathering dust on shelves and cupboards across the country”, that “[i]t is time for some coordination in standards development, and some agreement on their use as well as a commitment to them”\textsuperscript{205}.

Similarly, the Independent Education Union called for the “development of nationally consistent standards for the teaching profession with the aim of incorporating these into a comprehensive system of national registration for the profession”\textsuperscript{206}.

Non-government authorities and organisations were supportive of professional standards, but in contexts that did not involve registration of teachers. The Anglican Education Commission’s submission to the Review supported the use of professional standards in contexts that promote teacher development and professional cultures. In the Commission’s view standards:

…need to cover teaching skills as well as professional conduct as well as those applying to the knowledge of the discipline(s) to be taught. The different teaching environments of early childhood, primary and secondary schooling will require different standards.\textsuperscript{207}

The Commission rejected any form of teacher registration, which enabled “any government, profession or union, to claim for itself the exclusive right to regulate entry to a


\textsuperscript{203} W. Louden, \textit{p. 1}.


\textsuperscript{205} Submission 175.

\textsuperscript{206} Submission 104.

\textsuperscript{207} Submission 66.
profession”. The Commission was broadly of a view that a ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach to standards was undesirable. The above quote is taken to mean ‘entry to employment in the education sector’ rather than ‘a profession’ and in this context the point is sound.

The Association of Heads of Independent Schools of Australia (New South Wales) provided no comment on standards but rejected registration in the following terms:

…the position of AHISA (NSW) remains opposed to any requirement for teachers in independent schools to be registered. The experience of members who have worked in other States and countries where registration is mandatory has led to scepticism that registration can ensure that only those well suited to teaching will be employed. On the other hand, entrants to the profession from other backgrounds may be of great value for their different experience. For these people training in teaching methods can be very effectively undertaken within the school with a mentor system.\(^{208}\)

There are two comments that can be made about this statement. First, that it is somewhat at odds with the opening assertion in the Association’s submission that its members “take a keen interest in the supply of well trained teachers”. Commenting on such teacher hiring practices in the United States, Shanker notes in times of teacher shortage that:

If [school administrators] cannot find enough qualified teachers of music, science or mathematics, they hire the unqualified. The absurdity of this solution is obvious when you transpose it to other professions. Would it be okay to have a biologist work as a family practitioner in areas where no doctors are available? Or what about having an osteopath substitute for an ophthalmologist in a hospital that didn’t have an eye specialist on staff? The fact that this kind of thing is considered acceptable in teaching victimises both the teachers and their students, and it cheapens the profession in the eyes of the public.\(^{209}\)

The second concerns the capacity of ‘mentoring’ as practised in the teaching profession to provide the level of professional preparation expected of a competent professional. Studies of teacher mentoring practice\(^{210}\) in New South Wales, and research undertaken as part of this Review comparing practices in teaching with other professions, show that teaching is largely deficient in this area.

Neither the Association of Independent Schools of New South Wales, the Catholic Education Commission, nor the Catholic Education Office in the Parramatta Diocese commented in their written submissions on teacher registration. The last two, however, called for the development of a statement of competencies for all teachers. The Association of Independent Schools supported accreditation of teachers, consistent with the model proposed by the Australian College of Education.

Under the College’s proposal, accomplished teachers would be accredited, possibly through a process requiring in-school demonstration of competence. The Australian College of Education noted, in the absence of clear professional standards, a further issue:

…there is, presently, no reciprocity with personnel or industrial policies in employing bodies that assist in a teacher’s career path progression from entry to pre-service, entry to internship, completion of initial teacher education, probation leading to certification or registration, accomplished professionalism in the classroom and school and educational leadership. Furthermore, industrial and related personnel policies often work at cross-purposes to effective professional development, professional growth as a teacher, and the status accorded professional accomplishment.\(^{211}\)

The College went on to say that:

If professional learning is the responsibility of the individual, it follows that effective professional standards should enable the process of self-valuation and demonstration just as much as it should enable consistency in external assessment processes when competence is brought into question.

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\(^{208}\) Submission 20.


\(^{211}\) Submission 129.
The Professional Teacher’s Council also supported standards.

…a clear role definition [for teachers] must be established by the profession itself. The only way to do this is through a universal Teacher Registration body established by the profession with standards and ethics established by and monitored by the profession itself. Ongoing registration would only be achieved with continuing accredited professional development.

Parent groups, in advice to the Review, generally did not pursue the issue of professional standards.

The professional standards theme was raised in an advice from the Department of Education and Training for the Review. The Department noted that professional standards would provide:

- a firmer and more consistent basis for the accreditation of teacher education programs
- a stronger basis for articulating a range of university, TAFE and industry provision and pathways within programs of teacher preparation
- a better basis for teachers to round off their development during the induction and probationary stage
- a system that rewards professional growth and development.

The advice indicated that properly developed professional standards would serve to guide policy making in such areas as teaching and learning and professional development. An important issue canvassed in advice received was the need for professional ownership of standards. As with other professions, standards must have the imprimatur of those that they impact upon. Teachers must support the concept of standards and be engaged in their development and endorsement. Teacher educators were strong proponents for Government action in relation to the regulation of the quality of teachers and teacher education. The submission from the New South Wales Teacher Education Council (TEC) noted its:

…longstanding commitment to the principle that teacher registration is a necessary artefact if the status of the profession is to be enhanced and maintained. The New South Wales TEC would prefer that teacher registration be compulsory for all teachers and that it imply a sufficiently high standard of qualification and expertise as to set benchmarks for competency and excellence in the profession. The Council also believes that formal modes of teacher education program certification are required in order to assure the quality and rigour of preservice and inservice training.

Almost universally, submissions that canvassed the issue of accreditation of university programs of teacher education, commented that the requirements of the Department of Education and Training’s Teacher Qualifications Advisory Panel (TQAP) were ill-focused and inadequate for assuring the quality of new entrants to the profession. The processes are concerned primarily with ensuring that programs of teacher preparation provide for:

- minimum subject content requirements
- appropriate teaching methodological studies
- the mandatory requirements of the Department of Education and Training and Government, such as special education, computer competencies, and child protection.

Only teachers completing an endorsed qualification are deemed to be eligible for employment by the Department of Education and Training. Three ‘classification’ statements are used as the basis for endorsing teacher qualifications, prior to employment in government schools. These are:

- The Requirements for Classification as a Teacher in the New South Wales Education Teaching Service
- Qualification Requirements for the New Areas of Teaching and the Senior Years of Schooling
- Qualification Requirements for Classification as a Primary Teacher in the NSW Department of Education and Training, and Recognition of a Primary Teacher with a Specialisation in Languages in the Department of Education and Training.

All New South Wales universities submit courses to the Teacher Qualifications Advisory Panel for endorsement. All teachers applying for employment in government

212 Submission 54.

213 Submission 162.
schools are required to have their program of preparation approved by the Department of Education and Training prior to employment in government schools.

Non-government schools find it difficult to screen the qualifications of teachers. Some systemic schools, however, require prospective teachers to have received the Department of Education and Training’s approval prior to employment. Thus, the classification guidelines established by the Teacher Qualifications Advisory Panel and the Department’s personnel resources serve as a defacto approval mechanism for non-government schools requiring verification of teaching qualifications.

The processes of the Teacher Qualifications Advisory Panel were characterised in submissions and other evidence to the Review as being input-based, rather than outcome-focused, and providing little more than a tick as to whether the university’s course documentation addressed the Department of Education and Training’s teaching and learning priorities. The inference, in comments to the Review, was that there was no monitoring of whether the program delivered by the university matched the documentation, or of whether students were able to demonstrate the intended outcomes of the program.

Little was said in submissions of the universities’ own internal course monitoring provisions. No university proffered copies of course evaluations or program reviews amongst information provided to the Review. One evaluation, critical of a university’s provision, was made public during the course of the Review. Generally, however, course and program reviews are protected by a veil of secrecy.

Strong support for formal accreditation was expressed at the symposium hosted by The University of Sydney on Repositioning Teacher Education. Subsequent to the symposium, representatives of major stakeholders endorsed a statement proposing a strategy for formal accreditation of programs of teacher education in New South Wales. A letter to the Review from the Dean of Education, endorsed by representatives of the organisations party to the discussions 214.

…recommended the creation of a College of Teaching broadly representing the profession and including teachers and teacher educators in schools and universities, professional teacher associations and unions, and employing authorities. A prime function of the College would be to develop and publicise a coherent set of professional standards which were developmental in nature. The standards should be conceived as a continuum to which those in the profession should aspire. …

Such standards should form the context for the accreditation of teacher education programs. The accreditation process should not be bureaucratic in form and intent but allow for diversity and independence in teacher education while providing guarantees of necessary professional competencies and attributes 215.

