Who Prepares the Teachers? The Irish Experience[1]

Dr. Rose Dolan[2] & Mr. Michael Kenny[3]

Abstract:

Those who become teacher educators in the Republic of Ireland do so without any requirement to register with a professional body, without any formal period of study of the foundation disciplines of teacher education or the appropriate pedagogical strategies for teaching adults, and with no formally supervised teaching practice. This is not unique to Ireland: In almost all European countries, one becomes a teacher educator without any formal qualification, preparation or induction into the role (Kosnik & Beck, 2008). In 2000, *The Green Paper on Teacher Education in Europe* (Buchberger et al, 2000) highlighted concern about the lack of training for and induction into the teacher education profession including appropriate methodologies for working with adult learners. This paper adopts a socio-historical perspective on the evolution of the role of teacher educator in Ireland and highlights ways in which teacher educators have managed their own professional development.

1 Paper presented to the WERA (World Education Research Association) Focal Meeting, as part of the Scottish Educational Research Association (SERA) 39th Annual Conference, 19-21 November, 2014, Edinburgh, Scotland.

2 Lecturer, Department of Education, Maynooth University, Maynooth, Republic of Ireland.

3 Lecturer, Department of Adult and Community Education, Maynooth University, Maynooth, Republic of Ireland.

Who Prepares the Teachers? The Irish Experience

To understand contemporary Ireland, it is necessary to recognize how much its remote as well as more recent history still affects public values and attitudes and offers a key to understanding its institutions, not least its system of education.

(OECD, 1991)

The National Strategy for Higher Education in Ireland (DES, 2011) recommended that academics should have access to professional development opportunities to develop their knowledge of teaching, as well as their disciplinary knowledge. In the former respect, the professional development needs of teacher educators differ from those of academics in other university disciplines. Those who become teacher educators after careers as school teachers encounter a mid career transition from teacher to teacher educator, bringing with it ensuing changes in professional identity and a need to acquire new professional knowledge and understanding. Because their backgrounds are in school teaching and learning, beginning teacher educators have high levels of understanding and competence in pedagogy. But they need not only to be able to teach: they must also be able to teach teaching (Loughran, 2010). Professional development needs therefore include opportunities to transmute their knowledge-in-action (Schön, 1983) and into knowledge-of-practice (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999), the latter being conceptualized as knowledge that integrates both theoretical constructs and practical knowledge. Korth et al (2009) suggest that it is possible that the manner or degree classroom teachers function as teacher educators might be determined by the way they define this role or even acknowledge their role as teacher educators. Drawing on interviews with 28 teachers, Korth et al (2009) note that 56% of interviewees defined a teacher educator as a *teacher of teachers.* While the official definition of what constitutes a teacher educator differs from country to country, for the purpose of this paper, teacher educator are those who are formally involved in the education of teachers at the three stages of the continuum - pre-service, induction and continuing professional development. This grouping therefore includes those who work within education departments in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), those who are employed by the National Induction Programme for Teachers (NIPT) and those employed by the Professional Development Service for Teachers (PDST); a support service of Teacher Education Section, Department of Education and Skills in Ireland, responsible for the provision of continuing professional development to teachers at both primary and post-primary level.

This paper describes the socio-historical evolution of teacher education in the Republic of Ireland in order to contextualise the role of the teacher educator within the education system. It then considers the criteria for becoming a teacher educator in Ireland and contrasts this with the requirements in other countries.

The Historical Context

On December 6th 1922, the British Government granted the status of independence to Ireland and the Irish Free State came into being. Prior to this, the governance of the country had been within the framework of the United Kingdom and, as a result, the system of education had been very strongly affected by the culture and politics of the colonial power (Coolahan, 1981). Educational policy had been driven by a cultural assimilation and socialisation policy to reproduce the norms and value of the imperial power although the impact of this was beginning to wane as the 19th century drew to a close. Education was also seen as an important resource for those who would not inherit land since they would either seek employment or would emigrate.

Primary and Secondary Schools

'Initial teacher education is probably the single most important factor in having a well-performing public education system' (DES, 2012, pp. 5, 6).

Within two years of the establishment of the National School system in 1831, the National Board of Education began training primary teachers and seven years later had opened Marlborough Street College (now the headquarters of the Department of Education and Skills) for training national teachers (Durcan, 1972 cited in Murtagh 2014).

With the relaxation of the Penal laws in the 1780s Catholic religious orders began to set up secondary schools. These schools existed as private entities side by side with the long established Protestant schools funded from a public endowment. The introduction of the Intermediate Education (Ireland) Act in 1878 introduced a funding model for second level schools known as payment by results it made no reference to the educational requirements of those who would work as teachers within the schools. This was in contrast to the already well-developed system of teacher training for the National School system.

