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Changes in Teacher Education Provision: Comparative Experiences Internationally

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Abstract

Many changes have taken place in initial teacher education (ITE) programmes over the last number of years in countries such as Israel, Portugal, Jamaica, Ontario (Canada), and England. This paper outlines some of these changes, why they occurred, and to the extent possible, how effective these changes have been from the experience of the teacher educators who have written this paper. In particular, they describe one significant change that would greatly improve ITE in their respective jurisdictions. In the latter part of the paper, the writers discuss current trends and possible directions for teacher education across international contexts. With its contrasting accounts of ITE in different national contexts across the world, this article argues for high quality

initial teacher education to provide a global educational workforce in which teachers and learners can flourish within an equal, yet diverse and decolonialised ecosystem.

Keywords

Teacher education changes; teacher education curriculum; revision; initial teacher education (ITE); challenges in ITE

Introduction

The genesis of this article began with five teacher educators from Israel, Jamaica, Portugal, Ontario (Canada), and England comparing the initial teacher education (ITE) provision from their national perspectives and drawing on their experiences and research into their own programmes. Each teacher educator has led (or continues to lead) their respective ITE programme in their home country and is a member of an international council dedicated to teaching and teacher education. These educators are also researchers, and, as such, are both consumers and producers of research, often applying their own and others' work to their respective programmes supporting the premise that teaching needs "to become a research-informed profession" (la Velle & Kendall, 2021, p. 51). Each country has a unique history, culture, and context for education, but there are commonalities in their approaches to delivering quality initial teacher education (ITE). One of those commonalities in developing an effective teaching profession, as Darling-Hammond (2009) outlines, is the need for teachers to be "knowledgeable practitioners" who are able to make "sound decisions about how to shape education for the specific clients they serve" (p. 49), and who are "profession-ready teachers" (Darling-Hammond et al. 2017, p. 49).

Literature Review

Researchers have determined that the most significant factor in effecting outcomes for learners is a competent teacher (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2023; Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), 2011, 2018;), one who is academically proficient, can connect with young people, and is passionate about teaching (Tucker, 2017). This teacher is reflective, enquiring, and provides coherent, transformative lessons (Menter et al., 2017). However, these attributes are not sufficient when we consider teaching for the future. The importance of teachers for both learners and society cannot be overstated (Smoek, 2021); teaching is the profession upon which all other professions depend. A teacher is the key figure in the educational process, organising lessons, applying appropriate methods, and providing feedback to learners (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2017), thus explicitly (through instructional practices) and implicitly (through role modelling) influencing learners to increase their involvement in their own learning (Al-Said, 2023). Society requires strong teachers to nurture great learners: individuals “empowered to be curious, to imagine, to tackle the enormous problems we face today and those we can’t yet foresee” (Darling-Hammond, 2023).

Teacher education and education research must propel the teaching profession to higher peaks of excellence if we are to progress globally together in the face of great uncertainty, unprecedented problems and diseases confronting us as world citizens. This impetus for change must ultimately start with how nations and their respective education systems ... educate their teachers ... (Madalinska-Michalak, et al., 2022, p. 2).

ITE programmes are heterogenous such that different countries enact them in various ways (Day, 2023) to meet their needs. A complex, vital, and continuously evolving professional process

incorporating new ideas from research and practice (Campbell, 2023; Day, 2023; Darling-Hammond, et al. (2017), teacher education has been, and continues to be, researched extensively. Mayer (2014) reports that in Australia alone, more than 100 teacher education reviews have taken place since the 1970's. These reviews and ultimate rethinking of ITE affect all aspects of programmes including structures, processes, and strategies.

Well-regarded programmes in teacher education have consistent characteristics, which Hammerness (2013) summarised as a “clear vision of teachers and teaching, ... conceptual and structural program coherence, ... a strong core curriculum ... grounded in teaching practice” (cited in Brooks, 2021). At times we find governments, whether conservative, liberal, neoliberal, or socialist, increasing regulations and tightening accountability processes (Brooks, 2021; Cochran-Smith, 2005; Mayer & Mills, 2021) making it arduous for ITE programmes to enact and to demonstrate the above-noted characteristics. These governments develop curricula that present their philosophy or beliefs (Bocking, 2022) such as “to improve economic outputs to promote jobs and growth” or “to promote human capacity, build global-mindedness, and improve the human condition” (Fischetti & Lynch, 2018, p. 265) during the mandate of their political cycle, often only five years. These parameters can hamper teacher educators from developing truly transformative programmes. While these governments intend to improve teacher education, which they often argue is ‘not good enough’ with criticisms related to the quality of professional preparation, in reality, they do not. Only quality programmes can improve ITE; programmes that restrict, tightly regulate, or centrally control cannot achieve the improved ITE desired (Ellis & Childs, 2023). It is with this design—to develop a quality ITE programme—that the authors share their findings, their experiences, and their research that we learn from each other.

Methodology

This article began in discussion with five teacher educators from five countries about the ITE programmes each has, after which each wrote about their experience in the context of their home country at the time of the 64th World Assembly of the International Council on Education for Teaching held in June 2022 in Bath, UK. They undertook this project with the belief that a comparison of their provision would help them reach a better understanding of the ITE programmes of their respective countries, which, additionally, could be transcended to international issues and themes of the teacher education discourse on a grander scale. The use of a qualitative approach is particularly useful for this study since it allowed a review of programmes where each was asked to select some changes that occurred, why these changes occurred, and to the extent possible, how effective these changes have been from their experiences. Where possible, the descriptions have been updated to reflect currency.

To develop this qualitative study, each author sought primary-sourced data (e.g., government documents, university decisions, meeting minutes) and reviewed their own experiences since they were involved directly with programme changes to determine the impact of the change(s). Thematic analysis was used to interpret the data presented in each country's description to find patterns of meaning across the data. These descriptions were examined next for their common themes and commonalities were argued further, however, each may stand alone. The question that informed the writing – what change(s) would improve your teacher education programme – gave each author the opportunity to discuss the significant elements of their programme.

Israel

In Israel, initial teacher education (ITE) predominantly takes place in teacher education colleges, totalling 21 institutions, all of which maintain an academic standing. The programmes offered

typically span four years, culminating in a Bachelor of Education degree along with a teaching diploma. Alternatively, students can pursue a first degree, followed by a one-year post-graduate diploma in education. However, teacher education in Israel faces several challenges. The profession grapples with low demand and struggles to attract top-tier graduates, often drawing candidates from the lower echelons of academic achievement. Furthermore, there are concerns that the education provided may not adequately prepare student teachers for the realities of the classroom, leading to a high attrition rate among teachers shortly after entering the profession. These multifaceted challenges underscore the need for continuous improvement and reforms within the teacher education system in Israel.

