

AUSTRALIA, CANADA, AND NEW ZEALAND

Background to INSET

This review of INSET in Australia, Canada and New Zealand is mainly based upon several reports and case studies which were compiled as part of a major project carried out by the Centre for Education Research and Innovation (CERI) at the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in Paris. Publications which are part of this project are marked with an asterisk in the bibliography.

Purposes of INSET

The OECD study revealed that the term INSET was frequently used to mean different things even by people from the same country: there was, in other words, no agreement about the precise nature or definition of INSET. The final report concluded that "INSET is defined as those education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary school teachers and principals, following their initial professional certification, and intended mainly or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively." (Bolam 1981).

This definition was adopted because it appeared to reflect the main purposes to which INSET was actually being used, especially by governments and employing authorities. This is not to say that other definitions are without merit. Indeed, in order to provide a tool for analysing the purposes of any particular INSET policy or course, five possible main purposes can be distinguished:

- (a) Improving the job performance skills of the whole school staff or of groups of staff (e.g. a school focused INSET programme).

(b) Improving the job performance skills of an individual teacher (e.g. an induction programme for a beginning teacher).

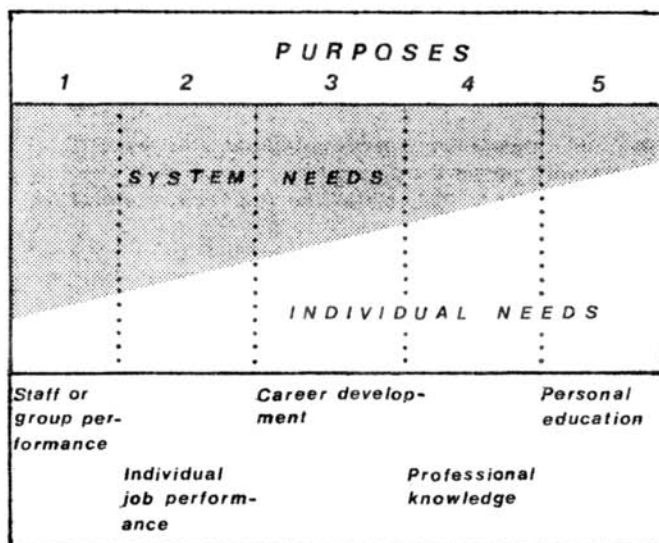
(c) Extending the experience of an individual teacher for career development or promotion purposes (e.g. a leader-training course).

(d) Developing the professional knowledge and understanding of an individual teacher (e.g. a Master's degree in educational studies).

(e) Extending the personal or general education of an individual (e.g. a Master's degree course not in education or a subject related to teaching).

Underlying this range of purposes is a potential conflict between the needs of individual teachers and those of employing authorities, as illustrated in Diagram 1.

Diagram 1: System and Individual Needs and the Purpose of INSET



Experience indicates that in most countries, including Australia, Canada and New Zealand, Purpose 1 is seen as most likely to satisfy the requirements of the government or employing authorities for meeting their needs, but least likely to meet the needs of individual teachers for self-fulfilment. On the other hand Purpose 5 is seen as most likely to satisfy the needs of the individual teacher but least likely to meet the needs of the system. Of course, in any one INSET programme the distinction will not be easily made because of overlapping goals, but it is nonetheless useful to distinguish between the primary or major purpose of an INSET course and its incidental outcomes. In general, it seems clear from the various reports including those from Australia, Canada and New Zealand that personal education, i.e. Purpose 5 is generally seen as an, albeit beneficial, incidental aim by both teachers and employers. Both teachers and employers support Purposes 1 and 2. Teachers support and attend INSET courses for career development (Purpose 3). The universities and professional teacher associations support the provision of professional knowledge for understanding (Purpose 4) and personal education (Purpose 5). Interestingly, teachers often attend INSET courses designed to improve professional knowledge (Purpose 4) in the hope that it will help them to achieve promotion (Purpose 3).

Priorities of INSET

The following educational problems and tasks, all of which have direct implications for INSET priorities, were frequently identified in the OECD study:

- (a) The curricular problems associated with the needs of the 13-16 age group.
- (b) The needs of special school populations, such as immigrant groups, multi-ethnic communities and disadvantaged rural communities.
- (c) The needs associated with particular subjects, notably science and mathematics, and student groups, notably those with special educational needs (i.e. variants on the main-streaming problem).

(d) The new demands on teachers caused by the radically changing nature of school-community relationships, for example:

- Relations between education and working life
- Renewed community demands for accountability related to educational standards and assessment.

(e) The curricular and organisational consequences of declining enrolments.

(f) The strategic need to provide adequate INSET for those with internal school management responsibilities.

(Bolan 1978, p.46)

All of them are relevant to Australia, Canada and New Zealand though, naturally they take different forms in each country. To take (b) as an example, in Canada the needs of teachers working on Indian reservations are pressing, in Australia it is teachers of Aborigines and, in the cities, teachers of the many European immigrants' children who take priority; in New Zealand priority may be given to teachers of Maori and Pacific Island children.

Costs of
INSET

One of the most important yet difficult aspects of INSET is that of obtaining reliable information about costs. Yet, if existing INSET resources are to be used sensibly, some reasonably clear account of the relative costs of different methods and approaches is essential. It appears to be the case that several countries have reached the stage of clarifying the major components in the total costs; this in itself represents a great step forward.

This is well illustrated in Australia where, the injection of Federal funds led to a massive increase in INSET at the state and regional levels and to a consequent concern over costs. Cameron (1978, p.21) distinguishes between four major types of recurrent costs and the average distribution of these for short courses and workshops:

(a) Assembly costs which include accommodation and travel costs.

(b) Replacement costs, which are for providing replacement or substitute teachers for participating teachers (60-65%).

(c) Clerical staff and the costs of general office supplies and postage (10-12%).

(d) Organisation costs, which cover lecturers' fees, materials and equipment for specific courses (8-12%).