> Unlike national school teachers, who had achieved structured salary scales, contracts of employment, pension rights, as well as facilities for teacher training … by 1880, secondary teaching remained very much an amateur and unattractive occupation in the nineteenth century … No regulations existed concerning teacher qualifications, no formal training was available or demanded of teachers, no inspection system was operated, no set salary scales existed and there was no security of tenure or pension rights. (Coolahan, 1981 p54)

It was significant that the Act allowed the schools to operate as private denominational institutions (Coolahan, 1981) because this allowed the school administration to deploy members of religious orders to teach within the school. Therefore lay teachers were employed only if a member of the religious order was not available to teach the subject and having a religious vocation was deemed to be more important than having a university degree and/or a teaching qualification (Sugrue, 2003). Teachers therefore tended to be clerics, intending clerics, ex-clerics or laymen from varying backgrounds (Coolahan, 1981). The "cult of the amateur held full sway for secondary teaching" (Coolahan, 2004 p35) with knowledge of subject content deemed as quite sufficient for secondary school teachers. The subsequent effect of these developments on the qualifications of the teaching population would be highlighted in a 1905 report on Intermediate Education (Dale and Stephens,

1905) and the backwash effect of the payment by results mentality on the modes of teaching employed in schools would be felt long after the abolition of this method in favour of capitation grants for schools in 1924; 46 years after its introduction.

Two different systems there emerged; one at primary/national school level and the other at post primary/Intermediate level, with significant differences in the type of teacher preparation required, if any, and in the location and control of this training. Schools at primary level were generally set up under the auspices of the local parish and were denominational as a result. Teachers for these schools were trained in denominational colleges of education where the syllabus for teacher training was defined by the Department of Education. The situation in the post-primary sector was a different one, containing two distinct strands; intermediate education, providing academic second level education and the beginning of a technical education sector, which would provide vocational training. The education system had also begun to develop a way for graduates to qualify as teachers for the Intermediate System through courses and examinations defined by and located in the universities. This precedence of this system would provide the pattern for post-primary teacher education for much of the next century.

Among the terms of reference for the report on Intermediate Education was the issue of training for second level teachers and the resultant report on Intermediate Education in 1905 recommended setting up a formal system of training for intermediate teachers. The recommended system would be post-graduate and should include a 'systematic course of study in Mental and Moral Sciences bearing on Education', a study of the Theory and History of Education and would be complemented by teaching practice, classroom observation and a probationary period in a recognised school (Dale and Stephens, 1905). This would form the basis of the Higher Diploma in Education, dating from 1912 to the present day as a post-graduate teaching qualification in post primary schools.

Although the report formed the blueprint for the establishment of a Registration Council for Secondary Seachers in 1918, the Intermediate Education Act, which gave a legislative basis for its establishment, did not come into being until 1914. Indeed the conditions for Intermediate Teachers in 1905 had changed little since the 1880s and secondary teaching was still perceived as an amateur and unattractive option. The report did refer to and recognise the schemes for training Intermediate teachers that were in existence in the Ursuline Convent in Waterford, the Training College at Marino and the courses at Victoria College, Alexandra College, Trinity College and the Royal University of Ireland (Dale and Stephens, 1905).

In 1909 a permanent inspectorate of intermediate schools was appointed and were requested by the Intermediate Board to gather information about the qualifications and salaries of the assistant teachers in schools. This prompted a conference between the Heads of Schools and the Intermediate Board where the effect of denominational third level education in 19th century Ireland was highlighted. Catholics were said to have "… suffered disabilities in respect of university education that have prevented them from obtaining such academic qualifications as have been open to Protestants" (Hyland & Milne, 1987 p228). The Catholic heads of schools indicated however, that it would not be unreasonable to insist on academic qualifications after a sufficient number of years had elapsed. Until then, the denominational nature of the second level system meant that Catholic

schools would continue to be staffed by teachers without university degrees or teaching qualifications who had not encountered pre-service teacher education or teacher educators.

The Teacher Registration Council, established in 1918, was assigned the responsibility of framing "… regulations for a register of the intermediate school teachers in Ireland who satisfy the conditions of registration prescribed by the regulations and apply to be registered" (Hyland & Milne, 1987 p231). While these regulations required that teachers have a degree and a teacher education qualification in order to register they could not address the issue raised by Dale and Stephens (1905) about the number of teachers who were not university graduates since secondary schools continued to be staffed by religious who did not have to register with the Registration Council.

