



Centre for Learning, Change and Development

FAST TRACK TEACHER EDUCATION

A REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE ON

***TEACH FOR ALL* SCHEMES**

NEW ZEALAND POST-PRIMARY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION (PPTA)
TE WEHENGARUA

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**by Andrew McConney, Anne Price &
Amanda Woods-McConney**

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1. Executive Summary

This review of the research literature is about *fast track schemes* in teacher education, and specifically focuses on what is currently known about such schemes run by the organisation *Teach For All* (TFA). In stark contrast to traditional university-based teacher education, schemes characterised as *fast track* provide would-be teachers a greatly accelerated programme of study and practical experience for gaining entry to teaching in schools. Within a wide variety of alternative routes for teacher training and eventual certification (credentialing), so-called *fast track* programs have been one of the more visible and aggressively developed and marketed schemes over the last twenty-five years. Initially conceived and developed as *Teach For America*, similar fast track teacher education programs are now also established as *Teach First UK* and *Teach For Australia*, and such a scheme is currently under negotiation and development as *Teach First New Zealand*. TFA schemes have been established in some 18 countries around the world.

This review of the literature was commissioned by the New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers Association (PPTA) *Te Wehengarua* as a means of informing the decision-making of the Association and its members about the TFA scheme seeking to prepare teachers for New Zealand's schools. The review was conducted by Andrew McConney, Anne Price and Amanda Woods-McConney, all lecturers at Murdoch University in Perth, Western Australia. All three reviewers have substantial experience in traditional university-based teacher preparation; two have experience as teachers in public schools in the US and Australia; and, one co-led the design and implementation of a federally-funded, competency-based, alternative pathway to teacher certification in the US during the mid-1990s.

The identification of studies to be included for the literature review was approached systematically, using electronic searches of relevant scholarly databases such as the *Educational Resources Information Center* (ERIC) and the *British Education Index* (BEI) and also utilizing commonly available internet search tools like *Google Scholar*. The review was confined to literature published in English, and prioritised primary, empirically-based research literature published during the last twenty years. In all, about 100 studies are included, the majority from peer-reviewed, scholarly journals, but also including several key reports produced by government agencies and by education or public policy think-tanks that are freely available via the Internet. Some of these reports were commissioned by TFA, and funded by its philanthropic or corporate supporters.

To help ensure the comprehensiveness of this review, three internationally recognised teacher education scholars reviewed the initial bibliography representing the research literature to be included. These scholars included Regents' Professor Emeritus David Berliner of Arizona State University, Professor Andrew Hobson of Sheffield-Hallam University, and Dr. Marie Cameron of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research. These researchers reviewed the list of studies to be included, and recommended additional studies that had been initially overlooked. This process was especially helpful in identifying studies particular to New Zealand (Cameron), the UK (Hobson) and the US (Berliner).

The review of the research literature is structured to provide best-possible answers to eight questions posed by the PPTA. In short form, these questions included:

- What are appropriate, current definitions of *effectiveness* in teacher education?

- What recruitment models does TFA use?
- What different models of TFA exist, and is there evidence about their relative effectiveness?
- Are TFA teachers effective, especially in comparison to secondary teachers prepared by one-year post baccalaureate programs typical in New Zealand?
- How do TFA models impact teacher recruitment and retention in hard to staff schools?
- What impact has TFA had on university-based teacher education?
- Do philanthropic foundations influence TFA, and if so how?
- What is the relationship between TFA and professional teacher associations or unions?

Particularly for the US and the UK, teachers educated, and ultimately certified via alternative routes, are now an established part of the teacher education landscape. For example, by 2008, more than 60,000 alternatively prepared/certified teachers were employed in US schools, and the likelihood of a public secondary school teacher being alternatively or provisionally certified had risen from 2.5% (18,800 teachers) in 1993-1994 to 4.9% (44,600 teachers) in 2003-2004. By 2006, data from the US National Center for Education Information indicated that more than 250,000 persons had been licensed through alternative teacher certification routes. Within this mix, *Teach For America* had 6,000 corps members teaching more than 400,000 students across the US, received 35,000 applications for 4,000 positions in its 2009 intake, and was raising \$100 million a year. TFA schemes are typified by short (5- to 6-week), periods of intensive initial training, and subsequent on-the-job mentoring and/or support during which candidates (also called *associates* in the UK and Australia, or *corps members* in the US) have full responsibility for their students. Typically, the schemes recruit recent graduates with Bachelor's degrees from leading universities and after initial training, place them for at least two years in hard to staff, remote or low socioeconomic area schools (i.e., schools experiencing challenging circumstances). Generally, TFA teachers begin teaching with an initial, provisional or temporary certification (e.g., USA) or as paraprofessionals (e.g., Australia) and most will have gained regular teacher certification by the end of their two-year teaching commitment.