While there is consensus on the need for accreditation of teacher education programs there is less on the process and procedures for assuring the quality of teachers. For the stakeholders – teachers, unions, school systems, schools, the community and government – the issues come down to the purpose and ownership of professional standards.

In summary, five perspectives on the introduction of acceptable standards both for teachers and for teacher education courses are apparent.

**Government**

Commonly assailed about the quality of schooling, the introduction of such standards are likely to be seen by government as a sensible and public way of strengthening the quality of teaching. In addition, these standards would provide a defensible vehicle by which teachers who cannot meet the required standards even after being helped, can rightly be separated from employment.

**Employers**

Standards linked to compulsory teacher licensing or registration are not universally supported by employers, particularly in the non-government sector. The concern is that any increased requirements for teachers to meet would exacerbate current and future teacher supply problems. Non-government school authorities support the provision of the current *Education Act*, which

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214 Parties to the agreement included the NSW Federation of Parents’ and Citizens’ Associations, NSW Secondary Principals’ Council, Association of Heads of Independent Schools (NSW), NSW Chapter of the Australian College of Education, Professional Teachers’ Council, Association of Catholic School Principals, NSW Board of Studies, and NSW Teacher Education Council.

215 Submission 154.
does not require persons who are teaching to have formal teaching qualifications provided they are supervised by a person so-qualified.

Ostensibly, this provision provides flexibility for non-government schools to hire, for example, PhDs in physics who do not have professional qualifications, or specialist music teachers or sports coaches. There are instances, however, where the provisions have enabled schools to fill difficult-to-staff positions with unsuitable teachers and others lacking the skills to fulfil their expected roles. Cases were even cited of primary trained teachers teaching senior secondary classes. This criticism could also apply to the filling of difficult-to-staff positions in government schools.

Ironically, experience in the United States shows an inverse relationship between teacher quality requirements and shortages of teachers. When requirements for teachers have been increased, so has their status and consequently supply problems appear to lessen. Teachers

Standards affirm the quality of what teachers do, and establish developmental or aspirational goals. They provide benchmarks to reward performance and have the potential to raise the quality of teachers and teaching. Standards also imply the need for employers to resource and reward teachers who can demonstrate they have met higher standards.

Parents and communities

Clear and explicit standards will restore confidence in teachers and teaching, and enhance the professional standing of teachers.

Rationalist economists

Professional standards are seen as anti-competitive and restrictive of trade. This position raises a dilemma which must be addressed. The balance between ensuring that teachers have appropriate levels of skill and knowledge through a standards approach to be certified as teachers, without limiting the employment of others with significant ability, skills and knowledge but who are not trained as teachers, is not an easy one to strike.

7.8 Conclusion

There is increasing interest, both nationally and internationally, in the issues of teacher quality and professional standards. The evidence presented to the Review is that teachers, employers, parents and the community all support a clear focus on standards of professional practice.

The examples considered in the United States, England and Canada provide three different approaches to implementing a process whereby teachers may be accredited against acceptable standards. A key question for the Review is to determine the strategy which has the greatest potential to contribute to improved teaching practice in classrooms across the state. The work of the National Board in the United States has clarified significantly views about what it means to be a good teacher. Yet, it is difficult to see how such a model would impact on almost all teachers in this State. The lead time would be too long.

The dual approach of the Teacher Training Agency and OFSTED in England has had considerable influence on establishing teaching standards and increasing accountability of schools and teachers. Nonetheless, it is a reductionist model relying on a ‘priestly class’ of inspectors to drive educational change in ways that are more determined by political ideology than educational validity. Standards are set and assessed by a group outside the profession itself, setting up the situation for the potential conflict described in Cullingford’s An Inspector Calls.

There have been improvements in the United Kingdom, but the professional structures requiring individual teacher responsibility to take education forward are largely absent. There is much resentment from teachers that the system is imposed and responsibility for quality is taken out of their hands.

The Ontario College of Teachers is a model that has been more readily accepted by the teaching profession. A critical factor has been the active participation of members of the profession who themselves meet the standards. Yet in the final analysis, its primary functions appear to have more to do with regulating the profession, rather than establishing and building one.

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Importantly, there are requirements for explicit demonstration of performance against standards in all three models. In each model more objective assessment of teaching performance is required than has been evident in the past. Such requirements would challenge significantly existing teacher supervision and certification practices in this State. There is considerable benefit to be gained from adopting evidence-based approaches to teacher assessment. They challenge teachers to reflect on what they do and how it impacts on the learning that occurs in their classroom.

Importantly, evidence-based approaches give teachers a high level of professional control over how they develop as teachers and how they are recognised.

The following chapter seeks to draw on the best of the developments studied and meld them into a proposal for a framework in New South Wales that establishes teaching as a quality profession, supports individual teachers and fosters their career-long development.
8. Directions for raising teacher professionalism

In the light of the findings of the Review, the discussion in the preceding chapters and positions set out in submissions, it is not a simple task to recommend policy settings that have the potential to impact positively on teacher quality. The relative ease with which other professions have been able to reach agreement on procedures and structures to support high standards seems not to apply in the education sector.

There are various reasons for this, but a major one is because there is no unified voice for teaching as a profession either at the state level or nationally. Because there has been no professional structure, the unions representing teachers have held sway on what in other vocations are considered to be professional issues. The need for a change from union and employer control to a greater level of professional authority on professional matters is now seen as a major issue in many countries.

Similarly, because education is a state responsibility, and apart from universities, significantly state-funded, a national approach more apparent in other professions does not seem possible at this time. New South Wales should, however, work with the other States and Territories towards a more national system when the time is right. New South Wales should not hold back from meeting its own needs simply because there is no agreed Australia-wide approach.

Clear and explicit professional teaching and ethical standards setting out the expected knowledge, skills, attitudes and values of teachers have widespread support within the community and within the profession. Teachers should have the same guarantees of quality that the community now accepts and expects should hold for the curriculum. The development of professional teaching standards would extend the evolving curriculum standards framework setting out the learning expectations of students, to one which defines the learning and standards required of teachers.

Nonetheless, written standards by themselves will not enhance teacher quality. The critical elements in increasing teacher quality and professionalism are the systems that will recognise, utilise and value these standards of professional teaching practice. Teachers will only value standards when the efforts they put into meeting them are recognised, valued and rewarded.

8.1 Establishing a profession of teachers

The preparation of doctors, nurses, engineers, and accountants is a responsibility shared by universities, employers and the profession. This allows for their preparation to be more attuned to meeting the needs of employment. If you believe, as I do, that good teachers make a difference, then we need to ensure that the initial preparation and continuing education of teachers is a shared responsibility.

We need to develop strategies that bring all of the intellectual resources that reside within our universities, our school systems, our schools and our teaching profession to bear. It is not just a question of more financial resources.

The findings of the Review point to a profession that has been largely disempowered and, consequently, is less professional than in the past and unable to respond effectively or influence the changing contexts within which teachers work.

Evidence gathered by the Review indicates a need for the Government to establish an organisation, the primary purpose of which should be to enhance the level of professionalism of teachers and teaching. This is seen as a critical first step towards raising the quality of teachers, teaching and learning in New South Wales. Such an organisation must be representative of teachers and governed by a council predominantly made up of highly experienced and professional teachers; that is, people who would meet the requirements of the body that certifies their professional standard.

Of the models for such an organisation examined by the Review, and directly in the case of the United Kingdom, Ontario, Canada and the United States, the conclusion was reached that those with the closest links to the profession were the ones which seemed to deal most effectively with the quality and standards issue, and in ways acceptable to teachers, employers and government. Teachers can be tough on their peers and will expect their colleagues to

218 The Honourable John Aquilina MP, Minister for Education and Training, address to the New South Wales Teacher Education Council, 26 June 2000.
achieve appropriate standards. The Ontario College of Teachers, for example, had wide support among teachers, yet it also has a most comprehensive process for deregistering teachers who fail to meet either ethical or performance standards.

The core purpose of such an organisation would be to provide a professional structure for teachers, to address issues of professional teaching and ethical standards and the quality of teacher education. Its functions should be limited to professional matters. Although some of its advice and work may have industrial implications, matters of an industrial nature rest firmly with employers and unions.

The Review proposes the establishment of an Institute of Teachers. The functions of the proposed Institute are set out in the following recommendation.