As Ireland moved towards independence from Britain the issue of qualifications for secondary teaching and the provision of courses in education was live one in education circles. The teaching staff of the post-primary system inherited by the Irish Free State was predominantly composed of religious personnel, unregistered with the Teacher Registration Council and with no requirement to have either a degree or a teaching qualification. For the minority of lay teachers who had fulfilled the registration requirements their initial teacher education consisted of passing a theoretical examination having studied for it either independently or as part of an organised University or College course. Those who educated teachers therefore worked in the denominated colleges of education or in the universities. The legacy of the strong denominational, primarily Catholic influence on Intermediate education and consequently on initial teacher training, the influence of payment by results on the teaching methods employed in secondary schools and the equally strong association of teaching with vocation arising from the religious influence on the system, would continue to be felt for much of the 20th century.

The Further Education and Training Sector

Further education and training (FET), i.e. education outside of compulsory education and beyond primary and secondary levels, received little attention until 1895 when the Recess Committee (on the initiative of Horace Plunket MP) was established to report 'on the present desperate economic conditions in Ireland' (Report of Recess Committee, 1896). The Committee recommended the establishment of a Department of Agriculture and Industries for Ireland; called for reform of the education system and requested a new emphasis on industrial related education. In 1900, the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction (DATI) was established, with Technical Instruction Committees (TICs) and County Committees of Agriculture in each local authority area following the passing of the Agriculture and Technical Instruction (Ireland) Act in 1899. The DATI was significant for further education and training provision as it was on the road to home rule in Ireland . One of the challenges faced by the DATI and the TICs was the availability of properly qualified teachers. To meet this need DATI organized summer courses from 1901 onwards in science, drawing, manual instruction, domestic economy and art and had as many as 737 trainee teachers attending teacher training courses, organised by DATI, in 1907 (DATI, 1908). Coolahan (1981) notes that as well as providing technical education through the local technical schools, the TICs supported technical education in primary and post primary schools and provided adult education courses geared to needs of agriculture and industry in local areas. However Coolahan (1981) also notes that

inadequate finance and the outbreak of the first World War in 1914, the Easter Rising in 1916, the War of Independence and the Irish Civil War constrained the ongoing development of further education and training.

Teacher Education Post-Independence

Political independence brought very little change in the ownership and management of schools in Ireland. The new government of the Republic of Ireland concentrated its efforts on curricular change and, inspired by the ideology of cultural nationalism, gave priority to the teaching of the Irish language and the promotion of the Gaelic cultural heritage (OECD, 2003).

The Department of Education (DoE) was established in 1924 replacing the Intermediate Board that had been dissolved in 1923. The study of Irish became compulsory in secondary schools from 1927, creating a difficulty within the system due to the lack of knowledge of the Irish language by a significant minority of teachers; one third of the 2000 registered secondary teachers in Ireland according to a survey conducted by the Association of Secondary Teachers of Ireland (ASTI) in 1922 as cited by Murtagh (2014). Summer courses were organised to develop teachers' competence in the language and from 1926 a proficiency test in oral Irish became part of the secondary teacher registration requirement. Responsibility for Further Education and Training (FET) passed to the Department of Agriculture first and in 1924 to the Department of Education. Because of the involvement and transition between departments education became separated from training and FET was left rudderless due to perceived inadequate impact in building cultural nationalism in a new state. Neither were these Departments adequately resourced to challenge the dominance of the Catholic Church in the provision of educational facilities to the emerging state.

Technical and Vocational Education

In 1926 by the Minster for Education established a commission to advise on the system of Technical Education "... to enquire into and advise upon the system of Technical Education in Soarstat Eireann in relation to the existing and probable requirements of Trade and industry" (Gleeson, 1956). Arising from one of the commission's recommendations the Vocational Education Act was passed in 1930. This Act established 38 Vocational Education Committees (VECs) to replace the TICs and was the first piece of educational legislation enacted by the Irish State. The role of the VECs established under the 1930 Act was to provide continuing education for young people 14–16 years of age to help them bridge the gap between primary education and technical education, and to provide technical education for those between 16-18 years of age. Technical education was education in trades, manufacturing, commerce and other industrial pursuits as well as housekeeping occupations for girls. This legislation established VECs as the major statutory provider of education for adults. The Commission Report also led to passing the Apprenticeship Act of (1931) which envisaged VECs playing an important part in apprenticeship education. However this legislation was largely ineffective until new legislation in 1959 that led to the establishment of an executive state agency to manage, co-ordinate and develop the Irish training and apprenticeship system.

The Commission Report criticised the inadequate provision of teacher training for technical teachers and included a number of proposals relating to their training. These proposals for intensive training

of teachers were not implemented and instead a number of short courses and summer refresher courses were made available.