By most metrics, the TFA teacher education brand must be considered a remarkable success. Since first conceived by Wendy Kopp in 1988, the programme has spread across 18 countries, and garnered praise and support from government, business and philanthropies. In addition, more recent editions of the programme in Australia and the UK have seemingly strong relationships with schools of education in leading universities and with school leaders where its teachers are placed for their two-year commitments.

Despite the kudos, however, significant questions continue to be raised about the efficacy and culture of the approach. In the main, these questions and concerns are located in schools of education—the traditional venues for the preparation of teachers for the schools—and among teachers and teacher associations whose mandate includes protecting and advancing the professionalization of teaching. Specifically, questions about the TFA organisation and the teachers it produces centre on the fact that TFA teachers do not receive traditional teacher education and therefore are not as well prepared for the demands of real schools, and hence less effective in supporting student learning as compared to their traditionally prepared peers. Critics have also pointed to the fact that TFA requires only a two-year teaching commitment, and the majority of corps members (associates) leave at the end of that time. This can be a problem, because of the conventional wisdom that new teachers are generally less effective in comparison to their more experienced colleagues, and because of the overt and hidden costs associated with a 'revolving door' approach to teacher recruitment and retention. Additionally, critics have argued that the alternative certification movement generally, and TFA specifically, threaten to undermine the teaching profession and even to devalue public education. Related to this last criticism, it

should also be clear that the emergence and expansion of TFA, and other less well known alternative routes to teacher education, are situated within particular political and socioeconomic contexts. While we agree that those contexts and their accompanying ideologies should be uncovered, and their aims debated by the full range of stakeholders in teacher education, we also agree that such a discussion is well beyond the mandate of this review. We reaffirm that in our understanding, the core business of this review is to locate, describe and synthesize what is currently known about TFA programs and the teachers they prepare, strongly anchored to the published research literature.

The first question asked of this review provides an important scaffold for framing those that follow. In brief, the literature reflects significant shifts in thinking by teacher education leaders, teacher associations, school leaders and education policy makers—around what is understood as *effective teacher education*. These shifts, the result of a variety of confluent forces over the past two and a half decades, move strongly away from focussing on the inputs, structure or characteristics of teacher preparation programs as yardsticks of their quality or effectiveness, and strongly toward various outcomes of teacher preparation. For New Zealand, and Australia more recently, these outcomes focus squarely on standards that describe what graduate teachers should know and be able to do to teach in the schools. In the US, alongside similar standards for beginning teachers, current understandings of effectiveness for teacher education have taken a very large additional step to centre on the progress in learning of pupils taught by teacher education programme graduates. Importantly for programs or approaches that seek to prepare teachers, these shifts towards standards- or outcomes-based understandings provide *de facto* operational definitions of effectiveness that are to be used in the centralised accreditation of teacher preparation programs.

Turning to the question of recruitment of candidates into fast track teacher education programmes, many studies in the published literature detail TFA schemes' use of innovative marketing and recruitment strategies to attract top students from elite universities—a previously untapped market for teacher education. TFA's success in attracting these candidates comes from marketing that appeals to a sense of altruism and social justice combined with the offer of short courses and future career and networking opportunities outside the classroom. Added to this are financial incentives and other forms of compensation. The literature also points out, however, that although marketing strategies that appeal to altruistic motives are indeed worthy and may seem unproblematic, some research suggests the need to interrogate these assumptions more fully.

No studies were found that specifically compared the relative effectiveness of different TFA schemes. Published studies that describe TFA in different countries indicate that many key features are quite similar across TFA programs. However, these do vary in important ways that seem likely to impact their relative effectiveness. Specifically, an extra week of intensive training in the UK and Australia provides important time for TFA participants to engage with fundamental aspects of teacher education. A second key feature of the UK and Australian schemes, in contrast to those in the US, that seems to add strength is partnering with experienced schools of education in well respected universities. The added in-school support of university tutors seems to increase the likelihood that critical 'on the job' training is supported, even if in-school mentoring is not available or effective. Also, the requirement of both the Australian and UK TFA schemes that all candidates (associates) attain a regular teaching qualification by the end of either the first or second year has the potential to add an important venue for supporting the development of TFA teachers.