Over the years from 2017 to 2022, the Council for Higher Education (CHE) has enacted four significant policy actions in ITE. Upon full implementation, these policy actions are expected to have a substantial impact on the structure, content, nature, and pedagogy of ITE. This section provides a brief overview of the rationale behind these policy decisions, the extent of their implementation and their resultant impact on teacher training.

1) Setting new guidelines for all teacher education institutions: In 2017 a national inter-disciplinary committee appointed by the CHE revisited the established guidelines from 2008 (CHE, 2008) and proposed a new framework for all teacher education (TE) institutions. Officially published in 2020, these policy guidelines set the parameters for the structure of ITE, study duration, teaching hours, academic content, and relative weight of various components (CHE, 2020). The impact of these guidelines extends to future teachers, faculty members at teacher education institutions, school students, and teaching and learning.

While the guidelines introduce several notable changes, such as the expansion of clinical preparation and an emphasis on coherence between disciplinary and pedagogical courses, the

main change is the addition of a new 5-year programme. It combines a 3-year B.Ed. and a 2-year M.Ed. programmes, the latter to be completed concurrently with initial teaching responsibilities. The overarching goal is to increase the percentage of teachers holding a second degree, currently standing at 40% (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2022), and to advance the academisation of the teaching profession, thereby enhancing its appeal.

Given the recent launch of the programme, a comprehensive assessment of its full impact on ITE is premature. Currently in a pilot phase with 30 students per institution, the 5-year model is in its early implementation stage. Additionally, uncertainties linger regarding the appeal and feasibility of newly qualified teachers pursuing a master's degree while simultaneously entering the teaching profession for the first time.

2) Promoting internationalisation: While many countries have embraced the internationalisation of higher education (HE), Israel lags significantly in international activities, including student mobility (OECD, 2022). Responding to this gap, the CHE has initiated a five-year plan to enhance internationalisation in all HE institutions, including teacher education (CHE, 2017).

The plan focuses on four goals: increasing the number of incoming international students, strengthening the international competency of Israeli students, fostering international research cooperation, and building local institutional capacity through international cooperation. With a generous budget allocated to this endeavour, ITE has seen positive outcomes including numerous international activities, such as courses and partnerships, involvement in international consortia, student exchange programmes, and increased mobility. During the COVID-19 crisis, international collaborations were further strengthened through the concept of "internationalisation at home" (Greene, 2020), which provided students with international skills

and experiences while engaging in various formal and informal activities (Soria & Troisi, 2014) without exchange travel.

However, the impact remains somewhat limited given the medium of instruction in the colleges of education and the education system is either Hebrew or Arabic, posing constraints on achieving a significant transformation in internationalisation as envisioned by the CHE.

Additionally, the sustainability of budget allocations will play a crucial role in maintaining a substantial part of these initiatives.

3) Reforming English studies: Despite English being a compulsory subject throughout the school years, the achieved level remains limited (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2017) leading to substandard English language skills in HE students. The challenge is particularly pronounced in ITE, where academic admission criteria are intentionally reduced. This pertains not only to the candidate's English proficiency but also extends to other aspects such as the Cumulative Grade Point Average and standardised test scores. The decision to lower these criteria stems from the perceived lack of attractiveness in the teaching profession and the challenge of recruiting suitable candidates (Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013).

All HE students, including those in ITE are required to attain an advanced level of English proficiency to be eligible for an academic degree; however, research has shown that the skills acquired in these courses are often underutilised as students and teachers resort to using Hebrew or Arabic to avoid reading in English (Inbar et al., 2005).

A report from a CHE committee in 2018 emphasised the need for reform in English studies across all HEI (2018a). The recommendations included establishing a common entry-level in English for all candidates, ensuring a standardised framework of reference for describing students' English proficiency, incorporating the four language skills (reading, writing, listening,

and speaking) in English courses, and requiring students to study at least two content courses in English with English as the medium of instruction. The reform was formally launched in 2021 with 2026 for full implementation.

With the full activation of programme stages is still pending, it is still early to estimate their impact on ITE. Nevertheless, scepticism exists regarding the significant improvement in English proficiency, especially among students who do not necessarily require English for their future professional lives (Solomon, 2020).

4) Increasing online teaching and learning: Online learning, including the use of massive open online courses (MOOCs) has entered Israeli HE at a considerable delay after gaining earlier popularity in many other countries (Donitsa-Schmidt & Topaz, 2018). In response, the CHE launched a five-year plan (2018-2023) to promote digital teaching and learning across all HEI including teacher education colleges (CHE, 2018b). The objective was to transition a third of all courses into online formats, aiming to enhance digital competencies and pedagogical abilities among the lecturers, broaden access to HE through online courses, and bolster the standing of Israeli academia.

The overnight switch to online teaching and learning during the COVID-19 crisis achieved most of the CHE's stated goals (Donitsa-Schmidt et al., 2022). In the post-pandemic era, online teaching and learning have become integral to the way HE is situated. In the view of ITE, online teaching and learning is essential to ensure that future teachers possess the competence and confidence to use techno-pedagogical tools in their teaching.

As a result of these four policy actions, three considerations are highlighted. First, the above-listed national reforms align with global and worldwide trends: the extension of ITE programme to a five-year model and a focus on clinical preparation (Darling-Hammond, 2017), the

digitisation and internationalisation of ITE (Rüland, 2021) and the provision of English as the medium of instruction at universities (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2021). Second, since most of these reforms are still in process, it is too early to estimate their impact on the future of ITE in Israel. Finally, no single policy can improve ITE on its own. Instead, it is the accumulation of multiple concurrent changes that is likely to shape the future of teacher education.

Portugal

Over the last fifty years, ITE has evolved greatly in Portugal. This is visible in research and academic publications nationally and internationally, and in ITE programme and practice development. While there is room for improvement at various levels, particularly if we consider the teacher's increasingly complex and multifaceted role today and the participation of the institutions and stakeholders in ITE, overall, ITE is progressing well. The analysis of policy, research, and practice in ITE in Portugal is beyond the scope of this paper instead focussing on the most recent changes that have occurred in ITE in the country.