The training of teachers for technical subjects was a particular challenge for the new Irish State who replicated the model developed by DATI of providing short intensive teacher training courses (special courses) for each technical subject. In time these were replaced by fulltime courses based in Coláiste Carman Gorey, Bolton Street, Cathal Brugha Street, St. Catherine's Blackrock and St Angela's Sligo. But the distinction between the requirements for the teacher of technical subjects and the teacher of academic subjects was quite significant. Teachers of Irish, English, mathematics, commerce and rural science were university graduates with no obligation to undertake any form of teacher training or to register with the Teacher Registration Council. They were, however, required to obtain the Céard Teastas Muinteóra Gaeilge, an Irish proficiency certificate introduced in 1932. Teachers of woodwork and metalwork had to have served an approved trade apprenticeship followed by a course lasting up to two years. They too were required to obtain the Céard Teastas to indicate their competence to teach through the medium of Irish. Because of these anomalies, people employed by the Vocational Education Committees (VECs) in the vocational and technical system, in addition to members of religious orders, could become teachers without ever encountering a pre-service teacher educator.

The Further Education Sector

The development of the further education sector in Ireland was initially influenced by the pedagogical methodologies and curricular process evident in second level education transferred to post leaving certificate (PLC) type programmes. However the teaching model was also influenced by the methods of adult and community education that offered an alternative perspective in education. While PLC courses were provided for functional pragmatic reasons, i.e. to prepare students for employment or progression to higher education, the teaching process of adult and community education had a wider civil society purpose. Hardiman (2014) suggests that the influence of personalities, particularly Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) of Vocational Educational Committees (VECs) and principles of further education centres, was the deciding factor in determining whether the further education provision followed the traditional classic line of teachers teaching rather than the adult/community education philosophy of teachers facilitating learning. Through the 1970s, '80s and onwards as further education programmes expanded to ameliorate the decline in traditional courses and maintain student numbers there was competing interest between traditional methods of teaching and adult/community education models of learning. Though publications such as O'Sullivan (2005) support the notion that adult and community education approaches are valid approaches within further education, the ongoing tension about how learners should receive their learning within further education settings reflected the haphazard nature of the development of further education in Ireland. There was no overall policy or plan for further education other than that developed and implemented by the relevant Vocational Educational Committees (VECs) within each county. However, on the positive side where non-compulsory education officers, such as adult education officers, had the support of their CEOs Vocational Educational Committees (VECs) responded to needs, significant programmes emerged, and provision was very important.

Primary and Secondary Education

Initial teacher education for the secondary sector continued as a part-time programme up to the mid 1970s at which time it was restructured as a one year full time course. At this time primary teaching qualification became a three year Batchelor of Education (BEd) degree awarded by universities linked to the colleges of education (Coolahan, 1981). This was followed by the establishment of in-service training system for teachers through 21 regional teaching centres. The centres offered courses for practicing teachers usually given by other teachers. However there was no requirement for these 'teacher educators' to have a formal recognition.

The Impact of the Teaching Council

In 1994 the Report on the National Education Convention was published following on from a 1992 Green Paper and after extensive public consultation. This report did not mention the role of the teacher educator but it did recommend the setting up of a Teaching Council, a recommendation that would have a significant effect on the role of the teacher educator in Ireland.

In 2006, the Teaching Council was established replacing the Teacher Registration Council. The role of the Teaching Council, as defined by the Teaching Council Act (2001), is to regulate the teaching profession and to promote professional standards in teaching. This regularised the requirements to register as a teacher; a requirement for a level 8 qualification (Primary Degree) and a programme of study in teacher education consisting of studies in the foundation disciplines of education, professional studies and practical teaching (Teaching Council [Registration] Regulations 2009).

By 2011 a number of primary and post-primary Initial Teacher Education (ITE) programmes within the state had been reviewed and accredited by the Teaching Council, and a twenty nine page document outlining the criteria and guidelines for ITE programme providers at primary and post-primary level had been published (Teaching Council, 2011). This included a section on staffing of ITE programmes; the first time that the role of the teacher educator was articulated in policy documents in Ireland. The criteria for a teacher educator included:

- Significant experience of teaching in the relevant sector.
- Registration with the Teaching Council of Ireland.
- Research activity.
- A higher qualification than that which the student is expected to obtain.
- Contribution to the development of a learning community for teacher educators within the individual HEIs and across other HEIs.

(Teaching Council 2011 p19)

The extension of the programme to 120 ECTS of education studies was also included. This led to a change in the ITE award at post-graduate masters degree now being awarded and a subsequent implication for the qualification levels of teacher educators. However, the criteria allow for some flexibility and indicate that staff development policies should be put in place to allow for the updating of qualifications and the development of relevant knowledge/expertise.