On the key question of the effectiveness of TFA-prepared teachers in supporting the learning of their students in comparison to their traditionally-prepared colleagues, few well designed studies exist—on a scale large enough to be useful to decision makers—that have systematically examined this issue. Only one recent US study and one UK evaluation have done this for secondary school teachers. Based on the few studies that do address this question directly, the evidence about TFA teachers is mixed. On balance, there is insufficient evidence to conclude that TFA teachers are systematically less effective in fostering or advancing student learning than their traditionally prepared peers, either novice or experienced. In fact, a majority of the currently available evidence reports an advantage for TFA teachers, particularly in the areas of mathematics and science.

The majority of these studies used standardised assessments (e.g., SAT 9, ITBS, GCSE) as measures of students' progress in learning, and hence as reflective of the relative effectiveness of differently prepared teachers. The literature makes clear that many teachers and teacher educators are concerned about the use of such tests because they measure only a small part of students' learning, and focusing on these measures may mean that important aspects of learning are missed. Additionally, many would argue that the effectiveness of a teacher comprises more than standardized measures of students' learning. However, although their limitations are well documented, standardized tests do measure learning outcomes—albeit imperfectly—that have been agreed as important, and may also provide early warning of gaps in students' progress, or in the quality of schools or teaching. Thus, in regard to student learning as the sole criterion for teacher effectiveness, it would seem widely accepted that it is by itself, not a *sufficient* criterion, but that it is nevertheless a *necessary* one.

Like the relative effectiveness of teachers, the retention of new teachers is a longstanding issue in the schools, particularly for those in challenging circumstances. It is reported that 30% of new teachers leave in the first year, and 50% leave within the first 5 years. Few studies provide actual data around the retention of TFA teachers in the schools. Some studies indicate that attrition rates are higher for alternatively prepared teachers in their first years, and the impression is that TFA-prepared teachers do not tend to stay in education for long. Other studies point out that the rates of retention for TFA teachers are comparable for new teachers in schools in challenging circumstances and in recent evaluation studies, indicators of early attrition rates for TFA-prepared teachers appear similar to those prepared by other routes. It should also be remembered, however, that TFA schemes are built around a two-year teaching commitment required of associates or corps members. The relatively short duration of this commitment means that hiring a TFA teacher is likely to have both overt and hidden costs for schools and students.

TFA and other fast track teacher preparation schemes have also come under heavy criticism because of their perceived potential for negatively impacting traditional teacher education, and public education more generally. Although few studies have addressed this issue empirically, three areas of possible impact have been inferred from the research literature: (1) the promotion of a view of teacher preparation that de-skills the profession of teaching and potentially devalues public education; (2) the potential for unfair competition for teacher education students, and (3) the heightened interrogation of the quality of teacher education resulting in the development of national standards for teachers and teacher education.

On the positive side, as described above, there seems little doubt that the development of consensus resulting in national standards that guide teacher preparation has been fuelled by the rise of the alternative teacher preparation movement, and perhaps most strongly by the success of fast track schemes like TFA. On the negative side, however, it also seems quite clear that fast track schemes carry with them strong potential to communicate an understanding of teacher

education that discounts the complex nature of teaching, in that the fast track approach implicitly suggests that few special skills are needed to teach.

Similar to the lack of evidence about the relative effectiveness of various TFA schemes in operation, there is little direct evidence in the research literature regarding the motivations or influence of philanthropic foundations on TFA schemes. Additionally, to date, foundations supporting TFA in Australia and the UK do not have as publicly articulated political or social agendas for educational reform generally, as do their American counterparts. However, the extent to which those who are significant donors, such as the Walton Family Foundation, are actively and overtly engaged in attempting to shape educational policy would seem to indicate that the TFA model fits well with their vision for reformed public education systems. These reform agendas seem well aligned with privatized, market-driven educational systems, and a focus on standardised testing of student achievement used as the *sine qua non* of school and teacher effectiveness.

Lastly, policy documents and media statements reveal clearly that professional teacher associations and/or teacher unions in the US, UK and Australia consider fast track teacher preparation schemes like *Teach For All* to be a significant threat to the professional status and standards of teaching. While in most cases teacher associations offer measured support to alternative routes to certification, the minimalist and highly technicist approach to teacher education and the inherent assumptions that anyone who is bright and enthusiastic can teach are generally viewed as insulting and wrong, and devaluing of teachers and traditional teacher education.

In summary, at present, the story of TFA is neither black nor white, but rather a 'shades of grey' story. In other words, TFA is the type of story without straightforward or neat answers, that few want to hear, and few want to tell, particularly those who are evangelical in their support or scorn for the fast track approach to teacher preparation.