As with other European countries, the most recent change in ITE was instigated by the Bologna Process. A 3-cycle structure for higher education degrees was defined (Bachelor, Master, and Doctoral degrees) and the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) was created to facilitate student and teacher mobility. As Menter and Flores (2021) argue, transnational agreements such as the Bologna Process in Europe had implications for “new alignments between diverse systems of teacher education, for example in terms of course structures, durations and credit points” (p. 121). While the pace and focus of the Bologna Process has varied from country to country, it has certainly led to discussions and then decisions about the purpose of teacher education and its organisational and curricular models. In this regard, Symeonidis (2018) asserts that despite having had a significant impact on the structure of teacher education systems, “a more profound

influence in terms of changing institutional cultures towards learner-centred approaches is an ambiguous issue and requires more time” (p. 24).

All Portuguese initial teacher education programmes were revised in both structure and content because of the Bologna Process. A master’s degree in teaching became the required qualification for all entrants into teaching from pre-school to secondary school. A consecutive model was adopted. It implied, therefore, a two-stage process which included a first three-year degree (*Licenciatura*) in a specific subject (e.g., mathematics, history) followed by a master’s degree in teaching (usually a two-year degree), combining subject-based with educational and pedagogical components, including a practicum. In the case of pre-school and primary school, pre-service teachers complete a first degree in Basic Education followed by a master’s degree. The first programmes under the new model were implemented in 2007/2008.

The new configuration of ITE that resulted from the Bologna Process was not without controversy. The so-called Integrated Model of Teacher Education implied that the subject area (e.g., mathematics, history, etc.) and the pedagogical component were distributed simultaneously from the outset of the programme (4-5 years including one year of practicum in school). The consecutive model has accentuated the fragmentation of the curriculum components due to the separation between the first degree focusing on content knowledge and the second degree – master’s level – focusing on knowledge acquisition about curriculum, pedagogy, specific didactics, etc., with implications for the links between theory and practice and the development of teacher professional identity (Flores, 2016, 2021).

The legislative text, Decree-Law No. 79/2014, currently in place, stipulates five compulsory components of the ITE curriculum: subject matter; general education; specific didactics; ethical, social, and cultural dimensions; and professional practice. Overall, emphasis is placed on

specific didactics and professional practice. For instance, for secondary school (Master's in Teaching degree with 120 credits in total), ITE programmes include the following credits: subject matter (minimum of 18 credits); general education (minimum 18 credits); specific didactics (minimum 30 credits); and professional practice (minimum 42 credits). The ethical, social, and cultural dimension is developed within the other programme components and has no credit value. The condensed two-year master's programme required the reorganisation of the content and structure of the courses and modules. While political (and micro-political) issues underpin decisions about what modules and courses to include and about the core features of the professional profile of the future teacher, this paper focuses on one aspect crucial to teacher education and particularly relevant in the new model: the practicum.

Despite the separation between subject-matter knowledge (first degree) and educational and pedagogical components (master's degree) and less time spent in schools, the model implemented because of the Bologna Process entailed an interesting and innovative feature related to the inclusion of the research component in the practicum model at the University of Minho (see Flores, 2018; Vieira et al., 2021). As ITE occurred at the second cycle level (master's degree), the research component was tacitly assumed by institutions and encouraged by external assessments (Flores et al., 2016).

Practicum occurs in the last two semesters of the Master's in Teaching degree and it implies the development of a small-scale, learner-centred pedagogical project to combine teaching and research within a praxeological epistemology (Vieira, et al., 2019). The aim is to bring teaching and research together within a practicum model with research at the service of pedagogy under a transformative view of education (see Flores et al., 2016; Vieira et al., 2019, 2021). Additionally, the aim is to make informed decisions about practice that are based on evidence from practice to

enhance teaching and learning. Thus, a three-dimensional professional profile of teachers-to-be is advocated, including the conceptual dimension (the theoretical framework of professional practice), the strategic dimension (the methodological framework of professional practice), and the axiological dimension (the values of professional practice including the ethical and political values that underpin educational action) (Flores, 2018; Vieira et al., 2019).

The design and development of the pedagogical project draws upon a set of principles that include a humanistic and democratic view of schooling, the adequacy of interventions to the contexts of practice and their educational value regarding teacher and learner experience, the use of data collection to support the understanding and renewal of pedagogy, and the enhancement of professional development based on reflectivity, self-direction, collaboration, creativity, and innovation. The integration of research into the practicum, the development of a pedagogical project at school, the development and writing of a portfolio, the final report presented in a public viva voce examination are core elements of the new practicum model at the University of Minho.

Such a model aims at developing student teachers' research literacy to make informed decisions about their practices. A recent study of the 10 years of the implementation of the new practicum model (Vieira et al., 2020; Vieira et al., 2020; Vieira et al., 2021) concluded that supervisors, cooperating teachers, and student teachers' perceptions (perceived quality) and evidence from practicum reports (inferred quality) are, in general, aligned with the model's rationale (intended quality). The model promotes enquiry competences, multifaceted professional knowledge, and a transformative vision of education. However, critical aspects also emerged, namely, that classroom enquiry represents an increase of student teachers' workload and an expansion of

supervision roles which means that support and guidance are crucial to enhance the potential of the practicum experience (Vieira et al., 2019).

One key factor for the improvement of ITE would be a more explicit link between the core components of its curriculum such that the enquiry-based approach to teaching and learning to teach could be enhanced in a more systemic way, both during field work and in course work. The enquiry-based approach is essential in the ITE curriculum through integrating theory and practice, teaching, and research. This approach is fundamental to enhancing the quality of the teaching profession (Menter & Flores, 2021), in developing an expanded and collaborative sense of professionalism, and to fostering collaboration between schools and universities through, for instance, research and intervention projects.

The place of the practicum deserves further consideration in its duration and its role in combining and making more explicit the connection between teaching and research. The reflective component of the practicum and its role in linking theory and practice, and teaching and research should be fostered, but this also demands a more sophisticated role for school mentors, a role where they will need support and resources. An expansion of their role in the education of future teachers and the need to recognise and value their status as mentors are two aspects that deserve further consideration. As Vieira et al., (2019) showed, cooperating teachers/mentors are concerned about their ability to meet the requirements and demands of an enquiry-based approach. This has implications for the selection of the mentors and for their professional development but also for the need to develop mentoring competences that are aligned with the rationale of the practicum model under the new configuration of ITE. Research demands time; both supervisors and cooperating teachers/mentors need to reshape traditional roles and expand professional competences to become partners of pedagogical enquiry and

renewal (Flores et al., 2016). It is also necessary to enlarge the functions of the mentors to have a more active role in the process of mentoring and of assessing student teachers. Usually, cooperating teachers are recruited every year based on formal contacts established with schools: they should have at least five years of teaching experience; experience and training in supervision is valued but not compulsory. To support their learning, a short 25-hour training course developed by teacher educators is offered to the cooperating teachers.