Although there are criteria in this document (Teaching Council 2011) for primary and post-primary pre-service teacher educators no such criteria were given for teacher educators for the further education and training sector. However, by 2012 programmes for the further education and training sector were also accredited by the Teaching Council of Ireland.

Irrespective of the sector within which they work in Ireland there is no requirement for teacher educators to register with a professional body, to undertake any formal period of study in the foundation disciplines of teacher education, or to qualify to formally supervise pre-service teacher teaching practice. Additionally there is no requirement for teacher educators to evidence competence in the appropriate pedagogical strategies for teaching adults.

This is not unique to Ireland or to primary and post primary education[4] for, although many Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Ireland now offer courses on teaching in higher education, in almost all European countries one becomes a teacher educator without any formal qualification, preparation or induction into the role (Kosnik & Beck, 2008). The Green Paper on Teacher Education in Europe (Buchberger et al, 2000) highlighted concern about the lack of training for and induction into the teacher education profession, including appropriate methodologies for working with adult learners. Buchberger et al (2000) drew attention to the low professional qualifications of teacher educators compared with other fields of professional education and recommended raising professional qualifications through the introduction of coherent staff development programmes. Although post-graduate qualifications for teaching in higher education may be obtained in many universities there is no requirement for beginning teacher educators to acquire such qualifications.

Mid-Career Transitions

The ESCalate study in England (Murray, 2002) showed that those who transitioned from school to University were generally perceived to be qualified to teach and therefore deemed exempt from such qualifications despite the fact that they may not have had any experience of teaching adults or of andragogical principles of learning. With the exception of the United States of America (USA) and The Netherlands there is a lack of standards and qualifications for teacher educators. Therefore teacher educators have had to employ other ways of learning their profession.

For those who come from the ranks of the schoolteacher into the world of teacher education, conceptual difficulties with respect to identity and to expertise almost always arise. These former-schoolteachers[5] move from a position of expertise in their subject disciplines to a novice position as teacher educators. As schoolteachers they were first-order practitioners in the first-order setting of the school but as teacher educators they are second-order practitioners working with first-order practitioners i.e. the teacher (Murray, 2002). This mid-career transition from teacher to teacher educator with an ensuing change in professional identity should require a need to acquire new professional knowledge and understanding (Murray & Male, 2005). When they become teacher

4 The principal teaching strategy employed in Universities has been the large group lecture which relied heavily on a transmission mode that was not deemed to have any specific skills base apart from an ability to deliver information. It is only in recent years that the notion of learning pedagogical principles in order to lecture/teach in a University has been developed.

5. This assumes that the teacher educator has taken up al full-time role within Teacher Education and has ceased to teach in the school.

educators their knowledge base tends to consist of subject matter knowledge for teaching (Shulman, 1987), pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986) and craft knowledge of classroom teaching and learning (Brown & McIntyre, 1993). As they move from teachers teaching in the first-order setting to teacher educators with an expertise in teaching and learning about teaching, they often find that there is little or no direct transfer of pedagogic knowledge and experience, no formal preparation and little or no support from experienced colleagues (Kosnik & Beck, 2008). Their craft knowledge is often denied in this new setting, particularly if it is practice rather than research-based. In such scenarios their knowledge of teaching can remain static since it was developed for a different purpose, that of teaching a school subject rather than of teaching teachers of school subjects. This is particularly true for part-time teacher educators, many of whom may also be teaching in schools and consequently straddling both first and second-order settings on a daily basis. Their part-time status can result in an almost visitor-like notion of the work, with a resultant lack of any deep sense of belonging to the education faculty of the university/college or indeed to the disciplinary knowledge base of teacher education.

As schoolteachers move from one setting to the other their professional identity and knowledge base are in a state of flux. Their entry into the academy is characterised by feeling deskilled, anxious, vulnerable, powerless and insecure according to Murray & Male (2005). In addition the change in identity requires the beginning teacher educator to "'swap sides' across the University-schools divide" (Martinez, 2008:39), taking responsibility for the University component of teacher education in their relationships with school-based teacher educators. They also differ from other academics as those who have Masters degrees and/or doctoral degrees have generally acquired them at a slightly later age than University academics in other departments and usually as a result of part-time studies (Carter, 1981; Ducharme & Agne, 1982)[6].