Nevertheless, and perhaps surprisingly, there has been much less progress clarifying costing concepts than one might have expected. Two main reasons are suggested for this: first, the lack of agreement on definitions of in-service activities leads to confused cost analysis and, second, the many and varied providing agencies often adopt different cost and financing arrangements.

Underlying such costing and financial questions are basic ones about who pays and should pay for INSET in both terms of money and time. The bulk of in-service takes place in the teachers' own time rather than in school or employer time. This raises the vitally important question of the extent to which an education system should systematically ensure that employees obtain adequate refreshment and renewal during their careers. Moreover, it also raises questions about the nature of teachers' contracts and status within any one country. Should the contract include, for example, an element of in-service training as a right? In both Australia and New Zealand recent reports have recommended that teachers should receive a specified amount of time, i.e. five days every year and one term every seven years specifically for in-service training. The James Report in England recommended that three per cent of the teaching force should be on secondment for in-service training at any one time. The value judgements

which underlie these recommendations are somewhat unclear but, nonetheless, the recommendations do raise important policy issues for all countries.

Responsibility,
control and
co-ordination

The situation with respect to responsibility for and control and co-ordination of INSET varies between the three countries and even between different states and provinces within them.

Australia

In Australia, education is mainly a state concern in both primary and secondary sectors although the Catholic and independent sectors remain strong. Thus, almost 80 per cent of all school enrolments in the period 1976-78 were into government schools, 17 per cent were to Catholic schools and the remaining 4 per cent were to independent schools of various kinds. Each of the six state systems of primary and secondary education in Australia is administered by a Department of the State Government headed by the Director General responsible to a Minister of the Crown. These six state systems are quite highly centralised and integrated although in recent years a number of moves towards decentralisation have been made. In addition, there are two separate systems for the Australian capital territory and the Northern territory each of which is now the responsibility of the Federal Government. Moreover, despite the fact that schooling is the constitutional responsibility of the various states, there has been a considerable expansion of the role of the Federal Government in all education at all levels since the establishment of the Australian Schools Commission in 1973.

Initial teacher education is in many ways similar to the English and Scottish systems and consists of three and four year certificate degree courses at state colleges and universities. Primary teachers continue to obtain their qualification mainly from non-university institutions whereas the reverse is true of secondary teachers. Prior to 1973 the following weaknesses and deficiencies were widely thought to be characteristic of INSET provision in Australia:

- (a) Lack of overall resources (e.g. personnel, materials and time).
- (b) Unevenness of provision throughout the various states.
- (c) Unevenness of provision and opportunities for urban as opposed to rural teachers.
- (d) An absence of professional incentives and rewards.
- (e) An overall absence of clear cut policies and co-ordination arrangements.
- (f) An absence of research and strategic thinking about policy needs and resources.
- (g) Limited consultation by administrators and course organisers of the teachers whom the courses were intended to serve.
- (h) Lack of research and evaluation into INSET programmes.

The purpose of the Schools Commission's initiatives in INSET was to remedy these deficiencies by specifically funding qualitative and quantitative improvements in INSET across the whole country. This it did by providing funds to stimulate teacher as well as employer initiated INSET at state and local levels. This method of funding made possible the introduction of Education Centres and various forms of school focused INSET.

Recently, a major national enquiry (Auchmuty 1980) and several state level enquiries (e.g. Vickery 1980) have been carried out into teacher education and INSET has figured prominently in the various reports. For example, the national report recommended that each teacher should receive five days INSET each year and should be eligible for one term's release for INSET every seven years.

Canada

Canada is an enormous but sparsely populated country which is twice as large as the whole of Europe. Its population of 23½ million is concentrated in large cities with the rest dispersed in smaller towns and rural areas. Each of the ten provinces holds virtually exclusive responsibility for education and, under the 1867 British North America Act, operates quite autonomously from the Federal Government. Inevitably there are significant differences between provinces in some aspects of educational policy although there is considerable commonality of interest in the expansion of in-service activities as a means of implementing each province's curriculum guidelines.

Canadian teachers have access to a wide range of opportunities for INSET in each province. Each provincial Ministry of Education offers a number of courses to update teachers on curriculum development, experimental programmes and new pedagogical programmes, etc. In each province, in-service activities are also organised by regional administrative units and local school boards. Many provinces offer a specified number of days set aside as 'pupil-free' days and local and regional units often use these to mount workshops and other INSET activities. The extent of this small scale INSET activity is considerable, but it is very difficult to describe and quantify; nevertheless, it is very significant. So too, is the INSET provided by universities and, unusually, by teachers' professional organisations.

It is difficult to give other than a general description of INSET in Canada because of the essentially province-based nature of the system. It is, however, evident that there is a widespread and growing awareness of, and demand for INSET. For example, in May 1979 a national conference was organised in Vancouver to explore the contribution that INSET could make to school improvement during a period of declining enrolments and economic retrenchment (Wideen et al 1979).

New Zealand

In New Zealand in 1976 there were 19,300 primary teachers and 10,500 secondary teachers within the State education system. There was a wide range of provision for in-service education. These opportunities ranged from having a year's leave on full pay to complete a degree to attendance at a local course or a school based in-service day.

New Zealand's centralised education system has meant that the Department of Education plays a major role in providing INSET. At national level, an advisory committee on in-service training was established in 1961 with the major function of receiving suggestions from various group representatives for courses to be provided each year at the three national residential centres. At local district senior inspectors for both primary and secondary schools are responsible for in-service education in their districts. Education is accepted as an academic discipline in its own right and thus INSET of an academic nature is provided by the universities through specialist courses in education, administration, educational psychology and guidance.

Teachers and teacher organisations are represented on INSET planning committees at national, regional and local levels. The teacher organisations also have their own Refresher Course Committee and are therefore used to planning their own and central department courses. They also provide chairmen, speakers, discussion group leaders and demonstrators for their own INSET courses. The role of teachers' colleges in INSET over the past 20 years has been limited. Staff have been used as lecturers but increasingly, with the falling demand for teachers, it is evident that there are potential INSET provision resources in the colleges.