At the time of writing, the teaching profession in Portugal is facing several challenges highlighted by the ageing of the teaching workforce and the decreasing number of teaching candidates. More than 55% of the teaching workforce is 50 years of age or older and the number of teachers under 30 years is residual (Conselho Nacional de Educação (CNE), 2022). By 2030, more than half of the teachers will have retired (57.8%); between 2011 and 2018, the number of teaching candidates dropped by about 50% (CNE, 2019). Over 34,000 teachers need to be recruited by 2030/2031 (on average 3,450 per year) due to retirement (Direção-Geral de Estatísticas da Educação e Ciência (DGEEC), 2021). Teacher recruitment is, therefore, an issue which all those involved in teacher education must address. The lack of attractiveness of the teaching profession, the working conditions (namely bureaucracy and intensification), and the low socio-economic status of the profession add to this problem. These topics have been reiterated in the public space and by the teachers who went on strike for two months. The government of the day has taken an initial step by issuing a new policy text (Decree-Law nº 112, 29th November 2023) in the context of teacher shortage with the purpose of accelerating pre-service teachers' entry into the job market by introducing more flexible ways to educate future teachers coming from different paths and increasing professional responsibilities in the practicum. This new policy has been marked by controversy, because it implies, among other

issues, the reduction of credits attributed to the foundational courses (e.g. pedagogy, curriculum, school organisation, psychology); the reduction of education for candidates with teaching experience or those who hold a post-graduate degree in the subject field; and more intensive school-based practicum where pre-service teachers are hired as teachers and have the same professional responsibilities of qualified and experienced teachers. However, the process of restructuring of all ITE programmes in light of the new legal text now has been suspended by the government and higher education institutions are still waiting for its revision. The need to solve the problem of the quantity of teachers needed in the school system may lead to quick-fix solutions that may undermine the quality of ITE which is a key element in improving teaching and learning in schools and classrooms. What is clear in this context but also elsewhere is a need to invest in high quality ITE to counteract movements which advocate a reductionist and technicist view of teaching. What we need is quality ITE seen as a space of transformation based on an enquiry-based approach and on the view of teachers as professionals.

Similar to Israel with its Council of Higher Education, Portuguese ITE is heavily influenced by its national government but has the additional direction of the Bologna Process, a declaration to ensure comparability in the standards and quality of higher-education qualifications (Alma Mater Studiorum Università di Bologna, 2024) in many European countries. This additional layer focuses the structure of ITE to allow for the development of a three-dimensional professional profile of theory, methodology, and values to support pre-service teachers as they make decisions regarding teaching and their learning. Both Israel and Portugal are directing their ITE towards a master's degree but at differing time: Portugal requires it as the core of its ITE while Israel provides it as part of the early teaching years once the pre-service teachers (now in-service

teachers) are involved in their career. A different programme with different concerns follows with the overview of ITE in Jamaica.

Jamaica

Jamaica has a long tradition of teacher education dating back to the colonial era (1800's). The training of local teachers has historically been a mainstay of elevating the qualifications and social status of Jamaicans from poorer circumstances. It has ensured a steady supply of local teachers to facilitate universal access to education for all Jamaican children to the completion of secondary school (Miller, 2016). The Jamaican government has demonstrated through its policies, programmes and projects, a commitment to providing quality education through quality teaching, and a desire to provide twenty-first century teaching and learning for all. Despite its efforts, however, serious concerns exist about the teaching that students receive at all educational levels and systems (National Education Inspectorate (NEI), 2017) including the calibre of ITE provision.

The Reform of Education in Jamaica (2021, p. 159) report states that:

In 2016 there were eight public Jamaican institutions designated by the MOEYI [Ministry of Education and Youth] as teacher training institutions. There were also three other colleges, one university college and one post-secondary institution offering Bachelor's degrees or Post Graduate Diplomas whose programmes are accredited by the University Council of Jamaica (UCJ). Three Jamaican universities at the time offered B. Ed., B.S. or B.Sc. degrees in a variety of educational specialties. Eight Canadian and American universities offered accredited degrees in education in partnership with Jamaican institutions.

In reviewing the status of ITE, the 2021 report speaks to the recommendation of the 2004 Task Force (Davis, 2004) report on education which led to a major shift in requirements for entering the teaching profession. Instead of a three-year diploma, all teachers must have a 4-year Bachelor of Education degree or a first degree with a one-year post-graduate diploma in teaching. Teachers graduate from ITE with a subject area specialisation and expertise in either early childhood, primary or secondary education. This has been largely successful. The report concludes that because of the required implementation ten years ago, Jamaica now “has a trained education workforce with most teachers having advanced education certification . . . In early childhood education (public schools), about 53 percent of teachers are university graduates, compared to 75 percent in primary and 81 percent in secondary schools” (Reform of Education in Jamaica Report, 2021. p. 158). Unfortunately, however, the report suggests this shift has not done much to improve the readiness of ITE graduates for the classroom, intimating that “weaknesses in the training of teachers” (p. 158) directly affects the underperformance of the education sector.

Several recommendations for improving ITE in the 2021 report, include raising the admission requirements for candidates selected to enter teacher education institution (TEI) programmes. Currently ITE does not attract secondary school graduates who are academically proficient but often the lower tier of graduates applies for entry. Thus, the report recommends (i) increased matriculation standards for students who want to become teachers, and psychosocial screening for prospective teachers to ensure they are emotionally ready to enter the profession. Further, it stipulates that (ii) the model of teaching practicum or field-based practice/internship must be standardised across all TEI programmes and should be reviewed so that teachers in initial training have more internship hours. Typically, field-based training comprises about six hundred

hours over the course of the four-year degree with a 12-week immersion experience in the final year. There have been calls from stakeholders for the final year experience to span the entire year. Additionally, the report calls for teachers in training to receive remuneration while out on school-based field practice. It recommended establishing sustainable partnerships between schools and TEIs to ensure placements for teacher interns; this would address an ongoing challenge faced by TEIs who find it difficult to obtain intern placements in schools.