On the positive side are TFA's remarkable global expansion, success in securing philanthropic and corporate support, selective recruitment of highly able university graduates into teaching and public education more generally, and apparently healthy relationships with prestigious university partners in the UK and Australia. Perhaps most critically, the few well-designed, larger-scale studies that have been conducted to date on balance seem to demonstrate that TFA-prepared teachers are at least as effective in fostering student learning as compared to their traditionally-prepared colleagues, and perhaps more so in subjects like mathematics and science.

On the negative side, a high proportion of TFA-prepared teachers leave teaching after two years. It is a design feature of the TFA strategy that its teachers need only make a two-year commitment to teaching in the schools; this revolving door approach to teacher retention necessarily means both direct and hidden costs to the schools and students of TFA teachers, and these costs would seem particularly burdensome for schools in challenging circumstances. In addition to high turnover, many traditional teacher education stakeholders have observed TFA's apparent alignment with the rise of deregulation, choice and marketization, key planks in a neoliberal/neoconservative educational reform agenda. Evidence for this is drawn from the public values of some philanthropies and businesses that support TFA, and from oftentimes less than friendly relationships with teacher unions. Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, TFA and its alternative route teacher education peers are often portrayed as having a high potential for reversing the progress made on advancing teaching as a profession. The logic of this perspective is that by its very operation, TFA promotes the view that effective teachers simply need sound knowledge of the subject to be taught, as well as a healthy sense of altruism and/or social justice

that frames and supports their work in challenging schools. In other words, the continued existence of TFA poses an existential question for traditional teacher education and potentially calls into question the value of teachers it prepares.

One final point seems worth observing. As noted in the answer to the first question asked of this review, the Western democracies in which TFA is established, and from which the bulk of research for this review has been sourced, have universally moved to a view of effectiveness (and therefore quality) in teacher education based on sets of standards that specify what graduate (and other) teachers should know and be able to do *to take up positions as teachers in the schools*. In the US, teacher education authorities have taken this one large step further by also including the effectiveness of new teachers in advancing the learning of their students. An outcomes view of effectiveness, and more specifically the standards for new teachers, provides operational definitions that are to be used for accrediting programs that prepare teachers for the schools. In the first instance, it will be interesting to observe whether all programs that train teachers are held to similar standards regarding the knowledge and skills of the prospective teachers they prepare. In the second instance, it will be equally interesting to observe what evidence may be provided by both traditional and alternative routes, including fast track pathways, to demonstrate that graduate teachers do indeed meet the standards required, and therefore that the various programs are indeed effective.

2. List of Acronyms

ACER	Australian Council for Educational Research
ACP	Alternative Certification Program
AERA	American Educational Research Association
AFT	American Federation of Teachers
AITSL	Australian Institute for Teaching & School Leadership
APA	American Psychological Association
BEI	British Education Index
CALDER	(US National) Center for the Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research
CLCD	Centre for Learning, Change and Development (Murdoch University, Perth, Western Australia)
COAG	Coalition of Australian Governments
DEEWR	Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (Australia)
DfE	Department for Education (UK)
DOE	Department of Education (USA)
EOC	End of course tests (examinations used at the end of courses/units taken for credit in high schools in North Carolina)
ERIC	Education Resources Information Center
ERO	Educational Review Office (New Zealand)
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education (UK)
INTASC	Interstate New Teacher Assessment Support Consortium
ITBS	Iowa Test of Basic Skills
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
ITET	Initial Teacher Education and Training
ITP	Initial Teacher Preparation
ITT	Initial Teacher Training
MCEECDYA	Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs (Australia)
MGSE	Melbourne Graduate School of Education

MU	Murdoch University
NBPTS	National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (USA)
NCATE	National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (USA)
NEA	National Education Association (USA)
NPD	National Pupil Database (UK)
NZCER	New Zealand Council for Educational Research
NZQA	New Zealand Qualifications Agency
NZTC	New Zealand Teachers Council
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PLASC	Pupil Level Annual Schools Census (UK)
PPTA	New Zealand Post Primary Teachers' Association <i>Te Wehengarua</i>
PRAXIS	<i>Praxis Series</i> TM tests developed and administered by the Educational Testing Service in the US, measure teacher candidates' knowledge and skills. The tests are used for licensing and certification processes.
RCT	Randomized controlled trial (experimental research design)
SAT 9	Stanford Achievement Test, 9 th Edition
SES	Socioeconomic Status
SKA	Subject Knowledge Audit
TFA ¹	<i>Teach For All</i>
TQNP	Teacher Quality National Partnership (Australia)
TRB	Teacher Registration Board (New Zealand)

¹*Teach For America* and *Teach For Australia* also carry the TFA acronym. To avoid confusion, when we refer to these programmes specifically, we have used their full names except in cases where the context makes sufficiently clear the programme being discussed.