### Recommendation 1

That the New South Wales Government establish an Institute of Teachers whose primary purpose is to enhance the level of professionalism of teachers and teaching. The Institute to be responsible for:

- the establishment and promulgation of performance standards at designated stages of development as a teacher, together with standards of ethical practice for teachers
- the accreditation and disaccreditation of teachers against such performance and ethical standards, determining related requirements for maintaining and extending or removing such accreditation, and establishing and maintaining records of teachers so accredited
- endorsing and disendorsing courses and programs of teacher education, both initial and continuing
- accrediting those schools and other institutions involved in the provision of professional experience in initial and continuing teacher education
- advising universities on ways to strengthen postgraduate programs and research in pedagogy and teacher education
- advising the Government and the community on issues relating to teacher quality and professional standards, and on the qualifications, profile and experiences of teachers employed throughout the State
- promoting the position and standing of the profession on professional matters
- communicating on professional issues among members
- determining, in cooperation with the Government and in discussion with parties involved in the profession, the fees and other means of providing the resources to be applied in fulfilling its responsibilities
- advising on areas where research is needed, particularly in pedagogy to advance the skill level of teachers in the State.

Three options for establishing the council of the Institute are presented. The first involves structures similar to those identified in professional organisations operating overseas. These organisations have relatively large councils that meet only three to four times per year. The function of such councils is to determine membership of sub-committees and project working parties and to approve policy.

Major management powers are delegated to an executive board. The majority of members of these councils are elected by teachers themselves, others hold positions due to their office, and some are appointed by the Government. Such councils are perceived as professional, with membership representative of the profession, rather than representative of the employers, unions or the educational community. They may be drawn from these groups but they must be able to meet the standards criteria for membership. There are appointment rules so that councillors represent a cross-section of teachers with positions reserved for government and non-government schools, primary and secondary school leaders and teachers. All must have a professional standing in teaching that would allow them to meet the standards criteria.

Project working parties include significant representation from amongst councillors. Where necessary, however, others with specific expertise are co-opted to assist. If such a model were to be adopted in New South Wales, special consideration would need to be given to representation of early childhood and TAFE teachers, as well as those from indigenous, rural and isolated communities.
Alternatively, the Government could adopt a model where a relatively small council was appointed. This council could also be made up of people drawn from education, but its role would be more that of a senior management committee providing strategic direction and overseeing outcomes. Such a council would need to meet more frequently. Sub-committees and project working parties made up largely of professional practising teachers and supported by a secretariat would conduct much of the work.

This model provides fewer opportunities for practising teachers to contribute to the decision making process. Generally, the history of such models is that membership expands over time as the council is not seen to be representative of all constituencies.

It also stands apart from the profession itself and is generally 'owned' more by the Government than by the members. Such a model has greater potential for conflict between teachers and the body itself, which to some extent has been the case with OFSTED in the United Kingdom.

A third possibility is a Board of Studies model. Under this model, councillors would be representative of the educational community, not necessarily the teaching profession. Such a model could identify standards, and implement processes for accreditation and the associated functions of the Institute. As members of its council would not necessarily be members of the profession it would not be a professional organisation with the standing among teachers nationally and internationally that, for example, the Institution of Engineers, Australia, has among the world’s engineers.

The possibility of using an already established organisation for educators to be the core body was also considered. The Australian College of Education provides the obvious precedent, but the perception exists that it is far too oriented toward the non-government sector. More importantly, no professional body since its inception has been able to advance significantly the issue of teaching standards, or to establish a profession. Rather, a new organisation is needed which has no antecedents but which is attuned to the challenges and opportunities now facing the profession.

Given that the prime purpose of the Institute of Teachers is to provide a professional structure to establish and maintain performance and ethical standards and to support teachers, the first model is the one proposed to be adopted.

A further significant consideration for the Government is that of funding to support the Institute. There are options also in this area.

The functions outlined above suggest five sources of funding: government; employers of teachers; universities; individual schools; and teachers.

Clearly, if the Institute is established, some functions within the Department of Education and Training will pass to it and so also should the resources equivalent to the functions.

Accreditation of teacher education programs and schools should also generate fees. These fees would, however, need to be reasonable in terms of the services provided.

Accreditation of teachers should also attract a fee for the assessment and the on-going maintenance of the accreditation awarded by the Institute.

The Review noted that in the case of the National Board in the United States a fee equivalent to A$2,300 is applied to teachers seeking its certification. There are no on-going fees for maintenance of certification. Generally, this fee is not paid by the teacher but by third parties: schools, districts, states and even the Federal Government.

In Ontario, Canada where teachers are registered against standards, there is no set fee for initial registration but there is an annual fee equivalent to A$100 for membership of the College.

Although there could be significant initial opposition from teachers to an annual fee for accredited teachers, this proposal is somewhat different. If adopted as envisaged, the proposal could result in significant individual financial benefits. The setting of a fee of around $500 for each teacher applying for accreditation is proposed. Given the substantial benefit to employers arising from increased teacher professionalism, the payment of the initial fee should be the responsibility of employers. Teachers should be required, however, to pay an annual fee. This fee could be in the vicinity of $150 per annum. If the employers and unions agree, a significant personal benefit could be paid once the teacher is accredited.

A further area of funding that ought to be pursued is that from the corporate sector, particularly in the establishment phase of the Institute. Corporations have contributed
significant amounts to supporting the initiatives of the National Board in the United States. There are even examples of substantial contributions from non-national enterprises. Business is dependent upon the education system to provide the highly skilled workforce of the future, therefore it has a critical stake in improving the skills and capacities of teachers. Support from business for the Institute would do much to convince teachers of its importance. The new Institute should spend some time exploring the possibility of obtaining corporate support, not only to fund its own operations, but to support Teacher of the Year activities and to provide scholarships to exceptional teachers or teachers-in-training.

The following discussion in this chapter elaborates upon the functions and responsibilities of the proposed Institute of Teachers.

8.2 Enhancing the status of teachers as professional people

The evidence is clear that the professional standing of teachers and community perceptions about the quality of teaching are directly related. This standing will only be enhanced when the community has confidence in the quality and capacity of its teachers. A fundamental element in formally establishing teaching as a profession is the capacity for it to be self-regulating. Teachers must be able to set their own standards to articulate quality pedagogy and professional ethics. Thus, the purpose of strategies to develop quality standards is two-fold:

- to provide structures to advance the professionalism of teachers
- to assure the community of the standards of teachers and the quality of professional practice in all schools.

The previous examination of practice in self-regulating professions indicates two main accreditation patterns or models. In the first, the qualification provides the right to work as a member of the profession. As discussed in chapter 6, this model applies to medical practitioners, nurses and engineers. The second model provides formal accreditation after attainment of the qualification and a period working in the field. Formal accreditation is based on the demonstration of attainment of professional standards. This model applies to accountants, lawyers and engineers.

Teachers have operated for too long without clarity on these issues. There are questions about their capacity to operate on their first day of employment as competent individuals within a classroom, yet, their personal professional developmental needs are currently poorly identified and, as the evidence indicates, in many instances, poorly addressed.

The requirement that an applicant for entry to teaching holds only an approved qualification, as is the case for teachers seeking employment in New South Wales government schools, has been of itself insufficient to provide the guarantees of quality sought by the community. Such a basic requirement is inadequate also to satisfy the demands of the rapidly changing contexts within which teachers now work.

Although many submissions advanced registration of teachers as being necessary to professionalise teaching, the fundamental issue for the Review was the capacity of mandatory registration requirements to improve the quality of teaching and hence the learning outcomes of students. Views held by teachers, teacher educators, school authorities and the broader community in New South Wales about whether registration would enhance the quality of teaching, and hence the status and standing of teachers, are strongly polarised.

Registration, by itself, is a relatively blunt instrument for guaranteeing and enhancing the quality of teaching. Registration can only imply minimal standards and is primarily concerned with regulating who should be able to teach, and who should remain in the profession. Compulsory registration virtually requires everyone employed in any teaching capacity to be registered. It rarely prevents ineffective teachers from being employed, and because of its static nature, contributes little to the on-going improvement of the profession.

In many countries where registration is a requirement to teach, the evidence is that when faced with shortages of teachers, registration requirements are relaxed, or schools are allowed to hire staff under emergency regulations. Although teachers are not registered in New South Wales, this is similar to the situation that applied in the mid-1980s when the then Department of Education reduced its employment qualification requirements and employed mathematics teachers upon completion of a ten-week course of professional preparation. There was little follow
through or continuing development provided for these people.