According to one writer, the strengths of the New Zealand system are that "The Department of Education, while not yet having made the clear statement of policy, has a major commitment to

the continuing education of teachers through calling its own extensive provision of courses, its policy of releasing teachers in school time, supplying relief teachers for the vacancy occurring in the classrooms; its financial support for academic study in the university and professional study and experience through in-service activities."

Since that paragraph was written, a major enquiry has been instituted and in the report which followed, in-service training and the induction of beginning teachers received considerable prominence. The essence of its proposals was that teacher education should be planned as a 'continual process from initial preparation through induction and onto in-service training with the co-operation and resources and organisation that this implies' (Hill 1979).

Comment

To sum up briefly, the New Zealand system is centralised but has a great deal of teacher representation; in Australia, the Schools Commission funding has strengthened moves towards decentralisation to local levels; in Canada, the provincial governments are powerful but INSET varies considerably between school districts, and teachers' professional associations are significant providers of INSET.

However, there is widespread agreement that more effective INSET could be achieved if the participating teachers were to contribute collaboratively to decisions about INSET policies and programmes at all stages - planning implementation and follow-up. Thus procedures for collaboration are being introduced at several levels:

- (a) The individual teacher, in consultation with a 'professional tutor' and within a school policy framework.
- (b) The department or functional group, in consultation with a professional tutor and the school's professional development committee.

(c) The school, in consultation with the local or district authority's advisers or consultants and its advisory group on INSET, on which teachers and providers are represented.

(d) Area groups of schools, in consultation with advisers and INSET consultative groups.

(e) The local or district authority, in consultation with its own INSET consultative group.

(f) At national level, the government in consultation with its national consultative group.

(g) The providing agency, in consultation with a consultative group.

(h) The programme and course organisers, in consultation with the participants.

A key policy issue is whether non-professionals should be represented at any of these levels and stages. What of non-teaching staff, parents and other community representatives for example? Australia is particularly prominent in encouraging them to participate in education centre governance and programmes.

Motivation of teachers

The final section of this chapter describes some recent developments in providing motivation and incentives for teachers to engage in INSET by encouraging them to participate in decision making at all stages of the process. Hence, little is said about it here.

In all three countries, INSET can be directly linked to the possibility of promotion and this can obviously act as a motivating factor. Perhaps more important, however, is the provision of time and replacement staff for teachers who pursue INSET. Time, or the lack of it, emerged as being of crucial importance since most INSET takes place in the teacher's own time, after school. Anything that can be done to free

teachers to attend is bound to raise the participation rate considerably.

Evaluation and follow-up

Similar trends in the evaluation of INSET are evident in all three countries. With the growth in commitment to INSET, has come a series of questions about evaluation which usually stem from one or both of two issues. First, there is a desire that INSET should offer value for money, which we may call the concern for programme accountability. Second, there is a desire to improve the quality of INSET, which we may call the concern for programme improvement. Both have direct implications for the purposes, nature and methodology of evaluation.

Quite understandably, the principal and fundamental concern of those who have to provide the resources for INSET is whether it brings value for money. Ideally, they would like 'hard' information about the effects of a particular INSET programme on teacher performance and, even better, on pupil or student performance. In practice, it is extremely difficult to provide this type of product or outcome information. Most evaluations have asked teachers to make a follow-up judgement, say a month afterwards, about the impact of the course. When these self-reports have been checked independently, however, their reliability is shown to be questionable.

It is technically possible to obtain convincing 'product' data about effectiveness if some form of competency measurement approach is adopted, but experience indicates that it is rarely feasible to use such sophisticated instruments and evaluation designs because they are expensive and because the course being evaluated is usually not amenable to a behavioural approach.

Alternative methodologies, which are often known as 'illuminative evaluation', have found increasing favour with researchers but their results do not always satisfy politicians. Ideally, a mixed evaluation strategy should be employed, relating the design and instruments to

the specific problem on hand but this is usually an expensive approach. In any case, there is widespread agreement that the evaluator and funding body representative should discuss possible evaluation methods thoroughly before agreeing on any particular strategy.

Follow-up to external or centre-based INSET presents problems in all systems, including the three under study here. Although the various providing agencies all express good intentions, it is generally the case that little systematic follow-up occurs although impressionistic evidence suggests that advisory or inspectorial staff associated with the employing authority are often able to follow-up more consistently. It is partly because of this problem that such interest has been expressed in school focused INSET.

Innovations Adopted

Education Centres and Teachers' Centres

Since the 1960s a number of developed countries have introduced a variety of types of teacher centre. It is generally agreed that the idea originated in England and Wales during the 1960s, but it has subsequently been adapted and modified by several other countries to meet their own particular circumstances. This adaptation process is very evident in the three countries under consideration.

New Zealand

In New Zealand, the Taranaki Education Centre is one of three established in 1979 by the Department of Education as a pilot scheme to provide additional in-service support for teachers. The Centre is concerned with pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary teachers in both the private and state sector schools. It is also concerned with police, traffic, and fire education officers, and adult education teachers. It provides a variety of services including servicing courses with personnel and equipment, mounting courses at the request of groups of teachers, providing individual

assistance to teachers' groups and school based courses, and providing an umbrella for subject specialist groups like the History Teachers' Association.

The Centre is controlled by a management committee on which sit teacher representatives. It is staffed by a director, who is on release from his permanent job as a primary school principal, an experienced teacher, who acts as an audio-visual technician, and a secretary. It is financed by the Department of Education in Wellington.

One example of the Centre's approach to in-service was the 'TV in Schools' course which was designed by the staff of one school to train their own teachers in the use of Porta Pack television equipment. The Centre facilitated the identification and hiring of a college lecturer to act as a resource person. The course was advertised throughout the schools in Taranaki although membership was restricted to 25 people.