3. Acknowledgement

We are deeply grateful to Regents' Professor Emeritus David Berliner (Arizona State University), Dr. Marie Cameron (New Zealand Council for Educational Research) and Professor Andrew Hobson (Sheffield Hallam University) for their contributions to this review of the research literature concerning *Fast Track Teacher Education Schemes*. Each of these internationally recognized teacher education scholars independently reviewed the results of our literature search (in the form of an annotated bibliography) primarily for completeness and relevance to the topic. As part of their review, each scholar also suggested, and in some cases provided, additional studies relevant to the topic. Undoubtedly, the deep knowledge and experience of initial teacher education brought by each of these scholars substantially strengthened this review, and we thank Andy, David, and Marie for generously sharing their expertise.

In the final review, nevertheless, any unintended omission of relevant research or misrepresentations of published studies remain the sole responsibility of the report's authors.

Andrew McConney Anne Price Amanda Woods-McConney

4. Background and Purpose

This review of the research literature provides a comprehensive, international examination of *Fast Track Teacher Education Schemes*, with particular focus on *Teach For All* (TFA). The review was commissioned by the New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers' Association *Te Wehengarua* (PPTA) in April 2011; the terms of reference for the review were agreed with Murdoch University (MU) in May 2011, for anticipated completion by the end of November 2011. The review of so-called fast track TFA routes to initial teacher education (ITE)² was conducted by Dr. Andrew McConney, Dr. Anne Price and Dr. Amanda Woods-McConney, lecturers at Murdoch University's School of Education, and the project managed by MU's Centre for Learning, Change and Development (CLCD)³.

The terms of reference for this review of research specify that its central purpose is *to provide a systematic and comprehensive examination of research evidence on the genesis, operation and effectiveness of Fast Track Teacher Education Schemes, with particular emphasis on Teach For All*. Further, the review of literature is charged with synthesizing the findings of local, regional and international studies on fast track (TFA) ITE schemes in an evidence-based yet non-technical, easy-to-access format. The review was conducted between May and November 2011 and began with searches of relevant scholarly databases such as the *Educational Resources Information Center* (ERIC) and the *British Education Index* (BEI) and also utilized commonly available internet search tools like *Google Scholar*. The review was confined to literature published in or translated into English, and prioritised primary, empirically-based research literature published during the last twenty years.

In keeping with PPTA's request, the systematic review specifically examined what research evidence currently exists that addresses the following questions:

1. What does the literature indicate to be appropriate definitions of "effectiveness" in teacher education? (Such definitions might encompass, for example, impact on student teacher learning or satisfaction, impact of teacher education graduates on the learning of their students, measures of new teacher retention, etc.)
2. What different recruitment models are used by TFA schemes, including academic requirements, and how do these compare with recruitment to traditional secondary teacher education programmes?

² We use the term *initial teacher education* (ITE) to refer to what is also commonly called initial teacher training (ITT), initial teacher preparation (ITP), initial teacher education and training (ITET) and pre-service training or simply, teacher education. For this review, we use the various terms interchangeably, for reasons of context or style. We also use the terms "student teacher," "preservice teacher," "prospective teacher," "trainee," and "trainee teacher" interchangeably to refer to those undertaking ITE programs.

³ The CLCD, MU and the review authors are not aware of any conflict of interest between the Centre, the University or its researchers and PPTA. Equally, the CLCD, MU and review authors have no connection with, and no stake in, the operation of alternative or fast track routes to initial teacher education in New Zealand, Australia or elsewhere, including those that could be characterised as *fast track schemes*. All three authors have worked in "traditional" university-based teacher education for many years; two (Price and Woods-McConney) also have extensive experience as classroom teachers, and one (Woods-McConney) co-led the development and operation of a competency-based alternative teacher preparation scheme (*Troops to Teachers*) at Western Oregon University in the mid-1990s.

3. What different models of TFA training schemes exist, and what evidence exists to show the relative effectiveness or otherwise of these schemes?
4. What comparative research exists to show the effectiveness of fast-track teacher education (i.e., TFA) compared with the one-year graduate programmes normally used in New Zealand for preparation for secondary teaching?
5. What evidence exists about whether TFA models of teacher education have impacted positively on the recruitment and retention of high quality teachers in hard-to-staff schools?
6. What impact has the rise of TFA models of teacher education had on existing university/college-based models of teacher education?
7. What evidence exists about the motivations and influence of philanthropic foundations on TFA at an international level and at the level of individual schemes?
8. What evidence exists about relationships between TFA programmes and professional teacher associations/teacher unions in relevant countries?