A further perspective on registration arises from the opposition of non-government employers to compulsory registration, believing it restricts opportunities for entry into the classroom. Approaches which do not prevent people who may have much to contribute to student learning from working in schools and other educational settings are strongly supported. As in other professions, they should be able to work productively under the close supervision of those who are professionally accredited. However, once employed as teachers, they should be expected to work towards meeting the standards expected of a competent teacher. This situation prevails in other professions such as nursing, where an enrolled nurse who completes a two-year TAFE course can work in a hospital, and then with extra study is able to become a registered nurse. The same is true, for example, in childcare, accountancy and engineering.

Enabling people to enter the profession in this way would be one means of providing models of teacher education that involve less time in initial preparation and more time directly engaged in the school environment. This would allow for models of teacher education that are more school based than is currently the case, but without the difficulties that have been expressed in the United Kingdom context about their approach to School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT).

In some cases this transition into teaching could occur through a traineeship-style model of initial preparation or it might apply to a PhD graduate in physics engaged to teach without prior teacher education. A pre-requisite would be a three-way partnership between the student teacher, the school and a university. Teachers entering through this pathway would require close on-site supervision and mentoring by an experienced teacher as well as the opportunity to study educational theory through a university course and engage in pedagogical development within the school.

Gifted musicians, sports people and others suited to teach children, who may not wish to become a fully accredited teacher, could be engaged under similar conditions. Consideration may need to be given to making an instructor certificate available for such people. This would require a considerable strengthening of the current loose arrangements that apply under the provision of the Education Act 1990 that enable non-government schools to employ unqualified teachers under supervision. Instances were brought to the attention of the Review where such people are teaching under the supposed supervision of a qualified teacher located in another school not even within the same community or district.

Rather than pursuing mandatory registration which acts primarily as an entry barrier to the profession, the evidence indicates that priority should be given to quality improvement strategies aimed at enabling and supporting the majority of teachers to take steps up the ladder of professional skills.

The adoption of a voluntary system of professional accreditation based on professional standards to be administered by the proposed Institute of Teachers is preferred.

Parallels for such a voluntary, standards-based system exist in the accountancy, engineering and medical professions. Not everyone who works in an accounting environment has Certified Practising Accountant (CPA) status. Not everyone who works in an engineering environment has Certified Practising Engineer (CPEng) status. Not every medical practitioner is a fellow of a College, although they must have general practitioner training.

A ‘once only’ accreditation requirement for teachers would do little to support their lifelong learning and professional growth needs, nor would it provide opportunities to recognise quality teaching, particular expertise or specialised knowledge or skills. Lifelong education, a defining activity in many fields, must apply to teachers if they are to have the fullest possible professional credibility. This accreditation system should be staged to address the lifelong learning needs of teachers. The first stage of the proposed system would lead to accreditation as an Accredited Practising Teacher-1 (APT-1) and apply after a period of induction into the profession, possibly after three years of employment in teaching. It would represent the achievement of a standard required for further progression within the profession. And, if agreed by employers and unions in an industrial award, salary progression could be linked to this base standard.

Importantly, this professional accreditation is not intended to supplant existing employment practices where teachers have a probationary period, commonly for one year.
Nor is it meant to minimise existing responsibility of employers to adequately induct and support new teachers into the profession. Rather, it is intended to strengthen and focus these activities. Attainment of APT-1 accreditation should be a minimum requirement for teachers involved in the provision of professional experience and induction for beginning teachers. This requirement should also apply to university staff involved in the professional experience of student teachers. A second accreditation stage aims to encourage and reward professional growth. Teachers meeting the standard of Accredited Practising Teacher-2 (APT-2) would be expected to further develop their curriculum, pedagogic and assessment skills as well as a particular specialisation, such as:

- Equity and diversity covering at least one of:
  - special education
  - indigenous education
  - multicultural education
  - gifted and talented education
- Behaviour and social issues covering one of:
  - behaviour management
  - drug education
- Religious education
- Marketing and client services.

Accreditation at this level would give an important boost to teachers’ skills, including those skills needed to deal with learning disabilities and behaviour disorders. With schools operating in increasingly competitive environments, both within and between sectors, teachers need marketing skills, opportunities to gain knowledge about providing appropriate client service, and generally greater capacity to undertake community-related activities. While there are few programs currently directed at teachers in these areas, no doubt as competition quickens they will become highly relevant to teacher needs. Further, accreditation would enable teachers who have undertaken significant further studies to be recognised for the depth and quality of their learning. For instance, those teachers who have pursued studies in gifted and talented education in courses offered by the University of NSW, could receive direct recognition for advanced knowledge gained through specifically designed courses.

The third accreditation stage leading to the awarding of Accredited Practising Teacher-3 (APT-3) status aims to encourage and reward professional leadership. This area has emerged from a variety of sources in evidence to the Review as an extremely important one because of concerns about a number of issues affecting the quality of leadership in schools. In the government sector, current merit-based promotion systems clearly do not of themselves provide the necessary guarantee of leadership quality sought by teachers or the community. Nor do they support sufficiently the career development pathways valued by teachers. Equally, educational leadership in the non-government sector is not linked to any explicit standards.

The Catholic school system has strengthened its eligibility requirements in terms of formal religious education qualifications for school leaders, but this has not been matched by strengthened criteria in other aspects of leadership, for example, educational or change management skills. Regardless of school sector, government or non-government, there is no requirement for the demonstration of high standards of competence in professional leadership prior to any aspiration to a significant senior position. Consequently, the quality of school leaders selected through current selection processes is dependent upon the skills of the interview panel and how well candidates put themselves forward.

There are also questions about the kind of professional leaders needed to take our schools into the future. Although accounting for resources and the day-to-day administration of schools are important, educational leadership must drive the management of schools, not administrative competence.

In any event, sound educational leadership requires a real understanding of what can be achieved within available resources, and particularly a linking of curriculum to costs. Principals require the fullest possible understandings about the relationship between educational and financial management.

Research\(^\text{219}\) shows that taken collectively, postgraduate programs in educational administration have little influence on the effectiveness of schools, nor are they perceived by prospective principals to prepare them to be successful pedagogical

leaders, able to improve student learning in their school. In Australia, universities point to the introduction of fees for postgraduate coursework programs as the reason for the dramatic downturn in the number of teachers undertaking them. However, these same factors have not affected the uptake of similar courses in the business and information technology fields. If the courses were sufficiently relevant, and had their graduates been able to influence schooling outcomes and demonstrate enhanced leadership capacity, then they would have remained attractive to teachers irrespective of issues related to the Higher Education Contribution Scheme. Further the employers may have been more likely to support these courses.

The standards setting out expectations of school leaders need to give the highest priority to those aspects of professional leadership which impact on curriculum, pedagogy, and teaching strategies designed to support effective classroom management. Educational leaders must be able to extend teachers and to challenge and change their practices. They must be capable of building collaborative and supportive cultures in schools while maintaining a constant focus on improvement. Most importantly, professional leaders must be able to adapt the schools they lead to changing educational and societal circumstances.

Professional standards must be the basis of accreditation. This does not mean that the same standards should apply to all teachers. The teaching requirements of an early childhood setting are different from those of middle schooling, which are different again from those of the post-compulsory years and from the TAFE system or a university setting. Similarly, the subject and pedagogic knowledge, skill and understanding required for teaching English differ from those required for science or business studies. If professional accreditation is to have meaning, it should be capable of appropriately reflecting the different skills required of teachers in different work settings. One model for addressing these priorities is set out in Figure 8.1.

The model provides an outline of how teachers might be accredited at the three stages in different teaching contexts. While the previous discussion has focused primarily on the needs of teachers in primary and secondary schools, consideration must be given to structures which enable full-time teachers operating in other environments – universities, TAFE, casual or contract teachers in schools, or those simply engaged in entrepreneurial activities – to be also accredited. They should have the opportunity to be accredited as members of the profession.

During the course of the Review, this proposal was discussed with Professor Linda Darling-Hammond of Stanford University, who participated in the development of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards in the United States. She was of the opinion that provided it was implemented with appropriate rigour, the accreditation framework proposed has the potential to lead sooner to broader coverage of the profession and to focus more explicitly on developmental as opposed to aspirational goals than did the National Board model.

The awards of the Institute of Teachers should be of high status: a badge worn with pride. As is the practice in other professions, teachers should be able to list their Advanced Practising Teacher (APT) standing amongst their academic qualifications and be included with them as an honorific.