Recruitment and Selection of Teacher Educators

Little has been written about the specific practices employed for the recruitment and selection of teacher educators. Although some positions are advertised there is also evidence of word-of-mouth informal recruitment processes e.g. recommendations from existing staff, enquiries by phone, email and letters from interested teachers. Kosnik & Beck note that some HEI teacher educators are full-time academics while others are contracted to the department or faculty on a part-time basis (2008). Noel (2006) indicates that the nature of the available position is significant in these matters. In Ireland while full-time permanent roles tend to be advertised and accompanied by a formal interview, part-time roles, particularly relating to part-time teaching, have been filled through other means such as those indicated above. Teacher educators in the induction and professional development sections of the continuum of teacher education are also recruited through formal interviews where the main criteria is academic qualification at postgraduate level, registration with the Teaching Council and relevant teaching experience within the classroom.

6 Although this pattern is changing as a result of the increasing number of people moving directly into Ph.D. studentships in Education, it remains true for those who have been schoolteachers for a number of years prior to becoming pre-service teacher educators. Since these teacher educators come from a different background to the traditional route into academia they are less advanced in their academic careers in areas such as publications and research expertise; an issue that has implications in terms of appointments to permanent positions and subsequent promotions in the University sector.

The two common threads to all recruitment are the level and type of academic qualification and practitioner knowledge in the form of school teaching. In some countries a doctoral degree is required, in others a Masters qualification suffices and in some, a bachelor's degree is the minimum requirement, but in all cases the pattern of recruitment draws heavily on experienced teachers (Acker, 1997; Hatton, 1997; Murray & Male, 2005; Noel, 2006; Murray, 2008). This emphasis on knowledge-based practice strongly influences the identity of the beginning teacher educator (Davison, John & Murray, 2005) who may see him or herself primarily as a schoolteacher working in a University setting rather than as a teacher educator (Boyd & Harris, 2010). Since the role of the teacher educator in the University differs from that of the teacher in the school, primarily in relation to his/her role as a generator of knowledge (through research) or as a source of knowledge (through teaching), the teacher educator who still regards him/herself as teacher may not be conversant with his/her role as a researcher.

Becoming a Teacher Educator

According to Russell, the cognitive process of becoming a teacher educator "has the potential to generate a second level of thought about teaching" (1997:44) where the focus is on the process of teaching rather than on the content, requiring the teacher educator to be able to articulate his/her pedagogical rationale to the teachers. This is echoed by Loughran (2006) who indicates that the teacher educator has a responsibility which goes beyond merely modelling the type of teaching that is expected from a teacher. He further suggests that teacher educators need to unpack the process of teaching so as to allow teachers to hear about the dilemmas of practice that they will grapple with themselves and the pedagogical reasoning that is employed. It is, in effect, an ability to articulate one's thoughts about the process of teaching while teaching – a process referred to by Schön (1983) as knowing-in-action.

Loughran (1997) also describes four dimensions of professional knowledge of teaching about teaching. These include an understanding of:

- Teachers' needs and concerns in their transition from student to teacher.
- Appropriate ways and times of challenging their beliefs about teaching and learning.
- A range of school teaching situations (content, year level, etc.).
- Approaches and practices in supervision, pedagogy, and, teaching about teaching.

(Loughran, 1997:4).

He emphasises that the content knowledge for the teacher educator who teaches teachers comprises both pedagogical knowledge and subject matter content knowledge. This requires the teacher educator to operate constantly at two different levels; that of teaching about learning while simultaneously teaching about teaching through the pedagogical strategies employed. The issue of what new and different things teacher educators need to know and how they might garner such knowledge is the focus of the next section.

As a later paper in this symposium will describe The Netherlands has developed standards and a curriculum for its teacher educators. In 2003 the standards for teacher educators, first developed in 1999, were updated and approved by the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON). These

standards provide a structure that allows teacher educators to register with the professional body (Murray et al, 2009). In a comprehensive paper entitled "Designing a Curriculum for Teacher Educators" Lunenberg (2002) outlined both the competences required of teacher educators and the pedagogical strategies by which these might be learned. She indicates four extra dimensions that teacher educators require above and beyond what they know as teachers:

- An understanding of the adult learner.
- An ability to bridge the gap between theory and practice both for self and for the teachers.
- Being a role model who can communicate actions at a meta level.
- A reflective capacity, both for oneself and for development with the teachers.

(Lunenberg, 2002).

She also highlights six areas in which teacher educators should be competent: in their subject, in pedagogy and didactics, in organisational matters, in communicative skills, in learning and growing, and in competences that are institute specific. Murray and Male's (2005) research with beginning teacher educators highlighted five areas in which teacher educators acquired new professional knowledge and understanding during their first three years as teacher educators:

1. Pedagogical knowledge and experience appropriate to being a teacher educator.
2. Enhancement and generalisation of their existing knowledge base of schooling.
3. Developing an identity as a researcher.
4. Developing ways of working with mentors in school based settings.
5. Acquiring pragmatic knowledge of the higher education institution and how it operated.