The most scathing finding in the report is the need to review the curriculum for ITE to ensure its relevance and alignment to meet primary and secondary student and school needs. This points to what is perhaps the most needed change in ITE: improve the quality of those delivering teacher education. Teacher educators in teachers' colleges (designated TEIs) and university colleges consider themselves to be lecturers whose primary role is to teach pre-service teachers. Teacher educators in the three universities are considered to be academics with primary responsibility to teach pre- and in-service teachers and conduct research to publish. As is the case in many other countries, teacher educators, at all levels, do not require professional certification to prepare and certify teachers (Hordatt Gentles & Newman, 2016). In the teachers' colleges, lecturers are usually teachers certified to teach in primary or secondary schools, who take up a job opportunity at a college. The level of qualification required to be a teacher educator is a Master's degree in the subject a lecturer will teach. In the last ten years, many college lecturers have successfully upgraded their qualifications to a doctoral degree. However, very often these degrees are not related to their subject area or to the field of teacher education or teacher development. This is because many lecturers capitalise on offers for upgrading qualifications from offshore universities, who often have partnerships with the teachers' colleges to broker degrees in the Jamaican context. Lecturers are not required to seek permission from the Ministry of Education

to pursue further degrees. To compound the issue, the field of teacher education itself, is not considered to be an area for specialisation by the Ministry of Education, so lecturers tend not to opt for degrees that will qualify them in this field. Recognition by the Ministry of Education of teacher education as discipline and focus of study may spur universities to provide appropriate courses for specialisation.

Little formal training or mentorship is available to prepare college lecturers for tertiary level ITE. Thus, they lack experience and knowledge about developing and implementing curricula for ITE and/or lack knowledge about concepts relating to teacher learning or skills for clinical supervision. Thus, many rely on their own memories of learning to teach, for models of how to be a teacher educator (McKenzie, 2022). Many academics delivering ITE in universities also lack the preparation to do so. Jamaican ITE remains for the most part traditional and teacher centred, and little has been done to confront these issues strategically (Hordatt Gentles, 2018; CARICOM, 2005). It is thus sometimes difficult for teacher educators to recognise what is needed to align ITE with the cutting-edge theories and practices needed to modernise the work of TEIs.

Stakeholders in education have also been calling for standards to guide the professionalisation of teacher educators in Jamaica. If enacted, this reform must be accompanied by the support teacher educators will need to meet these standards. For example, they find that their teaching and supervision workloads are too heavy. The current ITE model used is an academic one comprising theory courses, subject specific courses, professional development courses, and methodology courses with a field-based practicum (Evans, 2011). Teacher educators in teachers' colleges are typically expected to teach between 12 to 18 hours per week depending on their level of seniority. However, in reality, given student numbers, hours served outside of lecturing

for setting examination papers, marking, attending workshops and curriculum development work, lecturers find themselves working 40 hours or more per week just to manage what they have to accomplish (McKenzie, 2022). The supervision of field-based practice also consumes extra time as often lecturers travel far distances in rural areas with poor roads, to see interns. A recent expectation from the Ministry of Education has been that all teacher educators should engage in research and publish their work. To support this, each college is granted the equivalent of \$14,000 USD per year to fund research by faculty. The problem with this initiative is that research has never been made a part of their job descriptions or formal performance appraisals. Thus, research work is seen as an add-on to college lecturers' already oversubscribed workloads. Consequently, the uptake to conduct research by teacher educators has been low.

What is needed most is a deeper understanding of the realities of teacher educator work and why they are not sufficiently prepared to produce high quality graduates. There is a pressing need for ITE to require professional certification for teacher educators both in specialist TEIs and universities. Currently, a Master of Arts degree in Teacher Education and Teacher Development is offered by one university (the University of the West Indies, Mona) with courses designed to prepare educators to understand the context, culture, theory, and practice of teacher preparation. It also provides capacity building for supervision of preservice teachers and teacher leadership (Hordatt Gentles & Newman, 2016). This programme does not yet include a practical component leading to certification. If this were implemented, it would elevate the readiness of college lecturers to prepare teachers using current, cutting-edge theories and learner centred pedagogical skills. Professional certification would be a game changer in supporting college lecturers and thus their institutions to prepare teachers who are ready to become quality teachers.

These writers from Israel, Portugal, and Jamaica are concerned with the quality of pre-service candidates entering their programmes when high calibre academic students from secondary schools do not apply to enter ITE but rather students with lower grades are admitted. They believe this stems from the lower status that teaching carries in their countries, as compared to Ireland, Scotland, and Finland where teaching is viewed with high social prestige, and where candidates compete to enter ITE (Lehane et al., 2023). Anecdotal evidence provided by authors of this paper confirms this belief. In part the acceptance of the current pre-service teachers with lower academic level is in response to the need for teachers when one considers the shortage of teachers in all jurisdictions.

Ontario (Canada)

Education in Canada is regulated by the provinces. Unlike the other countries presented within this article, there is no one central authority that directs the school curriculum, teaching certification or accreditation regulations across Canada (Van Nuland, 2016). The teacher education programme in Ontario (Canada) is caught between a rock and a hard place. The rock is that education in Ontario is tightly tied to politics in Ontario. Ontario's school curriculum is regulated by the government through the Ministry of Education, and teacher education policy including teaching certification and accreditation is regulated by the Ontario government through the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT). Subsequently, policies, systems, and currents of teacher education are greatly shaped and directed by the political discourse of who is in charge and their political platforms (c.f., Barrett et al, 2009 for an example).

The current Ontario Ministry of Education has established a number of committees including the Ministry-Faculty of Education Liaison Committee, that reciprocally seeks input from faculties of education and shares information from the Ministry to the faculties, however, the flow of

information is dependent on the political platform of who is in charge. Unfortunately, there is currently an adversarial relationship between the Ontario Minister of Education and much of the Ontario education sector (e.g., Colgan, 2021) concerning mandatory e-learning courses, increase in class sizes, budget cuts, etc. (Bocking, 2022) and conflict with education unions (Erl et al., 2023). As such, information flow and faculty and expert consultation are sporadic and inconsistent at best.

One of the major challenges (the hard place) involves changing university cultures. Teacher education programmes in Ontario are experiencing what has been happening in many North American universities for some time: an increase in hiring sessional instructors rather than full-time faculty members (Bauder, 2005; Dobbie & Robinson, 2008; Zheng, 2019). Sessional instructors are those whose contracts expire at the end of each course or year. Hiring temporary workers is seen as more fiscally prudent in the increasingly corporate world of academia (Bauder, 2005; Smith-Carrier, 2020; Solomon & Du Plessis, 2023). Specifically in Ontario, university student tuition was cut in 2019 by 10% and since then has been frozen. When coupled with historic underfunding, universities' revenues have eroded further, and diverse revenue streams are needed. One university cost-saving measure could (and often does) include compensating sessional instructors at a lower rate and without provision to medical benefits afforded to full-time faculty members. Additionally, temporary workers often perform unpaid labour because of the precarity of their work and are essentially disposable entities to the university. These workers therefore must constantly prove their worth. Subsequently, aside from cost savings, the universities benefit from unpaid labour of these workers.