Equally, provision needs to be made so that those working towards teaching qualifications are able to join the Institute of Teachers as Student Associates if they are in training. Those working as teachers towards APT-I accreditation should be able to join the Institute as Graduate Associate members. The word ‘graduate’ is intended to refer to any person who has fulfilled the content requirements for teaching, whether they are preparing to work in TAFE, schools or other settings, as well as those who have fulfilled the requirements to graduate as a teacher.

Given the changing nature of the teacher’s role, and knowledge about their craft, accreditation cannot be a lifetime endorsement of professional standing. It will therefore be necessary for the Institute of Teachers to determine requirements for maintenance of accreditation, but a period between five and ten years seems reasonable when precedents in teaching and in other professions are considered.

The questions of recognition of professional status and consequential rewards are also important. In the context of broad employment trends in the community, it is no longer sustainable that teachers simply be paid more for waiting. Nor is it sustainable that employers of teachers require them to undertake further development without appropriate recognition and reward.
Accreditation means formal recognition of teachers who are able to demonstrate high standards of knowledge, and understanding of their subject(s) and the pedagogic skills to teach it.

1. **Accredited Practising Teachers - Level 1** would be required to demonstrate competence in a specific teaching subject/area to students at one stage of schooling.
   - **Specific teaching subject/areas for accreditation**

2. **Accredited Practising Teachers - Level 2** would be required to demonstrate:
   - development and growth in the area in which they are accredited
   - the development of knowledge, understanding and skill in a specialised area.

   - **Specialised accreditation areas.**

3. **Accredited Practising Teachers - Level 3** would be required to demonstrate educational leadership, particularly in their contribution to the development of other teachers.
   - **Demonstrate professional leadership, particularly amongst peers.**

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![Figure 8.1: Proposed accreditation framework](image-url)
It is therefore proposed that employers in negotiating salary structures with unions align them with the proposed system of professional recognition. An example of how such an alignment might work is shown in Figure 8.2. It is proposed that the points of accreditation should represent standards to be attained to enable salary progression. Teachers may not progress further unless they have met the required standard.

One difficulty that will need to be confronted is that both the Early Childhood and TAFE sectors are subject to requirements of other jurisdictions. The Early Childhood sector is subject to the requirements of the Department of Community Services, whereas teachers employed by TAFE NSW and other vocational education and training providers, as well as those teaching vocational education and training courses in schools, are subject to the requirements of the Australian Recognition Framework.

As employers of these teachers are increasingly becoming Registered Training Organisations, teachers are required to have a combination of educational and vocational qualifications as well as industry experience to ensure that the training they deliver is current and relevant to industry and students.

Ironically, while not always being as highly regarded as teachers of the more established disciplines, these teachers are in the vanguard for being formally required to maintain the continuing relevance of their knowledge and skills. Some consideration should be given also to strategies to enable especially talented teachers to fast track through the system so that their development and advancement is not held back by the old concept of ‘serving time’.

The fast tracking of good teachers through a standards framework managed by the profession is to be encouraged. In both public and private sectors of teacher employment there is too little opportunity for the most skilled practitioners to be rewarded for their superior skills.

An alternative to such an alignment of salary with accreditation status could be the payment of a salary bonus to teachers meeting accreditation requirements, either as a one-off payment or as an additional salary increment as is the case in the system currently being implemented in England. In addition to salary adjustments, the standards and awards should underpin selection criteria for appointments to teaching and promotions positions in schools.
Appropriate industrial transition arrangements for the introduction of such schemes will need to be agreed by the parties. Such arrangements should seek to encourage talented young teachers to grow professionally and to seek advancement, while paying due regard to the existing rights and responsibilities of older teachers. It may well be that a dual system would operate over a transition period. A requirement for the Institute of Teachers to provide independent advice to the Government on possible transition arrangements should be included in the initial remit for the Institute.

When the system is in place, it is expected that any school or educational setting would have a profile across the GTA, APT-1, APT-2, and APT-3 levels. School accountability should require the school to describe regularly its teacher profile. Figure 8.3 provides an indicative guide to the likely profile of graduate teachers in the state. For each 100 graduate teachers it is expected that 80 would have attained APT-1 status, 30 APT-2 and 10 APT-3 status.

Professional and ethical standards for teachers

As noted in the earlier discussion, a number of models articulating professional standards for teachers has been developed. Whatever forms these standards have taken, they represent mediated and peer-tested constructs based on the prevailing view of what good teaching should be like.

It is inappropriate for this Review to outline any particular set of standards, as these are for the profession to determine through the proposed Institute of Teachers. Yet there is a clear need to develop standards for the future. Dressing up 20th century practices in new clothes will be insufficient to meet the needs of the 21st century. Teachers need to be able to model the skills and behaviours they seek to build in their students. Increasingly, these will concern entrepreneurial, marketing and information communication skills. Nonetheless, a system of professional accreditation that establishes parameters for the development of professional standards specific to the range of contexts in which teachers work has been outlined. The Institute of Teachers should base its development of standards on contexts akin to these. That is, develop standards for attainment of APT-1, APT-2 and APT-3 status.

As there is much available, both nationally and internationally, on which to build a system of standards, some general principles or parameters are provided to guide the work of the proposed Institute of Teachers, within the context of clearly defined objectives and tasks.

■ First, the Institute should establish a clear purpose for professional teaching standards. This purpose must be primarily concerned with providing a framework to foster the continuing professional growth of teachers and an enhancement of the learning outcomes of their students.

Anything less would be a wasted opportunity to build on the high level of community expectation for improvement that currently exists.

■ Second, the Institute should establish achievable goals for the development and assessment of the standards.

Clearly, New South Wales has neither the time nor the financial resources needed to replicate the process used by the National Board in the United States. There is much good work in other places to build upon. The Level 3 classroom teacher competency project in Western Australia, for example, represents another model that has taken less time and requires fewer resources to implement. With the recent decision in Victoria to establish an Institute of Teaching, an opportunity for joint work with that body may be possible.

■ Third, the Institute should develop standards capable of articulating achievable expectations of teachers rather than simply providing lists of teacher responsibilities.

The generic teaching standards framework identified in Towards Identifying Professional Teaching Standards for New South Wales Schools, appears to have some support among teachers and teacher educators within this State. This framework provides an organiser for the development of standards specific to particular learning areas within the stages of learning identified by the Review.

■ Fourth, the Institute should select appropriate models of teacher learning and development from which to develop the standards.

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During the course of the Review, four models of teacher development were identified in the research literature:

- behaviourist-competence models
- novice-expert models
- concerns-based models
- cognitive models, primarily those based on the SOLO (Structure of Observed Learning Outcomes) taxonomy.

Standards developed for particular levels of teaching competence should reflect fully best practice models of teacher development. Unless teacher learning reflects the practices we seek to engender for students, professional teaching standards will have little impact on how well students learn.

Fifth, the Institute should establish efficient methods of assessing whether teachers have met the standards of performance underpinning the recognition system.

Examples where teachers were tested were considered, but found wanting, particularly on a cost-benefit basis. Generally, such tests were too simplistic to drive the improvements sought. The methods of assessment selected must be valid and reliable, cost-effective in terms of time and resources and capable of broad scale application if the majority of teachers are to attain the basic APT-1 standard. Examples of portfolios submitted to peer review in other contexts were presented to the Review. They may provide one avenue for further exploration. Their critical benefit is that they provide both formative and summative feedback to teachers presenting for recognition.

One submission provided a conceptual map of the development of a professional teacher – beginning with the potential teacher developing an interest in teaching who eventually becomes an accomplished superior teacher 221. This concept has been taken up and aligned with the stages of accreditation and possible evidence to be presented for accreditation in Figure 8.4.

Sixth, the Institute should consult widely within and across the profession to secure professional ownership of the standards.

Since standards will impact on every teacher in New South Wales, they must be given every opportunity to contribute to their development. Broad and meaningful consultation, with opportunities for evaluation and revision will be needed. The process of developing standards has to be the beginning of a professional conversation about the role, practices, responsibilities and values of teachers.

Seventh, the Institute should determine requirements for maintenance of accreditation and establish procedures for disaccrediting those deemed not to be upholding the standards and ethical values of the profession.

Accreditation implies an assurance that a teacher’s professional practice meets certain quality standards and is consistent with the ethical principles the profession seeks to uphold. As in other professions, the Institute of Teachers will need to establish procedures for dealing with complaints of professional malpractice.