(Murray & Male, 2005:130).

Both studies indicate the importance of pedagogical knowledge at two levels, one that is appropriate for teaching the teachers and the other that teaches how to teach in the first-order setting. Both also highlight the importance of the institution-specific knowledge although in different ways; one indicating the differences between education departments in different institutions in terms of differing paradigms of teacher education, while the other was concerned with the expectations of the higher education institution as a whole.

Professional Development

While studies in relation to the transition from teacher to teacher educator have considered the new kinds of knowledge that the teacher educator needs they have not addressed the workplace learning aspect of becoming a teacher educator. A study undertaken in Ireland (Dolan, 2011) has shown that the processes engaged in by the beginning teacher educator in order to develop the knowledge and skills required include the following inter- and intra-personal processes: articulation of own craft knowledge, critical reflection on that knowledge, generation of a more global construct through reflection and reading, engagement in conversation with colleagues and with practitioners, experiencing cognitive dissonance and exploring that dissonance. However, these processes were informal rather than formal, leaving the teacher educator responsible for his/her professional development.

Conclusion

As this paper has shown, the development of distinctive sectors within the Irish Education system, with different requirements for becoming a teacher, has impacted on the development of teacher educators as a distinct group within the system. For many years post-independence the role of the teacher educator in initial teacher education (ITE) was limited to the provision of theoretical foundations of education for those in the secondary sector, to denominational education colleges for primary level and was not deemed necessary for those who would teach in the vocational sector. The expert teacher appears to have been the provider of continuous professional development (CPD) through subject associations and this still resonates today in the criteria required for appointment to the Professional Development Service for Teachers (PDST) and to the National Induction Programme for Teachers (NIPT). Experience as a practitioner is also required by the Teaching Council for ITE programmes, although the fact that these programmes are offered by third level institutions indicates necessity for negotiation of such requirements. The transition from first order practitioner i.e. to teacher, to second order practitioner i.e. to teacher educator, is largely undertaken as an individual work-place learning exercise. The design of a curriculum for work place learning for teacher educators, for courses that develop their knowledge of the discipline and for opportunities to develop their second order knowledge would be invaluable for teacher educators in Ireland as this role continues to develop and formalise.

References

Acker, S., 1997. Becoming a Teacher Educator: Voices of Women Academics in Canadian Faculties of Education. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 131, 65-74.

Association of Teacher Educators ATE. 1992/ 2002. Standards for Teacher Educators. http://www.ate1.org/pubs/uploads/tchredstds0308.pdf

Boyd, P., & Harris, K. 2010: Becoming a university lecturer in teacher education: expert school teachers reconstructing their pedagogy and identity. Professional Development in Education 361-2, 9-24.

Brown, S. & McIntyre, D. 1993. Making Sense of Teaching. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Buchberger, F., Campos, B., Kallos, D., & Stevenson, J. Eds. 2000. *Green paper on teacher education in Europe: high quality teacher education for high quality education and training.* Thematic Network for Teacher Education in Europe TNTEE: Umea University, Sweden.

Carter, H. 1981. Teacher Educators: A Descriptive Study. University of Texas, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. Retrieved from: http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/detail?accno=ED223563

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. 1999. Relationships of Knowledge and Practice: Teacher Learning in Communities Review of Research in Education 24, 249-305.

Coolahan OOLAHAN, J. 1981. *Irish Education: Its History and Structure,* Dublin, Institute of Public Administration.

Coolahan, J., *The Development of Educational Studies and Teacher Education in Ireland* Education Research and Perspectives, Vol.3/,No.2, 2004 http://www.erpjournal.net/wp-content/uploads/2012/07/ERPV31-2_Coolahan-J.-2004.-The-development-of-educational-studies-and-teacher-education-in-Ireland.pdf

Dale, F.H., and Stephens, T.A., Report of Messrs. F. H. Dale and T. A. Stephens, His Majesty's Inspectors, Board of Education, on Intermediate Education in Ireland. http://www.dippam.ac.uk/eppi/documents/20685 [Accessed 09 February 2015]

Davison, J., John, P. and Murray, J., 2005, September. A little knowledge? —perceptions of the professional knowledge base of teacher educators. Paper presented at *European Conference on Educational Research* Annual Conference, Dublin.

Department of Education, 1937. *Regulations for the Register of Intermediate School Teachers.* Dublin: Stationery Office.

DES, Department of Education and Skills. 2000. Learning For Life: White paper on adult education. Dublin: Dublin Stationary Office.

DES, Department of Education and Skills. 2011. National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030: Report of the Strategy Group. Dublin.