In the Ontario Tech University's Bachelor of Education programme, this translates into a high proportion of course instructors who are retired public school administrators and teachers but do

not have doctoral degrees. These administrators and teachers bring many benefits to pre-service teachers, including their depth and breadth of knowledge and experience working within a school system and upholding and enacting policy (Rorrer & Skrla, 2005). By the time pre-service teachers graduate from the programme, they are well-versed in how to perform their administrative duties in their schools. However, this technical aspect is only one small aspect of preparing teachers. A larger, more important job of our programme is creating “transformative intellectuals rather than skilful technicians” (Pinar et al., 2000, p. 260). Aronowitz and Giroux (1985) argue that teachers when viewed as intellectuals, do not have to be “limited by the professional and academic discourses in which they are obliged to function” (p. 56). Instead, teachers can use their intellectualism to make change but must first, pre-service teachers must learn of the power of their intellectualism, how to use it, and apply it to teaching as an intellectual activity. As an example, pre-service teachers initially (and later as practicing teachers), can undertake intellectual and practical research to answer a educational question that perplexes them. The role of full-time faculty members as teacher educators is crucial in assisting pre-service teachers to develop their intellectualism, to ensure that as pre-service teachers and, later as, in-service teachers, they do not relinquish “their role to that of a deskilled worker” (Bellini, 2018, p. 150). Giroux (2011) recognises teachers and equally applicable to teacher educators “as engaged and public intellectuals” who “should never be reduced to technicians just as education should never be reduced to training” (p. 3).

The proportion of those who reinforce the development of skilful technicians has also influenced the structuring of this programme. Important changes were made to the structure of the ITE programme to ensure efficiency, without weighing the consequences of these changes to the ideological basis of the programme. On the 2015 announcement of the newly designed Ontario

initial teacher education programme, all faculties of education worked to develop its structure and content. The Ontario Tech University faculty members collaborated in the initial design of the flagship foundations courses for the Bachelor of Education programme incorporating the principles of universal design for learning and programme coherence. These courses were “carefully sequenced based on a strong theory of learning to teach; ... designed to intersect with each other, ... aggregated into a well-understood landscape of learning, and ... tightly interwoven with the advisement process and students’ work in schools” (Darling-Hammond, 2007, p. 306). Through this foundational series of courses, pre-service teachers learned about the academic and social aspects of teaching such as the hidden curriculum (Anyon, 1980; Darling-Hammond et al. 2019), policy demands of their schools, (Ministry of Education, 2010; Ministry of Education, 2016), confronting deeply held assumptions of teaching and learning (Darling-Hammond, 2006, Van Nuland, 2016), “apprenticeship by observation” (Lortie, 1975), connecting practices to underlying theoretical constructs (Campbell et al., 2017; Darling-Hammond, 2006) and the list continues. The flagship foundations courses have changed. To bring more revenue, the university imposed higher acceptance rates to the Bachelor of Education programme, thus, not all pre-service teachers could be accommodated in these specific courses at the same time. These financial decisions further influenced programme content when full-time faculty who developed the programme were replaced by sessional instructors often without the necessary academic background. In brainstorming solutions to this problem, how to conduct the much larger programme, the development of ‘skilful technicians’ won out. The pendulum swings from teaching as an intellectual activity towards teaching as a technicist activity, when, instead, pre-service teachers should learn to “take a responsible role in shaping the purpose and conditions of schooling” (Giroux, 2010, p. 3). The previously developed foundation courses have

morphed into asynchronous online modules that focus on learning the technical work of teachers. With the emphasis on technicist activity, this programme lost opportunities for investigation conducted by faculty members with a mandate to conduct research that could unearth better ways to teach or work with pupils.

While we are disappointed with this outcome, we believe in the intellectual activity and potential of our pre-service teachers. Many teachers enter graduate programmes where they can develop their intellectualism. Since graduate programme regulations require that only those with doctorate degrees can teach in that programme, it can serve as a conduit for developing skilful technicians into “engaged and public intellectuals” (Giroux, 2011, p. 3), but this depends on what courses they choose to take.

Jamaica and Ontario (Canada) are concerned about the quality of teacher educators in their respective programmes for disparate reasons. In many instances, these teacher educators have a masters’ degree but not a doctorate in teacher education or curriculum, which affects their quality of instruction. These educators bring classroom experience into their programmes but also bring a different viewpoint, that of their own training from many years ago which they developed and expanded upon in their own elementary or secondary school classrooms.

Both Jamaica and Ontario are in position to call for a master’s degree for pre-service teachers since both programmes require an undergraduate degree for entry. This requirement would, in turn, address the need for better qualified teacher educators who would hold a doctorate required to teach in the graduate programme.

The education of pre-service teachers in Israel, Jamaica, Portugal, and Ontario is conducted through university settings with practica located in primary and secondary schools. England, on the other hand, finds its government emphasising ‘school-based initial teacher training’ with

schools undertaking a greater role in planning and delivering this training, marking it as an outlier in ITE reform internationally.

England

Over the last three decades, successive UK governments have made education in England a political football, the focus of their ‘reforming’ policies. It is important to note that the four jurisdictions in the UK: England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland, have over this period developed separate policies and practices in relation to education. In England this has resulted in an unparalleled level of policy churn that, at least in terms of outcomes for school students, has generally had a less than positive effect, although the 2022 PISA results show a small increase in attainment in mathematics, but not for reading or science. Copious documentation on ITE policy, with its accompanying advice and guidance is provided by the UK government’s Department for Education (DfE) (see for example, DfE, 2022a). Alongside and responding to this is a broad oeuvre of research literature exploring and critiquing the UK’s ITE landscape (see for example, Murray, 2012; Whiting *et al.*, 2018), showing that for England specifically, the effect of educational policy changes has been profound. In particular, the general move away from Higher Education Institution (HEI) ITE programmes towards a school-based model of training has seen reduced awareness of the importance of teaching as an autonomous, research-informed, intellectual activity (Duggan & la Velle, 2019) and greater emphasis placed on accountability through such instruments as league tables and inspection outcomes. This has produced palpable change in the values of professionalism. The international debates about the status of teachers (Eloff & Reynolds, 2019) and the importance of teaching as a master’s-level profession (la Velle, 2013) have shown a wide disparity of views about what it is to be a teacher in the 21st century.