These could arise from failure to maintain the expected teaching standards, inappropriate or unprofessional behaviour, or failure to apply due diligence with regard to statutory obligations for the care of students. The Institute would need also to establish fair procedures for review of decisions to disaccredit teachers.

Disaccreditation or failure to gain accreditation need not mean loss of employment. In the case of those teachers disaccredited for failure to maintain teaching standards, they could be allowed to continue to teach provided employers institute appropriate supervisory and developmental procedures for dealing with those teachers who fail to reach expected standards after a period of support.

The question of professional ethics is another that should be addressed by the Institute of Teachers to establish principles which provide a basis for ethical decision making and set out the social contract the profession makes with the community.

In this increasingly complex world, the moral dilemmas facing teachers are no less than those confronting doctors or engineers. Yet, little importance has been given to establishing a code of ethics to guide teachers’ actions and practice. Commonly, codes of ethics set out guidelines for behaviour expected by employers. They need to do more.

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## Figure 8.4 Stages of professional growth and sources of evidence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages in the development of a professional teacher</th>
<th>Typical activities</th>
<th>Documentation for certification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Admission into an initial teacher education program | ■ Preparing evidence of scholastic achievements, portfolios and references  
■ Attending selection interviews | ■ HSC result  
■ Suitability selection process  
■ Portfolio quality |
| 2. Completion of an accredited teacher education program - leading to Associate membership of the Institute of Teachers | ■ Content preparation befitting a knowledge profession  
■ Developing appropriate pedagogical knowledge and skills  
■ Developing relevant competencies as demonstrated through adequate professional experience in school. | ■ Meeting accreditation requirements  
■ Presenting valid qualifications |
| 3. Development of teaching competence - leading to award of APT-1 of the Institute of Teachers | ■ Undertaking induction and professional development  
■ Receiving mentoring  
■ Developing a reflective portfolio | ■ Presenting a reflective portfolio  
■ Supervisor assessment against agreed standards using the reflective portfolio |
| 4. Continuing professional growth - leading to award of APT-2 of the Institute of Teachers | ■ Providing mentoring  
■ Developing a reflective portfolio  
■ Undertaking professional development and postgraduate studies in an area of teaching speciality  
■ Undertaking leadership responsibilities | ■ Presenting a reflective portfolio  
■ Presenting evidence of superior teaching  
■ Presenting postgraduate qualifications  
■ External and supervisor assessment against agreed standards using reflective portfolio |
| 5. Demonstration of appropriate professional activity leading to award of APT-3 of the Institute of Teachers | ■ Participation in programs of leadership development  
■ Acting in leadership positions | ■ Presenting evidence of superior teaching and leadership capacity through a reflective portfolio and other forms of evidence  
■ External and supervisor assessment against agreed standards |
Recommendation 2

That in the development of professional teaching standards the Institute of Teachers:

- establish, articulate and promulgate a clear purpose for such standards
- establish effective processes for the development, validation and assessment of such standards based on appropriate models of teacher development
- make the standards simple, transparent and easily accessible to all teachers
- consult widely to ensure ownership of and commitment to such standards by teachers
- determine requirements for teachers to maintain their accreditation or to be disaccredited if they do not fulfil the required performance and ethical standards.

Recommendation 3

That the standards established by the Institute of Teachers be the basis for a staged accreditation system for practising teachers at three levels:

- professional competence
  (Accredited Practising Teacher 1)
- professional specialisation
  (Accredited Practising Teacher 2)
- professional leadership
  (Accredited Practising Teacher 3).

Initial teacher education

Focusing on outcomes of programs of initial teacher education may not guarantee that beginning teachers are being adequately prepared to undertake the teaching for which they were prepared.

During the course of the Review, it became apparent that if preparedness for teaching was the criterion applied in any explicit sense to answer the question whether university programs were satisfactory, schools where new graduates were employed would be hard to convince that they were. In the opinion of schools the quality of graduates of programs of teacher education is highly variable. There are five factors to be considered in the establishment of an external framework for endorsing courses of initial preparation:

- the specific content and standards for courses
- the priority and support given to teacher education within the university
- the opportunities for professional practice within the program
- the processes for assessing the quality of the programs
- any arrangements for the certification of those completing a program of teacher education which enables them to teach in specific subjects or particular age groups of students.

The first three factors concern criteria to be applied to the external endorsement of programs. The fourth relates to the assessment of programs against these criteria, and the fifth to the implications for individuals.

The term endorsement of courses is used here rather than accreditation to draw a distinction between the accreditation of teachers and the endorsement of courses. Endorsement is intended to be no less rigorous or to have less authority than the accreditation processes in other professional domains.

On the first issue, of content and standards, decisions about courses and programs are largely a matter for universities within any guidelines which might be established by the proposed Institute of Teachers. What is more important is that the program produces graduates with the knowledge, skills, understanding and values expected of beginning teachers. These ought not be expressed in terms of exposure to particular courses, but in terms of the standards achieved by graduates of the program.

Endorsing providers of teacher education

Given the almost universal support in advice to the Review for it to recommend the formal endorsement of programs of initial teacher education, the question again becomes one of how rather than whether this should be undertaken. Less attention was paid in submissions, however, to the strategies for endorsing continuing teacher education programs. Endorsement mechanisms for programs of teacher education, in all of their forms, will only have validity if there is some focus on the outcomes of the courses. This section deals with initial and continuing teacher education separately.
The Australian Council of Deans’ report, *Preparing a Profession: Report of the National Standards and Guidelines for Initial Teacher Education Project*, offers one model of such a standards framework which might be considered. Others of considerable validity include those of the Ontario College of Teachers and the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) established in the United States. New South Wales has already progressed down this pathway to some extent with the development of the *Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers*.

On the second issue, an earlier discussion in chapter 5 notes that the priority given to teacher education varies across universities. Some programs that were highly regarded in the past by the profession seem to be struggling for survival.

One university seems to be in the process of withdrawing from teacher education. Others were following past traditions clearly unrelated to many of the activities currently occurring in classrooms. Too often there has been considerable transfer of resources out of teacher education to fund other areas of the university deemed more important, and at a time when demand for graduates, particularly of secondary programs, was rising.

In too many universities teacher education appeared to be given low status and was of limited importance to the future of the university. Despite students being their lifeblood, teaching and the preparation of good school teachers who in turn will be able to produce competent university entrants, has too often been seen as less important than, for example, research.

There has been reduced emphasis given to the professional experience of beginning teachers, which has widened the gap between teachers in schools and teacher educators. Although funding constraints were often raised as the reason for this, more important is the priority given in the total course to such activities.

Concern with these issues caused the Reviewer to write to university vice-chancellors seeking their response to the assertion that the provision of teacher education varies widely in relation to such characteristics as the following:

- the extent of support from university administrators
- the clarity of purpose as evident in the universities strategic plan
- the strength of leadership to deliver the visionary programs needed
- a capacity to be better positioned in the market through seeking new solutions rather than looking to recipes of the past
- the extent of the involvement of the whole university in course provision
- the relationship which exists between the university and the major employers of teachers
- the extent to which the needs of rural and regional New South Wales and Western Sydney are met
- the leadership shown in working with professional teacher associations.

The letter went on to suggest that:

Those [universities] which best meet these or similar criteria are likely to be those which will provide teacher education programs most suited to preparing teachers for New South Wales.

The Review supports strongly the sentiment expressed in *To Touch the Future*, that those universities not prepared to give the highest priority to teacher education should withdraw from the field. If universities hold the key to effective development of this country, as is often asserted, it is a point for major debate, not yet held, whether better teachers or enhanced research is more important. Both are critically important.

The third issue relates to the quality of professional experience provided for beginning teachers. The evidence indicates that the current difficulties associated with funding the practicum have led to the perception that the professional experience component is a supplementary rather than a central element of the program of professional preparation for teachers. Consequently, roles and responsibilities for the clinical elements of the professional experience component are unclear. In many cases, students

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report that the professional experience component of their teacher education program prepared them poorly for teaching.

The proposal of a triple focus for external endorsement – on the standards and outcomes of the course, the level of university support, and the opportunities for professional experience – represents a new approach to assessing quality in teacher education. Nonetheless, the importance of teacher education and the intricate way in which it is bound up in a range of discipline areas across the university, and to a lesser extent within schools, provide strong imperatives for including all three emphases within the external endorsement framework.

The fourth issue concerns the evidential basis for the endorsement of teacher education courses. Clearly, paper-accreditation strategies reliant on submissions of course information are insufficient to address the concerns about the quality of graduate outcomes.