Given these questions and the existing literature surrounding teacher preparation and early career teacher development, a strong focus for this review is the *comparative effectiveness* of traditional and alternative⁴ (*fast track* or *Teach For All*) approaches. In particular, we have endeavoured to focus on evidence-based comparisons of the outcomes of teacher education, including recruitment and retention in the profession and the effectiveness of graduates in fostering student learning and development. In keeping with PPTA's interests, we have also emphasised when possible research on *fast track* programmes for secondary rather than primary school teaching. Further, in answering particular questions about the comparative effectiveness of teachers or ITE programs, we have endeavoured to assess the quality of evidence provided by each relevant study, including analysis of the genesis of the research and whether there may be indication of bias as a result.

Importantly, we have designed this review of the research literature to be robust in two ways:

1. an international panel of three educational researchers with expertise in the provision of initial teacher education—including knowledge of those approaches that can be characterised as fast track schemes—reviewed the list (annotated bibliography) of studies initially included, to ensure the comprehensiveness of the review;
2. where feasible, the review's authors have assessed relevant empirical studies that include outcomes of fast track TFA ITE schemes in terms of the strength and/or quality of the evidence each study provides.

In these two ways, we have attempted to ensure that this review of the research literature is both *comprehensive* (at an international level), as well as *useful* in terms of allowing differentiation between the strength and/or quality of evidence provided by various studies included in the review, and regarding the topics of interest to the PPTA.

⁴ As recently explained by Glass (2008), *alternative teacher certification* is generally understood as a program leading to a teaching certificate (or license) designed for persons who have not followed a traditional path through pre-service teacher training programs. Typically, alternative routes to teacher certification require significantly less time than traditional routes. In the US, Glass noted that there were more than 140 alternative routes to certification or provisional certification. Similarly, Owings, Kaplan, Nunnery, Marzano, Myran and Blackburn (2006) define an alternative certification program (ACP) as any pathway to a teaching certificate that falls outside the full-time, 4- or 5-year traditional teacher preparation programs, and counted 538 ACPs in the US in 2004.

As foregrounded by PPTA in its request for proposals for this review, the last couple of decades have witnessed the rapid spread and development of alternative and fast-track teacher education schemes around the world. The design and worldwide expansion of such schemes has been led, and made highly visible, in part by an international organisation known as *Teach For All* (www.teachforall.org). TFA's website currently lists 18 countries that have initiated versions of such schemes, including Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Chile, China, Estonia, Germany, India, Israel, Latvia, Lebanon, Malaysia, Pakistan, Peru, Spain, the UK, and the USA. TFA's programs operate under a variety of names, including: *Teach For America, Teach For Australia, Teach For Bulgaria, Teach First UK, Teach First Deutschland, etc.*

In general, TFA schemes are typified by short, intensive periods of initial training (usually a 5- or 6-week residential programme during the summer months), and subsequent, sometimes substantial, on-the-job training during which trainees (also called TFA *associates* in the UK and Australia, or *corps members* in the US) have full responsibility for their students' learning. Typically, the schemes recruit recent graduates (with Bachelor's degrees) from leading universities and after a short period of intensive training, places them to teach for at least a couple of years in hard to staff, remote or low socioeconomic (SES) area schools (i.e., schools that are experiencing challenging circumstances). Generally, TFA teachers begin teaching with an initial, provisional or temporary certification (e.g., USA) or as paraprofessionals (e.g., Australia) and most will have gained regular teacher certification/registration by the end of their two-year teaching commitment.

Fast track TFA schemes have made various strong claims about being successful approaches to teacher education, based on a number of studies done internationally, sometimes commissioned by the schemes themselves, and often funded by one or more philanthropic foundations. The most recent example is an evaluation of second year TFA teachers conducted by researchers at the Universities of Southampton and Manchester, titled *Maximum Impact Evaluation: The impact of Teach First teachers in schools* (Muijs, Chapman, Collins, & Armstrong, 2010). This evaluation study was funded for *Teach First UK* by the Goldman Sachs Foundation. The evaluation asserts, for example, that *Teach First* is having a positive impact on schools in challenging circumstances, and also claims that the *Maximum Impact* report provides statistical evidence of the link between the presence of *Teach First UK* teachers and improved student attainment, as measured by General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) results.