The Centre has also made a significant contribution to school focused in-service training by providing resources for individual teachers and groups of teachers. This has taken the form of two staff members who act as professional consultants to teachers. Teachers and representatives of the teacher organisations regarded the main new contribution from the Centre as being its resource centre function. This is considerably facilitated by the use of the telephone by teachers to obtain help and information from Centre staff.

Canada

In Canada the decision as to whether or not to establish a teachers' centre is essentially a provincial and school district one since there is no federal or national initiative on teacher centres. In this respect, the policy and practice on teacher centres is exactly the same as the practice on other aspects of education as was indicated above. Thus general statements cannot

easily be made about Canadian centres although it is clear that there are relatively few of them in the country.

One of the major activities of the Atlantic Provinces amalgam of in-service providing agencies, was to establish teacher centres with three main qualities. First, the centre had to be housed in a neutral building where teachers could meet away from school and the formal atmosphere of the central authority offices. Second, teachers themselves had to decide on the activities and not the school boards or administrators. Third, the activities had to be generated from the concerns of the local school and community. The centres had to generate their own sources of funds; in particular they had to obtain a financial commitment from teachers and teacher associations. Once again we may note a rather unusual feature of the Canadian system: that teachers themselves, either as individuals or through their professional organisations, are expected to contribute money as well as time to the furtherance of their INSET. An evaluation report argues that the only successful teachers' centres to emerge in the Atlantic Provinces scheme were those on which teachers, school boards and Departments of Education were engaged positively in a collaborative and co-operative effort.

Australia

A significantly new perspective on teachers' centres can be obtained by studying experience in Australia where they were established as a direct consequence of the Schools' Commission policy initiatives and funding strategy in 1973. Although there is a variety of centres there are two main types: education centres, which are funded directly by the Schools' Commission under the teacher initiated in-service education part of the teacher development programme, and teachers' centres, which are part of each state's education service. Since 1973, 32 education centres have been established by the Schools' Commission. It has argued that there are a number of reasons for establishing teacher centres: first, that the

continuing professional development of teachers should largely be the responsibility of teachers themselves; second, that decentralisation of decision making would require broader perspectives from teachers than those of their own classrooms and schools but, nevertheless, the teachers themselves were in the best position to know what they need in terms of help and support; finally, and extremely significantly, the Commission has argued that centres which were under the control of teachers could assist in the development of community education if the teachers were prepared to take the initiative.

As one example, we may consider the Fremantle Centre which is known as a Community Education Centre. It became operative in January 1975 under the instigation of a group of individuals with a particular interest in the more innovative approaches to education. The Centre acts as a media resource centre and is equipped with an audio studio, a dark room, a print shop, an open primary school for teaching mothers and a theatre suitable for both films and stage productions. It has a management committee and five full-time and five part-time staff.

Apart from its education activities it seeks to involve the community with such courses as 'The Media and the Public', 'The Forces Affecting Our Lives', and 'Disabilities and Social Handicaps'. The theatre is in heavy demand and the Centre broadcasts over one of the local radio stations for half an hour each Tuesday. Its programmes are produced by its own staff who may, for example, describe the work of the Centre to interested listeners.

There can be little doubt that teachers' centres and education centres are potentially of great value to the education service. Each country must adapt existing models or devise its own approach but two key questions will, in any case, have to be answered: how much control will teachers have over the work of the Centre and to what extent will the community be involved?

In several countries, authorities at all levels have begun to appoint advisory teachers who, although they may be linked with the local and national inspectorate, do not have any formal inspectorial functions. Thus, the tensions that arise when one person has to exercise both an advisory and inspectorial role as experienced by local authority advisers in the U.K. (Bolam et al 1979), are minimised if not entirely avoided.

Australia

In Victoria, Australia, a small team was formed to visit schools and help teachers to develop and improve their mathematics programmes. Initially the Mathematics Project Team consisted of three teachers, each of whom had at least three years experience. A circular was sent to all technical schools in the State informing them that an in-service maths team had been formed and inviting them to submit applications for its services. The intention was that the team would visit the schools to assist teachers develop maths programmes that were specifically relevant to the particular needs of their own students, and also to overcome problems of superficial treatment associated with short visits to schools. Initially, the schools' response was poor, but the team used the time to familiarise themselves with the techniques and curricula operating in the various maths departments and to work out their own role.

They then selected maths programmes that had been used successfully by teachers to provide sample materials for their own work in schools. When they responded to applications from schools, they were particularly concerned to ensure that the whole department was behind the initiative and that the teachers themselves could decide whether they wanted further contact with the team after the initial contact. This approach was based upon the view that effective innovation is a 'grass roots' phenomenon.

The team worked in various ways: long term demonstration and development visits; short visits at regular intervals; follow-up visits; and establishing links between schools. It seems clear

that they worked extremely successfully. By the middle of 1977, 69 schools had approached them for assistance, and they were working with about 58 schools. The formal evaluation indicated that about 48 schools had changed their teaching as a result of this intervention.

New Zealand

In New Zealand, each education district has a group of advisers to provide on-the-job support for their teachers in their own classrooms and the official statement of their functions is to help the young and inexperienced teachers with school organisation and methods of teaching. The adviser moves along a group of small country schools giving them each practical demonstrations. He is a guide and counsellor bringing the teachers in these schools professional and technical aid which, in the larger schools, is given by the experienced head teachers. Apart from help with teaching methods and individual problems, he gives guidance on school administration, relations with the employing board, the role of specialist, the formal relationship with the committee and the district organisation of the infant department, disposition of teacher time, minimal apparatus in reading, suitable supplementary reading material and other activities.

There are 20 advisers to rural schools spread over ten education board districts. The team is led by the district senior inspector, but the adviser generally has considerable freedom to work in the way that he or she feels most appropriate. The advisers have to have experience in a variety of techniques and schools and although the adviser grade is not a career grade, nonetheless, it does attract young and enthusiastic teachers.