In England, teacher educators based in HEI are faced with two competing tensions. The first is that in many universities, contracts of employment require academic staff to be ‘research active’. Funding for research in UK universities comes from central government and the amount of block grant received depends on the outcome of a 5-7 yearly research assessment exercise, or Research Excellence Framework (REF, see <http://ref.ac.uk>). Education is one of the academic disciplines of the REF and for those teacher educators with ‘significant responsibility for research’ (SRR) written into their contracts, participation in the REF up until the most recent exercise, in 2021, is obligatory. This means that these staff must publish articles and/or impact case studies for their institution’s REF ‘return’ to government.

At the same time, ITE programmes come under the scrutiny of the Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills (Ofsted), which, on a 3-year rotation, undertakes inspections to judge ITE providers’ performance in three areas: overall effectiveness; quality of education and training; and leadership and management, and subsequently ranks the provision as either: outstanding; good; requires improvement or inadequate. Both a ‘requires improvement’ and an ‘inadequate’ ranking carry significant implications for the ITE provider and can ultimately result in that provider losing its accreditation to offer ITE courses.

What the tension between these opposing accountability measures means for the university-based teacher educator has recently been the focus of research by Clapham et al. (2023), who found that less than 6% of the research in the Education unit of assessment in the REF has a teacher education focus. Organisations such as the Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET), have consistently argued that teacher educators must be more strongly supported as researchers (UCET 2020; la Velle and Kendall, 2019). Similarly, the British Educational Research Association has set out four main areas for the place of research in ITE:

research within the content of ITE courses; research guiding the design of ITE courses; teacher educators as consumers and, critically, producers of research (BERA 2014). More recently, BERA has shown a strong commitment to close-to-practice research (BERA 2018), which is a form of research that is based on issues in practice, often involving researchers and practitioners co-researching problems that teachers have found relevant and/or useful. Nonetheless, as Clapham et al. (2023) have shown, and despite the remonstrations of UCET and BERA, there are significant challenges facing teacher educators attempting to undertake and publish ITE-focused research (see la Velle & Kendall, 2019) which is returned to REF. For example, ITE programmes last typically six weeks longer than most other courses across a university academic year, which affords teacher educators less time for research; in addition to this, many are experienced schoolteachers who come later in their careers to university teaching and are thus less experienced as researchers. For university-based teacher educators who do not have SRR in their contracts and are not required to produce research to return to the REF, in theory they are free to undertake research at any level of their choosing. In practice, however, they often have heavy teaching workloads and spend many hours dealing with the bureaucracy required by the DfE and OFSTED and travelling often long distances to supervise student teachers on practicum. Nevertheless, post REF 2021 (the next one is expected in 2029) some universities are supporting these faculty members in their local and national research endeavours.

In 2022, the DfE undertook what has become known as the ‘Market Review’ of ITE, which has resulted in the implementation of a Core Content Framework (CCF) for ITE programmes and an Early Career Framework for newly qualified teachers. The Market Review also required all providers of ITE to apply for reaccreditation of their programmes, which obviously had to be revised to accommodate the CCF.

What these points illustrate is the complex backdrop of competing policy discourses and demands that shape teacher educators' work in English HEI. On one hand, there are the high-stakes regulatory and disciplinary frameworks mediated by Ofsted and policies such as the 2022 Market Review, both of which seemingly fail to acknowledge the importance of ITE-focused research. On the other, there are the pressures academics face to undertake and publish 'high-quality' research that can be submitted to the REF. These opposing tensions and the policy discourses that drive them have profound significance for the researching teacher educator. Chris Skidmore, former UK universities minister recently said, "Governments will come and go but our academic sector is truly world-leading and there is so much potential that has been missed by not supporting it properly," (Grove, 2024).

While the research component, i.e., being 'research active', or SRR is required for teacher educators at the university level based on their particular contract in England, it is not a requirement for many of the educators supporting pre-service teachers in a school-based model of training. Neither Jamaica nor Ontario (Canada) requires this component of its lecturer staff (Jamaica) or its contract staff (Ontario); being 'research active' will help to prepare pre-service teachers to use "current, cutting-edge theories and learner centred pedagogical skills". However, the close to practice work of teacher educators without contractual significant responsibility for research is an important element of the focus of university-based teacher education on developing the teacher-as-researcher.

Discussion

In his introductory remarks in his 1934 report to the President of Columbia University concerning the state of its Teachers College, Dr. William Russell, its Dean, stated, "Changes are

worth making only if there is a reasonable prospect that students may be better advised and guided, professors more effective, and education better served” (p. 228). He then continued to explain how teacher education would change and develop better to serve education. Each teacher educator writing here has worked to make Dean Russell’s statement their own.

Across these five jurisdictions, common themes regarding ITE can be identified. The concept of policy related to the development of ITE is prime. In Israel, the Council of Higher Education, chaired by the minister of education, is the supervisory body for universities and colleges with authority to grant academic educational accreditation, determines policy for higher education, and transfer of funds to public universities and colleges. This Council is independent and separate from Israel’s political system to secure academic freedom (CHE Law, 1958), yet the minister of education chairs the committee. The Jamaican government develops the ‘policies, programmes and projects’ and established the Jamaica Education Transformation Commission that “placed major emphasis on teaching and curriculum reform” and “early childhood development” (Patterson, 2021, p. 2) as presented in *The Reform of Education in Jamaica* report (2021). This report is influencing Jamaican ‘policies, programmes and projects’. Approved by the Portuguese Ministry of Education and Science, the legislative text, Decree-Law No. 79/2014, (and now, Decree-Law n° 112, 29th November 2023) provides the legal framework for teaching qualifications for primary and secondary schools. The most recent significant change to ITE in Ontario, Canada occurred in 2015 with the policy development and implementation of a four-semester programme mandated by the Ontario government and directed by the Ontario College of Teachers, the accreditation and governing body for teacher registration. In England, the DfE implemented for ITE a Core Content Framework and for newly qualified teachers an Early Career Framework. In each ITE programme, government greatly influences and, in many

instances, directs where the programme is located, its content, teacher certification, and teacher registration.

The reforms to ITE listed above have been developed through policy driven by the governments or agencies associated with the government of the day even though purported, in some instances, to be at arm's length. Government and political influence can still be noted in these policies. The governments of the presenting countries in this article have affected this construct developing what they believe are the right policies to advance teacher quality and the national economy (Brooks, 2021a).