In the case of New Zealand, *Teach First NZ Trust* is currently working with Auckland University to develop a similar fast track scheme. According to the PPTA, *Teach First NZ Trust* documentation indicates that it has been working with TFA's *Early Stage Relations team* since 2009, and aims to form an official partnership by mid-2011. Additionally, *Teach First NZ* has secured support from the Tindall Foundation and the Aotearoa Foundation, and corporate support from Chapman Tripp, Deloitte, KPMG and Creo Communications. Also according to the PPTA, TFA hopes to have an initial teacher training scheme in place in New Zealand by the 2013 school year, with the first cohort of recruits enrolled in a six-week residential summer programme towards the end of 2012, in preparation for teacher placements in schools at the start of the 2013 school year.

5. Literature Review Method

The methodological approach used for this systematic review of the empirical research literature on fast track (TFA) teacher education schemes comprised several interrelated and complementary steps, as follows:

Step 1: initial search of the research literature. First, the principal investigators conducted an extensive search of the extant research literature using a variety of strategies. The search strategies included:

- **Extensive Search of Electronic Databases:** we first identified key words and/or phrases for the topic (*Fast Track Teacher Education Schemes, TFA*) and searched a variety of well established electronic databases for relevant empirical research studies. The main search phrases we used included:
 - *fast track teacher education* and its variants, such as *fast track teacher preparation, fast track teacher training* or *fast track teacher certification*;
 - *alternative teacher education* and its variants, such as *alternative teacher preparation, alternative teacher training* or *alternative teacher certification*;
 - *Teach For All, Teach For America, Teach For Australia, Teach First UK, etc.*

Other keywords used in combination with these main search phrases included *research, effectiveness* (and its variants, such as *effects* or *effective*) and *outcomes*. In the main, for the initial electronic search, major education-related research databases were accessed via Murdoch University's library portal. These education databases included:

- ✓ *A+ Education*, a database built on the Australian Education Index produced by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) that provides indexes and abstracts of published and unpublished material on all levels of education and related fields, and that includes information published in Australia and Australian content published internationally.
- ✓ *Academic OneFile*, a multidisciplinary collection of journals (many of them peer-reviewed) and reference sources.
- ✓ *British Education Index* which provides access to all of the Index's records for education-related texts, freely available internet resources, and the most recently indexed journal articles not yet included in the full BEI subscription database.
- ✓ *CBCA Education*, a database of Canadian education journals, magazines and newsletters that includes information on teaching, educational research, and educational administration.
- ✓ *ERIC*, the US-based Education Resources Information Center sponsored by the US Department of Education that is arguably the largest electronic database globally that indexes and abstracts international documents and journal articles on all levels of education, education research and related subjects.
- ✓ *ProQuest*, a multidisciplinary collection of journals, magazines and theses, including many business, management and economics resources that includes ABI/INFORM Global and Dissertations and Theses.
- ✓ *SAGE Journals Online*, a multidisciplinary collection of journals, including many education, humanities, social sciences, science, and technology titles.

In addition, other databases—perhaps less uniquely focused on education issues—such as *JSTOR* and *Web of Knowledge*, were also included in the initial and subsequent electronic searches. In addition to searching established academic databases, commonly used internet search engines such as *Google Scholar* <http://scholar.google.com> were also utilized, particularly as a means of comparing search results generated from academic databases accessible via the MU library portal versus those generated outside of that portal;

- **Conference Proceedings:** we also conducted searches of the archived conference proceedings and other publications of topic-relevant associations, such as the American Educational Research Association (AERA), the Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE), and the British Educational Research Association (BERA);
- **Hand Searches:** we conducted hand searches of the past 20 years (on average) of the most prominent, core journals for teacher education research such as *Journal of Teacher Education* and *Teaching and Teacher Education*, as well as highly regarded reference works such as the *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* and the *Teacher Education Yearbook (VIII)* for empirical studies of alternative, fast track, or TFA schemes in teacher education;
- **Website Searches:** we searched the websites of relevant organizations whose work or research encompasses the topic area, including the New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER), the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER), the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the ten regional laboratories funded by the federal Institute of Education Sciences in the US, and, the websites of TFA programmes themselves.