Forest, 1979, describes in some detail the work of one individual adviser whom he calls Pat'. Pat is responsible for a total of 181 teachers in 71 schools which are spread evenly, and most of which are within half-an-hour's travelling time of a large country town. However, Pat himself is faced with three hours travel to

reach schools in the North-Eastern region and one and a half hours to reach those in the East. His daily travelling mileage is 50 miles. Sometimes he has to stay at an overnight base. Pat thinks that the most effective way of helping teachers is to give them guidance specifically designed to meet the needs of their particular situations. He plans his monthly visits in advance, within the following framework of priorities:

- (a) Visiting newly appointed principals.
- (b) Visiting teachers in response to requests for assistance.
- (c) Visiting newly appointed assistants.
- (d) Visiting teachers to build up on ideas initiated on a previous visit or an in-service course.

Crisis calls receive top priority. Otherwise, several weeks in advance of a visit, he notifies the teacher so that the principal and the teacher can carry out some preparatory work involving the identification of their own needs in a preliminary fashion and notify Pat of what will be required of him so that he can arrive prepared. During his visits, Pat may be involved in the following activities:

- (a) Clarifying with individual teachers issues related to their own work, assisting them with interpreting the central handbooks and syllabuses; helping formulate plans of work for children and motivating the teachers to professional reading and study.
- (b) Working with children to assist the teacher or to demonstrate a particular technique.
- (c) Demonstrating particular teaching aids and equipment.
- (d) Giving personal counselling to teachers.
- (e) Speaking at staff meetings.

Visits can span three successive days, depending on the needs of the particular school. In the course of one month a typical pattern of work for Pat would be two days directing in-service courses, five days working in his office and sixteen days in schools.

Pat believes that his successful relationships with teachers depend upon him being prepared to listen sensitively and to demonstrate his concern for that teacher's welfare and his respect for his or her views. He sees himself as questioning the teachers to guide their thinking in searching for solutions, informing them of other options, demonstrating alternative approaches, encouraging them to modify his suggestions to suit their own situation and assisting in their evaluation of outcomes. Fundamentally, he believes that a successful relationship is influenced by the development of a climate of acceptance and the development of a self-image and of self-esteem by the teacher and the recognition by all involved of individual differences.

INSET for
special groups
of teachers

Naturally much of the successful INSET going on in the three countries is directed at specific teacher groups. In this sub-section we consider three such groups: beginning teachers, maths teachers and primary teachers.

Beginning Teachers

The James Report proved to be influential far beyond England and Wales, and it has made a particular impact in New Zealand and Australia by highlighting the importance of the first year of teaching.

In Australia, Tisher (1980) argues that the almost overnight change in responsibility from being a student teacher to a fully-fledged classroom teacher is a major one. From being students responsible only to themselves for their own learning, beginning teachers have to face up to the responsibilities of being in charge of numerous pupils from the first working day. Research in the U.K. and Australia indicates

that the first year of teaching can be a very traumatic one for some beginning teachers. The reactions of such teachers include "A disenchantment with pre-service programmes, a temporary jettisoning of some educational ideals such as the encouragement of individual, self-propelled learning in pupils, and a tendency to resort to lecturing in class. New pupils and their principals admit that there are a number of things that new teachers manage less than adequately, for example, teaching immigrants, slow learners and groups with a wide ability range. There is also a prevalent belief among principals that beginning teachers are not finished products at the conclusion of their pre-service education, and that they can still learn more from others, including experienced colleagues. It is no wonder, then, that state employing authorities, local education authorities, teachers' centres, principals' organisations and teacher associations have evinced concern about the quality of new recruits to teaching and with how they've managed during their first year, as well as with the type of professional support they receive as they learn to cope with their new jobs" (Tisher 1980).

In several countries national and state resources have been made available to improve the mode of new teachers' entry to teaching. The terms 'teacher induction' or 'induction of beginning teachers' are generally used to refer to this entry and of the planned support the new teachers receive as that occurs. Induction is widely acknowledged to be a crucial stage in the overall process of professional development of teachers and therefore should not be left to chance. Research in Australia has identified the following activities which are provided to aid the new teachers' entry to teaching:

- (a) The provision of information about the system and the school.
- (b) Prior visits to schools and orientation programmes.

- (c) A reduced teaching load.
- (d) School based meetings for beginners teachers and other new staff.
- (e) Personal tutoring by an experienced colleague in the school.
- (f) Certain employer-organised activities like conferences with advisers, the opportunity to visit other schools and external in-service courses specifically aimed at beginning teachers.

This evidence from Australia can be supported by recent research in the U.K. which concluded that systematic induction of this kind is valuable in helping new teachers to become more effective more quickly in their new schools (Bolam, Baker and McMahon 1979).

Maths Teachers

The Canadian PERMAMA Project was a collaborative enterprise between the Quebec Ministry of Education and the University of Quebec. It was a new INSET project created specifically to upgrade and update secondary mathematics teachers across the Province. It enabled the teachers to enrol in a programme of university studies leading to a degree while remaining on-the-job in their own schools; yet the scheme covered the vast territory of the Province. The first course was given in February 1972 and enrolled about 1,700 students. Because the programme led to a university degree, the overall administrative arrangements had to conform to the general regulations for higher education in the Province and to the regulations of the University of Quebec.

Initially, the programme consisted of 20 courses, each developed by writing teams composed of mathematicians. The course package included materials, a series of TV tapes and evaluation materials. Seventy centres were established to cover the Province and students from a given region met weekly for a three hour session at the local centre with a group leader and put in an

additional six hours of homework. The significant event in the evolution of PERMAMA was the creation in October 1972 of the Tele University as a branch of the University of Quebec. PERMAMA became attached to the Tele University as one of its official projects in June 1973.