The currency given nationally in the United States to teachers achieving National Board accreditation is ‘performance-based’. In the context of accreditation standards released recently by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, performance-based accreditation means that universities must demonstrate “that their graduates can successfully teach children”\(^{224}\). This shifts the emphasis of accreditation from “what a college offers and what its curriculum is” to whether students are adequately prepared for teaching.

In the New South Wales environment, there would be substantial benefit to be gained from linking external endorsement of programs to the employment and professional outcomes of their graduates. This would require employers and universities to take greater responsibility for the success of new teacher graduates, following employment. For example, a university should be required to certify that each teacher education graduate was adequately prepared to begin classroom teaching. Gaining a university award and approval to teach should be treated as separate issues.

Under such a proposal, universities would have a greater stake in the success of their new graduates, and schools and school systems would be held more accountable for the success of their induction programs.

The fifth issue concerns how to determine whether the particular program followed by an individual student meets acceptable requirements for teaching within a specific context. Additionally, consideration needs to be given to where the authority for certifying the appropriateness of a qualification or course resides. Clearly, individual students will undertake a wide range of academic studies within their course of preparation. The responsibility for determining the appropriateness of these studies within the Department of Education and Training falls within the current role and responsibilities of the Teacher Qualifications Advisory Panel and the Department’s Personnel Operations Directorate.

Such endorsement or certification should be required of all prospective teachers. While schools will not be restricted from employing people to teach who do not have adequate professional or academic preparation, they should be prepared to place such information on record. The community has a right to know whether their teachers meet acceptable standards. Given the proposed role of the Institute of Teachers in developing professional standards for practising teachers and for teacher education, it should also establish guidelines to assist in decisions about whether particular qualifications meet the standard expected of teachers seeking initial employment. Such guidelines would apply to new graduates, to those seeking to enter teaching from other forms of employment, and to overseas trained teachers.

One critical user of the current course approval process is the university sector. Universities are reliant on the Department of Education and Training’s endorsement of a student’s undergraduate course as meeting the requirements of teachers of particular subjects. This information is required prior to accepting an enrolment in a course of professional preparation. For example, is a sub-major in mathematical statistics sufficient preparation to enable the student to teach senior secondary mathematics? Understandably, and for legal reasons, universities are reluctant to allow students to enrol in a course of professional preparation which may not lead to employment.

Universities should be empowered to undertake this assessment according to guidelines agreed by the universities with the Institute of Teachers. In all other cases, the Institute of Teachers should either undertake the assessment or contract it out to a university or other body to undertake it on its behalf.

\(^{224}\) A. Bradley, NCATE unveils standards based on performance, Education Week, 24 May 2000.
little focus in current professional development provision
on the continuing education needs of individual teachers.
The majority of professional development programs are
focused on the requirements of systems and schools.
Although teachers benefit from school-based development,
the focus is on collective improvement rather than
individual improvement. Of course, these can go together,
but the effect on the individual in the end is what lasts.
An important consequence of the establishment of a
professional accreditation framework, however, is that it
focuses on the need to give priority to strategies which
provide for and recognise the professional growth of
teachers.
While many valuable informal opportunities for profess-
ional development will continue to occur, new oppor-
tunities and directions will arise out of the establishment
of the accreditation framework. Teachers must be
supported to progress through the framework. Where
substantial professional learning is required, this should be
externally endorsed.
Part of professional growth implies both a vision and an
appreciation of future direction and change. As discussed
in chapter 5, the current continuing professional develop-
ment system, while responding to immediate curriculum and
system needs and priorities, fails to give teachers a true
indication of how they can construct a framework to
develop their own professionalism.
Therefore, if the goal of professionalisation of the teaching
sector is to be achieved there needs to be a consistent and
coherent framework of professional development provision,
from which teachers may select. The Institute of Teachers
should have a central role in developing a coherent
view about how professional development should be
constructed, improved and offered.
The Institute should also have a role in the endorse-
manship of such programs to provide frameworks for assisting
professional development providers better to meet the
emerging needs of teachers.
Continuing teacher education
During the course of the Review, two issues became
particularly apparent in relation to continuing teacher
education.
First, there are no mechanisms for endorsing the range of
continuing education programs offered by the universities,
employers and other providers both public and private. In
the absence of any formal recognition system, course
providers, other than the universities and TAFE NSW,
sought endorsement from the Vocational Education and
Training Accreditation Board (VETAB). This raises the
larger issue of how programs of continuing education for
teachers are endorsed. Although universities are self-
accrediting under the Australian Qualifications Framework,
apart from the Vocational Education and Training Accreditation Board, there are no mechanisms to endorse
non-university providers of initial or continuing teacher
education, excepting those wishing to offer degrees. This
is a concern.
Second, as noted in the discussions of evidence about
teacher professional development in Chapter 5, there is

Recommendation 4
That the Institute of Teachers:
- establish standards and processes for the endorse-
ment of programs of initial teacher education to
prepare teachers for New South Wales schools, setting
out the outcomes expected of graduates in subject
content, pedagogy and ethics
- establish standards for the provision of the profes-
sonal experience component of initial teacher
education, including standards for the supervision
and mentoring of student teachers
- in the assessment process, take account of the priority
given by the university to teacher education
- develop processes and criteria for reporting on
the employment and professional outcomes of
graduates from courses of teacher education in New
South Wales and elsewhere
- develop criteria for certifying and recording indi-
vidual student completions of endorsed programs.
teaching in their fields. It would be appropriate for these associations to become part of the Institute of Teachers: in many ways they should form the core of this professional body.

**Recommendation 5**

That the Institute of Teachers establish processes and procedures for the endorsement of programs of continuing teacher education, consistent with the stages of the accreditation system for individual teachers.

**Accreditation of schools**

During the course of the Review the issue of school accreditation was raised in a number of contexts.

Some in government schools saw the need for a form of external validation of the achievements and directions of schools. These comments were generally expressed in the terms of the professional vacuum that had resulted from the abolition of the inspectorate in the government school system, the seeming inadequacy of subsequent accountability and quality assurance strategies to completely fill the gap, and the lack of any strong accountability system for many non-government schools, with the exception perhaps of Catholic systemic schools.

Others saw the need to externalise accountability arrangements for schools, perceiving that this would avoid any potential conflict of interest.

There were comments pointing to accreditation practices in other sectors; including health, aged care and early childhood. In most instances, for example in long daycare centres, these accreditation requirements are greater than the current requirements for schools.

Other comments referred to the responsibilities of the Board of Studies for registering and accrediting non-government schools. These responsibilities relate primarily to monitoring the school curriculum, the standard of facilities and qualifications of supervising teachers. It is interesting to note, in the context of this Review’s focus on pedagogy, that the responsibility for registering and accrediting schools is vested within the Curriculum Branch of the Board of Studies. As distinct from registration, Board accreditation is essentially a mechanism for approving a school’s provision as being adequate for presenting students for the School Certificate and the Higher School Certificate.

Given the focus of this Review on raising the quality of teachers and teaching, and as a consequence the quality of student learning, a significant factor in achieving this goal is the steps schools take to raise teacher quality. In these circumstances it must be concluded that schools, as entities, have a core responsibility for the quality of teachers and teaching within their jurisdiction. Accreditation is one way of giving meaning to this responsibility. There are two possible approaches.

The first is to implement procedures to accredit all schools on the basis of the degree to which the school is able to demonstrate or is focused on quality improvement. This is a common approach in other service sectors, such as hospitals and long daycare centres. Such an approach would see the programs, processes and achievements of schools as being assessed against agreed quality improvement principles.

This approach to accreditation could be implemented either as a voluntary or mandatory provision. It is worth noting, despite the current accreditation processes for hospitals being voluntary, almost all do seek accreditation. For them accreditation provides a way to benchmark and analyse their performance. In the early childhood sector, however, accreditation by the Department of Community Services of long daycare centres is mandatory. Those centres that fail to be accredited have all government funding and subsidies withdrawn.

An accreditation process of this type, which focuses on affirming and improving quality, would appeal to those schools that have already sought quality endorsement against the ISO 9000 standards. Schools that implement ISO 9000 voluntarily are doing so because they expect the standards to help them to do things better.

There is some support for the view that all schools, including government schools, should be subject to such accreditation. This support arises partly from the perception that current registration and accreditation requirements discriminate against non-government schools. Significant opposition has been raised by non-government schools to the issue of teacher registration, primarily on the basis that it restricts those who might work in schools. As
stated previously, there is no intention in this Review’s proposals to restrict opportunities for people to work in schools who have the capacity to make significant contributions to student learning.