Structural changes in the education of future teachers include, but are not limited to, the expansion of teacher education in content, length of programme and delivery. Each programme requires a basic undergraduate degree for entrance into initial teacher education; this degree may be taken concurrently with the teacher education programme or consecutively once the undergraduate degree is completed depending on the university requirements. Two of the five programmes require a master's degree, one taken immediately on completion of the undergraduate degree and other taken as part of the professional learning once the pre-service teachers are certified and are teaching in schools. The three other jurisdictions do not require a master's degree for teacher certification, although England's post graduate certification awards credits towards a master's degree, which can be completed on qualification. However, in advocating for a more school-led approach to ITE, the provision from HEI and thus accreditation at master's degree level is dissociated.

In past years, an undergraduate university education was seen as a luxury limited to those who could afford it. Over time it has become the standard for entrance into teacher education, but some jurisdictions now require a master's degree as the basic prerequisite for a teacher, often

developed through a research-based teacher education programme (la Velle, 2013; Tirri, 2014, Aspors & Eklund, 2017) providing teachers with the skills “to make educational decisions based on rational argumentation in addition to everyday or intuitive argumentation” (Tirri, 2014, p. 604). Examples of master’s-level provision of ITE can be seen in Australia (McLean-Davies et al., 2013), Ireland and Scotland (Czerniawski et al., 2018), and Finland (Puustinen et al., 2018). Jamaica and Ontario, Canada have the foundation in place to require a master’s degree for teachers with a research-based programme while England’s direction to “a school-based system of teacher education means that the idea of teaching as a research-based profession is diminishing” (Aspors & Eklund, 2017, p. 401). It is not realistic to expect that pre-service teachers or even novice teachers have developed the qualities and characteristics from the beginning; teaching must be understood in a similar way to teacher education as complex, vital and continuously evolving. With this mindset and a research base on which to develop, teachers grow their expertise, solve their pedagogical questions, and mature with their expertise and experience.

The requirement for teachers to engage in research does not always occur in an ITE programme. Research-aware and more important, research-literate, and research-active teachers are vital to fulfil the need as Darling-Hammond (2023) describes in developing individuals, both prospective teachers and the students they will teach, “empowered to be curious, to imagine, to tackle the enormous problems we face today and those we can’t yet foresee”. Developing research-active teachers can occur in Bachelor of Education programmes where pre-service teachers specifically take a research course that focuses on an education problem. The OCT (Ontario, Canada) directs, through its accreditation process for Ontario faculties of education, that the “teacher candidateⁱ ... use current research in teaching and learning” and the “teacher candidate ... use educational

research and data analysis research” (Ontario College of Teachers, 2022, p. 13). While this policy acknowledges the importance of research, the OCT fails to direct that it be a stand-alone course where pre-service teachers learn how to conduct research, where they can examine a problem encountered on placement, search out possible solutions, evaluate these solutions on how workable they would be in the context of the problem, develop an action plan and see the value of conducting their own research. From beginning to conclusion of their research, they experience their role and becomes research-literate and research-active, guided by teacher education faculty with knowledge on how to undertake these activities. Where ITE policies do not include the preparation of research-literate teachers, Mayer and Mills (2021) argue that they are “de-professionalising teachers and teacher educators” (p. 45) if this does not occur. Brooks (2021b) notes four trends on the diminishing role in research in ITE:

the role of universities within teacher education is precarious, along with the perceived value of research in teacher education ... prospective teachers do not perceive teaching as a research-based profession and therefore expect teacher education to be practice-orientatedteacher education accountability structures downplay the significance of research as part of a teacher’s knowledge base and practical repertoire ... the career trajectories and contractual arrangements of teacher educators reduces the overall research capacity of the field (p. 7).

While these trends may not apply to all the programmes presented, they exist to a lesser or greater extent in some programmes.

Connected to this concern of developing the research-active teacher is the argument that research is embedded in all ITE courses. Research articles written by academics and discussed by faculty members who undertake such enquiry or as described in the Ontario setting, are often led by

non-academics or sessional instructors with limited or no recent experience as researchers. The proliferation of sessional instructors who are often in a precarious situation of job insecurity (c.f., see Solomon & Du Plessis, 2023 and Smith-Carrier, 2020 for a full discussion) has an impact on the research that could occur in ITE. Research topics come forward in many guises; an issue discussed in class that could become an important finding in ITE may be lost because the instructor does not see its significance, is so overwhelmed with their role, and/or recognises that research is not an element of their contract and is not attentive to it. This situation is noted even further where ITE is conducted in a school setting, without the requirement that mentor teachers be involved in research, thus ensuring that pre-service teachers will not even see active research in practice.

Conclusion

It is fruitful to explore ITE in their unique national contexts, but difficult as well. The authors have highlighted several professional problems related to ITE that an international audience can help address. Cochran-Smith (2021) argues that how reforms are designed and implemented in countries varies considerably; this variation

depends both on the conceptually ambiguous nature of teacher quality as a policy concept and on contextual differences, such as historic and cultural values, geopolitical context, current socioeconomic status, the size of the teaching force and the status of teaching as an occupation, organisational governance and oversight, and the problems and promises of local environments (Cochran-Smith, 2021, p. 415).

To a lesser or greater degree, each author presenting their picture of ITE discussed changes in policy, explained different educational models, and emphasised the importance of clinical

practice. Using recently revised guidelines, the expansion of clinical practice is noted in these areas. While internationalisation and accreditation of teacher education programmes were cited, not all programmes have brought these into practice. The difficulties that have been experienced by each authors' programmes and the changes suggested highlights the need to look at the most successful and innovative programmes internationally.

In comparing our programmes, we see many similarities and ways in which we can learn from each other. For example, each jurisdiction is experiencing severe qualified teacher shortages with many school systems looking at programmes that move away from the traditional initial teacher education provision and move towards developing stopgap measures; these may help in the short run but do not provide the basic intensive teacher education. Sustaining teacher education quality requires the continuing maintenance of quality research, the need to research policy and practice and to deploy a wide range of disciplinary methods (Menter, 2022). Strong teacher education programmes are urgently required, now and for the future, to attract high quality candidates and to give them as pre-service teachers the knowledge, skills, and values to impart that knowledge and those skills, and values to empower learners across the globe to develop as creative, constructive, and mindful citizens. Quality education produces quality teaching.

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ⁱ The Ontario College of Teachers refers to students who are in an Initial Teacher Education programme as “teacher candidates” rather than “pre-service teachers” or “student teachers”.