One of the unique features of the PERMAMA Project is the way in which it has evolved as a result of internal and external evaluation and criticism. A major review was carried out in 1974 to take account of the following major criticisms of the initial model: the high drop out rate of students, the inappropriate content, the linearity of the programme, the dissatisfaction of the students and the lack of impact on classroom practice. The review committee recommended re-designing the model to take account of these criticisms and, in particular, to modify the programme so that it would have an impact on classroom teaching, to emphasise changing teacher attitudes and to increase the relationship between the PERMAMA courses and the mathematics programmes in use in secondary schools.

In rebuilding and re-designing PERMAMA, the project staff contrasted two conceptions of school learning. The first, a traditional conception, emphasised the role of the teacher as intermediary between the student and the universe of knowledge as favoured by the school system. It was assumed that this conception was the dominant conception of university academics particularly in relation to mathematics. In contrast, the PERMAMA staff proposed another conception of learning in which the key idea was that of learning as a dynamic interactive process of exchanges between the learner and his environment with the learner at the centre of that development. In this latter conception, the chief agent of teaching and learning is not the teacher as the transmitter of knowledge but the learner as a constructor of knowledge. The PERMAMA team sought to implement this radically different conception of learning and set out as a fundamental objective of the project to have it adopted by secondary mathematics teachers. Staff

describe the main characteristics of the revised model as including continuous in-service training closely tied to the teachers' professional functions. It involves self-learning within a team approach, but uses a personalised learning programme, directed in consultation with colleagues and the central staff.

The PERMAMA Project has been successful but, like all innovations, has had its problems. It has been included here to demonstrate that problems can be used as the building blocks for successful revision and that, even though a project may finally be dropped, this does not mean that important lessons cannot be learned from it for future use.

Re-training Primary Teachers

In New Zealand, an Education Act was introduced in 1975 to provide for the re-training courses for primary teachers. Until then a number of trained teachers, mainly women who had been out of the service for more than three years, were able to obtain new posts in the teaching service without re-training. However, doubts were expressed about the competence of some of these teachers because the system had been changing so rapidly. The 1975 Act made re-training a pre-requisite for re-appointment to a permanent position in the state primary school sector. Thus teachers who had not been employed within the previous three years now had to take some re-training.

The course that they were required to complete lasted for three months and consisted of the following three components:

- (a) Three study assignments set by the Advanced Study Section for Teachers' Unit attached to a correspondence school, supplemented by two workshop sessions which were to be arranged by the district senior inspector of primary schools on a local basis.

(b) A minimum of 75 hours of teaching practice and observation in schools which were nominated by the district senior inspector.

(c) Nine two-hour classes.

In 1976, 500 teachers enrolled for the re-training course and all but 44 completed it satisfactorily. The teachers were evaluated on a simple satisfactory/unsatisfactory classification. This system was instituted with the agreement of the primary teachers' professional association.

The reaction of participating teachers varied considerably. Those who had been out of teaching for a long period generally appreciated the chance to up-date their knowledge and re-orientate themselves to classroom teaching and they were very enthusiastic members of the courses. However, those teachers who had been out of teaching for a shorter period and especially those who during this time had undertaken some substitute teaching felt that it was unnecessary for them to take any re-training at all. They criticised the assignment and the discussion topics and saw little point in preparing lessons when they themselves had been teaching as relieving teachers during the past three years. These criticisms were recognised as valid and it was agreed that those with substantial substitute teaching experience during the preceding three years and who were deemed to be efficient teachers could be excused attendance at the course.

A more intractable criticism came from a group who felt that the scheme discriminated against women and this problem has not yet been resolved. Those teachers living in remote rural areas also found problems, and the scheme has been modified to their needs. The basic problem was that of a shortage of teachers in rural areas and thus a shortage of re-training possibilities.

After two years of operation, the evaluation, (Forrest 1980) indicated that:

- (a) The needs of the system require a programme that highlights the fundamental curricular and pedagogical issues.
- (b) Teachers returning to the service need to orient their thinking to a situation that has changed rapidly.
- (c) Teachers want practical suggestions and help with new content, new methods and organisation within schools.
- (d) There must be sufficient flexibility in the provision to meet the needs of individual teachers and their particular circumstances.

School focused
INSET

A major development that has occurred in recent years can be described as school focused or school based in-service training. The reasons behind this development are numerous and varied but, essentially, they arise from teachers' disenchantment and disappointment with traditional course-based models of INSET in which individuals are withdrawn from the school to attend a course but, when they return to school, find they are unable to implement the ideas and skills that they have acquired on the course. A related but more positive factor is that in several countries there has been a tradition of decentralised curriculum planning, as in the U.K. or a move towards decentralised school based curriculum development as in Australia. In both cases, the challenges and problems of maintaining and developing the curriculum at school level have prompted teachers to demand more relevant and practical INSET. A third reason, implicit in both the first two, is that traditional course-based models of INSET are frequently too generalised and theoretical to be relevant to the immediate and specific practical problems faced by teachers in their own classrooms and schools. These criticisms have led to the exploration of alternative modes of INSET some of which are described in the cases below.

Forrest (1980), described a range of approaches to school focused INSET, two of which

have already been discussed: the re-training of primary teachers and the ways in which advisory teachers work in a consultancy mode with rural teachers in their classrooms. In addition, he described an example of school-based INSET for secondary schools in Auckland. The Auckland region is divided into seven areas, each containing between 11 and 18 secondary schools. A central committee co-ordinates the work of the seven regional committees each of which decides on their priorities for courses and runs 15 courses per year in response to school requests. Most of these courses are of one day's duration and are school based. The emphasis on teacher planning for the courses in order to meet the needs of local teachers has also led to some courses being more directly school focused, though few of them actually deal with the needs of any single school and thus, strictly speaking, do not qualify as school focused courses. Such programmes have been received enthusiastically by teachers although there have been some criticisms of the unavailability of courses and of lack of time to do them justice.