Nonetheless, if such accreditation were to be mandated, both government and non-government schools should be required to report annually on their teachers, including their qualifications and progress towards professional accreditation and the classes they teach. Parents, students and the community deserve no less. Schools should be able to justify to their communities their actions about any staff they appoint.

An entirely different approach would be to accredit institutions to undertake particular programs, or offer various services. Broadly, the Board of Studies accreditation requirements fit into this category. However, if teacher development is at the heart of accreditation, then schools could be accredited also for their capacity to provide for the professional growth of teachers.

This could apply, particularly, to those schools wishing to enter contractual arrangements with universities as sites for the provision of professional experience for student teachers. This would set these schools apart as places where beginning teachers can be supported, supervised, mentored and developed to a standard which meets the profession’s expectations.

Such accreditation would provide assurance to the university of the school’s capacity to provide effective professional experiences. For the school, the recognition provided by accreditation of the form, ‘Blue Hills Primary School – Accredited as a Teacher Development School by the Institute of Teachers and Greater University’, would be a significant affirmation of the teaching quality of the school. Moreover, it would be an advantage in the current environment where many parents have a significant level of interest in the quality of educational provision.

By its very nature, such accreditation would be voluntary, but in the example provided there would be major benefits to the school from a close relationship with a university in terms of professional support and research capability. Despite the voluntary nature of such accreditation it will be necessary for employers to devote considerable resources and energy to supporting sufficient schools to attain such accreditation in order to meet demand for student teacher places.

Given the Review’s support for enhancing the professionalism of teachers and teaching, there are strong arguments for vesting responsibility for accreditation of schools for teacher development purposes with the Institute of Teachers.

The Reviewer believes that there is merit in both forms of accreditation: for all schools, and for schools with specific responsibility. Nonetheless, it is unlikely that in the short-term both can be achieved concurrently.

A staged approach, which as a priority requires the Institute of Teachers to work with universities on procedures for accrediting those schools offering professional experience for beginning teachers, is favoured. Consideration could be given to the merits of mandating the accreditation of all schools when this proposal is in place. This might proceed incrementally, commencing with accreditation of schools for specific purposes. For example, accrediting schools to provide special education, or accrediting technology, performing arts and sports high schools or even selective high schools. Ultimately, all schools, government and non-government, would be accredited, not in terms of the appropriateness of their curriculum and facilities, but in terms of their focus on quality improvement and the standards they reach.

The difficulty for the Government in mandating accreditation for all schools is not so much the magnitude of the task, but rather the sanctions which could be imposed on schools that do not meet requirements.

In the case of non-government schools the answer could simply be to withhold government funds. Such solutions are not currently available in the government school sector in New South Wales. There are numerous examples, however, in the United States and England where governments have simply closed so-called ‘failing’ schools.

If, however, responsibility for accreditation of government schools was external to the Department of Education and Training, then the apparent conflict of interest, identified previously, is resolved. External accreditation would enable the Department to focus on its responsibility to support and improve schools, as distinct from also monitoring them. The non-government sector separates the two more clearly.
Recommendation 6

That the New South Wales Government require the Institute of Teachers to:

- work with universities and relevant school systems to develop jointly criteria, processes and procedures for the accreditation of those schools providing professional experience for student teachers
- advise on the possible merit of, and options for, the eventual accreditation of all schools where quality educational practices can be certified
- maintain jointly with the universities a registry of accredited schools.

8.3 Establishing an Australian Graduate School of Teaching (AGST)

As discussed in chapter 5, it was apparent during the course of the Review that in comparison with other professions there is generally little importance attached in teaching to postgraduate studies or education beyond initial training. While many individual teachers have undertaken postgraduate education or studies subsequent to their initial training, their commitment and effort is, commonly, not valued by their colleagues or employers. In fact, comments indicated, rather than achievements being celebrated, their efforts were ignored.

Although those undertaking postgraduate studies would appear to do so for a number of reasons, not the least being to further their own intellectual and professional development, the outcomes arising from completion of such courses are too often unclear.

Many who have postgraduate qualifications would find it difficult to indicate any explicit valuing of their experiences and development, either by their colleagues or their employers. Indeed, the experience of many who take a break from school to complete further study is that their career actually goes backwards until they are able to re-establish themselves as teachers. Their colleagues point, however, to the very limited impact of their studies on their professional practice.

This is not the situation that pertains in other fields of endeavour. In business, for example, those people who attain a Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree are generally highly valued, as the knowledge and skills that the course develops are seen to be applicable directly to the employment situation. It is this direct link between the course outcomes and employment that is valued, and one of the prime reasons why the MBA programs in Australian universities have been so successful.

In other fields, postgraduate study links more directly with professional recognition. This is the situation in medicine or law where further study is linked to specialisation.

The decreasing involvement of teachers in postgraduate teacher education can be reversed through courses more closely related to the needs of teachers and teaching, and consequently greater valuing of their outcomes by the profession and employers. The number of teachers currently engaging in coursework postgraduate studies has fallen significantly since the introduction of fees for such courses. In many universities the numbers of teachers undertaking such studies has declined to the level where the viability of the courses is being questioned. Several clusters of universities are considering collaborative offerings, where each contributes part of the course. Online learning modes have increased significantly opportunities for teachers to select course offerings from a range of institutions.

It is in this context that a proposal to establish an Australian Graduate School of Teaching (AGST) in New South Wales to fulfil a function in education much like graduate schools of business or management do for the commercial world is made. There are also several overseas precedents for the establishment of a high quality, world-class graduate teaching school. The Ontario Institute of Studies in Education is one precedent, and the London Institute of Education is another. This year the government of Denmark established a Danish University for Education, a graduate-only university with a strong research base. A consortium of interests could be brought to bear to establish a high quality graduate school of teaching focused on supporting the needs of teachers and teaching.

This graduate school should be established as an incorporated entity, supported by the Institute of Teachers, to work

with school systems, employers of teachers, and a consortium of universities to deliver graduate programs for teachers.

In the establishment of the Australian Graduate School of Teaching, (AGST) the base resources currently used for graduate teacher education by those universities interested in the proposal could be applied. These would be supplemented by employers and others interested in improving teaching standards.

A basic requirement would be to have the support of the Commonwealth Government for the School’s establishment because in effect it removes resources and part of the graduate role from direct university control. Nonetheless, such an approach is seen as the best way for effective and innovative graduate education to be provided for teachers.

Although there will be significant questions to answer with respect to funding of course provision, this should not deter planning for the establishment of the AGST. Some funding will come from course fees while other funds will come from employers and the universities involved in the consortium.

There may be opportunities also to provide full-fee paying courses for overseas students, as is the case with the graduate management courses. As with graduate schools of management, employers will have to make a significant contribution.

Australia needs at least one world-class organisation of this kind, and corporate support is critical to the development of a professional school dedicated to the continuing education of teachers, coupled with appropriate research into pedagogy.

A failure to bring in new staff regularly and to keep at the forefront of development and innovation will result in a decline in academic and professional standing. Consequently, a large proportion of staff of the AGST should be appointed on limited tenure or on secondment from their substantive positions, both in universities and in schools. The activities of the Australian Graduate School of Teaching must be firmly embedded in schools and be dedicated to meeting the professional needs of teachers.

Recommendation 7

That a taskforce be formed to provide advice to the Government on the structures, partnerships and resources required to establish an Australian Graduate School of Teaching in New South Wales. The taskforce should include nominees of the Institute of Teachers, employers of teachers and vice-chancellors of universities interested in the proposal.

8.4 Conclusion

This chapter provides the key recommendations on which the implementation of the proposals for the reform of teacher education relies. They are predominantly concerned with mechanisms for ensuring quality and are founded on the belief that for too long there has been no professional voice to address quality issues in teaching.

While the Government and the employers of teachers can support quality and provide the conditions for it to flourish, in the end the profession itself must establish standards of practice and advise on how its needs may best be met. It is from effective teachers that good teaching comes and they need to be given the right, the responsibility and the means of improving their practice throughout their careers.

The recommendations are holistic and address long-standing issues. They have the capacity to remould the image and reality of teaching from being a mass profession into becoming a quality profession, and one which reflects and values the quality of its practice and service.

Implemented in the spirit intended, the recommendations provide a means for individual teachers to take responsibility for their own development, and to be recognised for their performance and achievements. The development of standards against which teachers, courses of teacher education and schools could be assessed would constitute a major step towards providing the guarantees of quality the wider community is seeking. In the process, teaching will be revitalised and student learning will be significantly enhanced.