Dolan, R. 2011 A step away from where you used to be: The development of teacher educators' professional knowledge in an Irish university. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Faculty of Education, University of Cambridge, Cambridge.Ducharme, E. & Agne, R. 1982. The Educational Professoriate: A Research Based Perspective. *Journal of Teacher Education,* 336, 30-36.

Gleeson, Martin M., 1956. Development Of Technical Education In Dublin : Technical Education Report Pamphlet. Dublin: City of Dublin Vocational Education Committee

HARDIMAN, F. 2014. Finding a voice: the experience of mature students in college of further education. Adult learner: the Irish Journal of adult and community education., 13.

Harman Akenson, D., 1975 A Mirror to Kathleen's Face: Education in Independent Ireland 1922 – 1960 London: McGill-Queen's University Press

Hatton, E. 1997. Teacher educators and the production of bricoleurs: an ethnographic study. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education,* 102, 237-257.

Hyland A. & Milne, K. Eds 1987 Irish Educational Documents. Volume 1. A selection of extracts from documents relating to the history of Irish education from the earliest times to 1922 Dublin: Church of Ireland College of Education

Korth, B. B., Erickson, L. & Hall, K. M. 2009. Defining Teacher Educator Through the Eyes of Classroom Teachers. The Professional Educator, 33.

Kosnik, C., & Beck, C. 2008. In the shadows: non-tenure-line instructors in pre-service teacher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education,* 312, 185-202.

Loughran, J. 1997. An Introduction to Purpose, Passion and Pedagogy. In J. Loughran, & T. Russell Eds., *Teaching about Teaching Purpose, Passion and Pedagogy in Teacher Education* pp. 3- 9. Oxon: RoutledgeFalmer.

Loughran, J. 2006. *Developing a Pedagogy of Teacher Education*. London: Routledge.

Loughran, J. 2010. A Pedagogy of Teacher Education. In P. Peterson, E. Baker, & B. McGaw, Eds., *International Encyclopaedia of Education. Volume 7,* pp. 587-591. Oxford: Elsevier.

Lunenberg, M. 2002. Designing a Curriculum for Teacher Educators *European Journal of Teacher Education,* 252 & 3, 263-277.

Murphy, C. 1973. Adult Education in Ireland. Dublin: Government Stationary Office.

Murray, J. 2002. Between the chalkface and the ivory towers? A study of the professionalism of teacher educators working on primary initial teacher education courses in the English education system. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Institute of Education, University of

London, London. Retrieved from Collected Original Resources in Education CORE, 263, 1–503.

Murray, J. 2008. Towards the re-articulation of the work of teacher educators in Higher Education institutions in England. *European Journal of Teacher Education,* 311, 17 – 34.

Murray, J., & Male, T. 2005. Becoming a Teacher Educator: Evidence from the field. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 21, 125-142.

Murray, J., Swennen, A., & Shagrir, L. 2009. Understanding Teacher Educators' Work and Identities. In A. Swennen & M. Van der Klink Eds., *Becoming a teacher educator. Theory and practice for teacher educators. P*p. 29-43. Dordrecht: Springer.

Murtagh, L. 2014. From humble beginnings to the dawning of a new era. In Further education and training: History politics practice. Murray, M, Grummell, G. & Ryan, A. MACE, Maynooth

Noel, P. 2006. The secret life of teacher educators: becoming a teacher educator in the learning and skills sector. *Journal of Vocational Education & Training,* 582, 151-170.

OECD, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. 1991. *Review of Irish Education.* OECD: Paris.

O'Sullivan, D. 2005. *Cultural politics and Irish education since the 1950s: policy paradigms and power.* Dublin, Institute of Public Administration.

Russell, T. 1997. Teaching Teachers: How I Teach IS the Message. In J. Loughran, & T. Russell Eds. *Teaching about Teaching Purpose, Passion and Pedagogy in Teacher Education* pp. 32-47. Oxon: RoutledgeFalmer.

Schön, D, 1983. *The Reflective Practitioner.* London: Temple Smith.

Shulman, L. 1986. Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher,* 152, 4 –14.

Shulman, L. S. 1987. Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform. *Harvard Educational Review,* 571, 1-22.

Sugrue, C. 2003. Teacher Education in Ireland. In B. Moon, L. Vlasceanu, & L. Conley Barrows, Eds., *Studies on Higher Education Institutional Approaches to Teacher Education within Higher Education in Europe: Current Models and New Developments* pp. 195 – 222. Bucharest: UNESCO.

Teaching Council, 2009. *Teaching Council [Registration] Regulations 2009.* Kildare: Teaching Council.

Teaching Council, 2011. *Initial Teacher Education: Criteria and Guidelines for Programme Providers.* Kildare: Teaching Council.

END