Ingvarson (1980), who carried out a substantial and extremely valuable survey of school focused INSET in Australia, says that the Schools Commission in-service programme was largely responsible for promoting the concept of teacher-initiated and school focused INSET, though each state has moved in somewhat different ways. For example, in Queensland a whole school withdrawal programme was established in 1974. Each school in the State was relieved from teaching responsibilities for a week-long staff development programme, and the staff were replaced by a team of in-service teachers and an acting principal. Over 200 schools participated in this programme during 1979.

Ingvarson describes six cases of school focused INSET. The first of these, the project team approach to mathematics, has already been described. The second involved an intensive week-long consultancy by 24 external consultants for the 20 staff of an independent school. These external consultants provided demonstration

lessons and advice on the theme of creative education. According to the evaluators of the programme, the overall reaction of teachers to the course was critical. Although they were in favour of the programme in principle, they thought it had not met their expectations because the consultants provided them with experiences and techniques with which they were already familiar, and because there was insufficient time allowance for teachers to discuss courses and techniques individually with the consultants.

The third case was of a process of school planning in the Australian Capital Territory of Canberra and its satellite towns. Here too, it is important to recognise that the innovation could not have occurred outside the policy framework of the ACT which, from the outset, deliberately encouraged school based curriculum development and relatively autonomous schools. The school planning conferences arose out of a need for discussion and planning on school aims, policy procedures and pedagogical and curricula concerns. Guidelines were drawn up by the ACT schools authority and required details of the pre-planning procedures, a statement of aims and objectives and the educational principles on which these were based, organisational details of participants form of budgeting, etc., and a justification of the request for a school-time conference plus evidence of endorsement by the community and parents of the need for such a conference. An important feature of this programme was the involvement of community representatives from the outset. By the end of the year, 40 schools had submitted proposals for such conferences and for the subsequent school focused INSET. According to Ingvarson school planning conferences have tended to become increasingly specialised as time has gone on, becoming more oriented towards the curriculum and particular subjects. He concludes that the approach had worked well in at least 30 of the 40 schools but that there were a large number of implementation problems still to be adequately stated let alone resolved.

His fourth case study was of the use of organisation development as an intervention technique in Victoria State schools. Organisation development is a technique which has its roots in the United States (vide Schmuck et al 1977), and is designed to equip teachers and principals with problem-solving and decision-making skills so that they can handle meetings and communication with each other and with parents more effectively. Ingvarson explores the problems of transplanting the technique from America to the very different setting of Australia and concludes that it did not work especially effectively and that it was rather expensive. However, those responsible for the intervention have expressed disagreement with his views.

The fifth case study is of parent participation in school decision-making in Victoria, where an in-service adviser was appointed in order to stimulate parent and community involvement in decision-making in schools. This adviser describes several of the projects which she has tackled, one of which involved a survey of parent opinion in one school to obtain their views on the ways in which the school was operating. She also established networks of parents in order to equip them better to participate in decision-making.

Finally, Ingvarson describes some classroom based developmental research projects in which the researchers are teachers rather than university researchers. Once again, the basic technique was that formulated by the Schools Commission: schools and teachers were invited to submit proposals for small-scale research projects. In the event 50 submissions were received from groups of teachers from all types of schools, although primary schools were under-represented and each group of teachers received approximately £1,000 for projects which included home economics, pre-reading skills, and language development. The teachers were given short training courses in research methods and then carried out their programme. Ingvarson highlights some of the difficulties they encountered and suggests ways in which these might be overcome.

Writing in a Canadian context, Fullan (1980) outlined a framework for school focused in-service based upon a view of the relationship between curriculum implementation and staff development. He used the fact that in most Canadian provinces the curriculum is highly centralised as a basis for arriving at the following conclusions: first, that INSET should have a project or programme focus and within this it should be intensive and out-going; second, it should be linked to school building or organisation development efforts; third, it should be directed simultaneously at school specific curriculum developments over time; finally, and above all, it should be based upon a school level plan and upon a school district plan which integrates these various school level plans. Fullan then went on to consider four cases, all of which are firmly rooted in the Canadian context of centralised curriculum guidelines.

The first case study involved district-wide INSET in the Province of British Columbia. The Director of Instruction for one school district had developed an in-service programme to accomplish district-wide priorities. The principals played a key role in deciding upon and co-ordinating in-service activities in the district and the schools, and so in-service workshops were provided to equip them with the knowledge and skills needed to implement new curriculum programmes and to extend this to their own in-service programmes for teachers.

The second case study was of a collaborative working relationship between a school district in Ontario and the Province's Master of Education (M.Ed.) programme at the University. The primary purpose was to improve classroom practice and student performance within the framework of the implementation of provincial curriculum guidelines. The M.Ed. programme was closely related to these curriculum guidelines and involved work with teachers and principals over a period of time in order to implement them. It was essentially an M.Ed. course in curriculum management and implementation but, instead of taking theory as its focus, it concentrated on resolving particular school problems.

The third case study was of school based INSET in a small school district in Nova Scotia, Eastern Canada. The school district consisted of 23 schools, 12,500 pupils, and 600 teachers, and had developed more intensive school based INSET around particular schools. It thus cut across single subject areas. One example was an open-planned elementary school, and a second concerned the lack of motivation and achievement and drop-out problem in rural, junior and senior high schools. In both cases, staff initiated and planned the topics and based this planning on a survey of needs assessment by the teachers. There were many opportunities for interactions and communications between the various teachers, for example, meetings, in-service days, and daily consultation with reading specialists; there was administrative support in the school and from the central office which took the form of both finance and release time; finally, there was adequate feedback through consultation and reviews and follow-ups.

The fourth Canadian case concerned the Atlantic Provinces project which has already been briefly described above. Fullan focuses upon the Lighthouse Learning Programme, one of the features of which was an attempt to bring teachers together as resources for each other. It devised alternatives to the normal one or two day in-service courses which rarely had follow-up possibilities and, instead, developed the use of accessible resource or expert people, i.e. the teachers themselves who were always available. Programmes focused on six areas of work: teacher centres, outdoor education, local studies, curriculum development, information provision and open access study. Although the programme was reasonably successful, it was mainly so in small or medium sized school districts; successful school-focused in-service programmes in large urban secondary schools were more difficult to locate.

Professional
incentives

It is evident from experience in many developed countries that teacher participation in decision-making and provision of in-service has become an important incentive, and possibly a pre-requisite, for teacher co-operation.

In New Zealand, teachers and teacher organisations are represented on departmental in-service planning committees at local, regional and national levels. Teacher organisations have their own teacher refresher course committees and, in addition, there is a National Advisory Committee on In-service Training on which these organisations are represented. The teachers' Refresher Course Committee has a sub-committee of teachers arranging in-service courses to meet requests from other teachers. These activities are financed by the Department of Education, yet there is no departmental representative on the Committee. The Committee assumes responsibility for administering residential courses, usually of one week's duration, normally held during the long summer holidays and attended by approximately 800 teachers annually.

Teachers not only plan their own departmental courses, they also chair meetings, act as speakers, discussion group leaders and class demonstrators in their own in-service education. For secondary teachers in particular, the subject associations make a major contribution throughout New Zealand. Courses are provided by these associations at the request of their members and regular meetings of general professional interest are organised. Normally these professional associations meetings are held at a local teachers' college or secondary school at nominal cost to those organisations.

In Australia great importance has been attached to the involvement of teachers in the review, planning, implementation and evaluation of INSET. For example, in the State of Victoria, the Victorian In-service Education Committee was established in 1973. It was set up by the State Director of General Education, the Chairman of Independent Schools of Victoria and the Director of Catholic Education and with a significant number of teacher representatives. Its functions include the co-ordination of all regional in-service agencies, the general determination of in-service policy and the administration of funds. In addition to these State level organisations, there are 11 regional INSET committees

covering the whole State. Each of these regional committees include representatives from the State administration and from the teachers in State, Independent and Catholic schools. The number of regional activities in 1975 for example, was approximately five times that initiated at State level, reflecting a marked tendency towards decentralisation.

Subject associations have always been a considerable force in the provision of INSET, particularly with respect to short courses, but Schools Commission funds have enabled them to mount even more ambitious programmes. Subject associations are in a good position to assess teacher needs within their own subject and to devise appropriate courses, and they have played a major part initiating and responding to changes of syllabus content as a result of external examination changes. They also organise major national conferences: for example, the Australian Association of Mathematics Teachers holds a biennial conference at which more than 300 teachers participate. Some national conferences are now preceded by lengthy studies in which subject association members survey developments and needs across the State. Short courses, held out of school hours and relating directly to subject content and teaching methods are, however, the most common type of INSET offered by subject associations.

The extent to which the Schools Commission's commitment to teacher involvement in the planning and implementation of in-service has actually been achieved was studied in an evaluation report. Batten (1979) stresses that it is extremely difficult to implement the principles of teacher involvement. Individual teacher initiatives for Schools Commission funds, for example, were rated and it was much more likely that courses would be initiated at state or regional level or by school principals. Teachers in New South Wales for example, said "You seldom get a teacher who wants to run a course", and "I don't know any classroom teacher who has initiated a course, although I know principals who have initiated courses and got teachers to organise them".

Batten concludes that teachers are reluctant to assume responsibility for instigating INSET and the main reason given by teachers for this reluctance is that they simply do not have the time. Nevertheless, in Australia, ways of achieving the important goals of teacher involvement and participation are being seriously and systematically tackled.

In Canada, Fullan (1979) also concludes that many studies have indicated that lack of time and energy for participating in professional development is a fundamental barrier to success. He considers the implications of the findings of much research that teachers should participate in planning their own in-service activities, and has this to say. "Many school districts in Canada and elsewhere now have local professional development committees composed of teachers doing just that. The problem is twofold: the participation of teachers as representatives often does little to increase the commitment of rank and file teachers. Our related problem concerns a lack of skill in co-operative decision making, lack of time for collaboration, the lack of a conceptual framework to plan and organise activities, all of which are identified by teachers in other role groups. Moreover, surveys of needs do not really capture either the meaning of teacher needs or particularly how to address them."

Thus, here too, we find that it is not enough to aspire to professional involvement and participating: problems of implementation have to be very systematically tackled.

An interesting example of how a professional association can contribute directly to INSET is provided in one province, British Columbia, where the Teachers' Federation (BCTF) runs a regular programme of professional development activities. The 1980 programme included a wide range of courses. One called 'Communicating with Parents' dealt with strategies to improve parent-teacher meetings by providing teachers with communication and conferencing skills. A second course aimed at improving basic communication skills, included workshops on communication skills in talking and

listening, activities including paraphrasing, describing behaviour, and feelings and skills to improve personal relations. A third course focused on the management of stress in schools and was intended for the whole staff of any one school. It was described as experiential workshop for teachers who are interested in learning more about personal and professional stress and about strategies for managing it; it offered information to increase understanding of stress and its effects, techniques to identify sources of stress, strategies to alleviate or significantly change stressful situations and practical techniques for stress management. A fourth course was called the 'Self-Directing Professional' and was designed to assist teachers establish a collegial and supportive environment within their own schools in order to become more self-directing in their competence and influence. By the end of the workshop each participant was expected to be able to carry out a professional development needs assessment, examine the issues relating to job satisfaction, study how to become more influential and self-directing, explore various goal attainment styles, write a personal self-contract, and establish collegial teams for follow-up and support. Other courses focused on the organisation and management of groups in secondary schools or tackled social issues such as child abuse, and racialism in schools.

An important feature of these BCTF courses is that the trainers or tutors are practising teachers who have been specially selected and trained by the BCTF to act as workshop leaders and facilitators. There are no costs to the participating teachers since the whole programme is funded by the BCTF who pay all travel and accommodation costs. The underlying values of the BCTF's programme are that its primary goals assist teachers by providing continuing education services that improve the quality of their teaching, encourage participation by teachers on a voluntary basis and make teacher needs and preferences the starting point of all activities.

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