In the initial search of the research literature, we endeavoured to maintain focus on the *primary research*⁵ literature related to the topic at hand. We did also recognize, however, that the studies that we located varied in their direct relatedness to examining fast track TFA schemes, and also that there was variation in the rigor, scale and design quality of the empirical studies that did examine such schemes. As a result, identified studies that appeared generally relevant to fast track TFA schemes in teacher education were then further screened regarding the relevance of the research topic and design, the relevance of the study participants to the populations of interest, the timeliness of the study, and the relevance and validity of any outcome measures. In this way, the studies (journal articles, research reports, conference papers) that resulted from our initial search were screened to prioritise studies that empirically examine the effectiveness of fast track ITE schemes, and in particular, *Teach For All* (TFA) programs.

Some non-empirical studies were also included if they pointed up, conceptualised, or elaborated the challenges, benefits and/or limitations faced by fast track schemes, or alternatively, the context within which TFA schemes have developed and grown. Together, empirical and non-empirical studies were used to develop an initial annotated bibliography around alternative or fast track TFA routes to ITE, with emphasis on both proximal and distal outcomes and on teacher education for secondary (high school) teaching.

Step 2: external review. As an external check on the *comprehensiveness* of the research literature gathered and screened by the principal investigators, and the resulting annotated bibliography, a

⁵ Primary research refers to those studies reported in the literature that were authored by the researchers themselves; this is in contrast to *secondary* sources, such as reference works or handbooks of research in which the author(s) may be different from the researcher(s) who conducted the study being reported.

small group (3) of leading experts in ITE provision, and research surrounding ITE, were contacted and asked to review the annotated bibliography initially generated (see Appendix A). Further, the reviewers were asked to suggest relevant articles, books and/or reports that they believe important to the topic, but which were missing from our initial list.

The group of external reviewers included:

1. David Berliner, Regents' Professor Emeritus of Education at Arizona State University (USA). Professor Berliner is a member of the National Academy of Education, a Fellow of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, and a past president of both the American Educational Research Association (AERA) and the Division of Educational Psychology of the American Psychological Association (APA). He is the recipient of awards for distinguished contributions from APA, AERA, and the National Education Association (NEA). Emeritus Professor Berliner holds expertise in educational psychology, teacher education, and educational policy.
2. Marie Cameron, independent researcher with NZCER. Dr. Cameron has expertise in teacher education and professional learning, educational leadership and school development, literacy, and the evaluation of educational initiatives. Dr. Cameron has worked on several projects with NZCER teams, and is currently leading a longitudinal study of 60 primary and secondary teachers beginning their third year of teaching.
3. Andrew J. Hobson, Professor in the Department of Teacher Education at Sheffield Hallam University. Professor Hobson's research is concerned predominantly with the experiences of and support for trainee, new and recently qualified teachers. He has particular interests in teacher mentoring and wellbeing, has published widely, and has led several significant research and evaluation projects in this field. Professor Hobson reviews for or sits on the editorial advisory board of a number of international peer reviewed journals in education.

The external reviewers are all highly regarded experts in research on initial teacher education and were representative of a range of national contexts (USA, New Zealand, and UK) in which fast track TFA schemes (and other alternative routes to initial teacher preparation) have been operating, or are under development. Their qualifications and expertise helped ensure that this review of the literature comprehensively addresses the research questions asked about fast track schemes generally and TFA schemes in particular.

Step 3: additional gathering of relevant research, and assessment of the quality of studies. As a result of the expert panel external review in Step 2, the list of studies included in the annotated bibliography and reviewed for this report was re-examined, taking account of recommendations made by the panel. In all, about a dozen relevant studies that had been missed in the first instance were then gathered for inclusion in the final bibliography and synthesis of research on fast track (TFA) ITE. Following external review and finalization of the list of studies to be included for this report, and where feasible and relevant, empirical studies providing answers to the questions posed by PPTA for the review were assessed for the strength and quality of evidence provided.

Step 4: draft and final reports. The review findings were then synthesized to form a coherent report framework, and the annotated bibliography and draft report provided to the PPTA on 24 November, 2011. As previously described, the literature review is structured around providing straightforward answers to the eight questions of interest posed by the PPTA, as this would seem the most accessible and potentially useful structure for intended audiences. Upon receiving feedback on the draft report from the PPTA, a final version of the report on fast track TFA schemes was delivered on 30 November, 2011 in both electronic and paper formats.

6. Literature Review Findings

The published research literature about the nature of teaching as a profession, teachers' professional duties and responsibilities, what it means to be an effective teacher, and what constitutes appropriate and effective teacher education is immense. Clearly, it is beyond the scope or mandate of this review to examine all of this literature, being focused as it is on *fast track teacher education schemes* generally, and *Teach For All* (TFA) schemes particularly. It seems equally clear that much of this territory remains highly contested, including the published literature related to the nature and structure of initial training provided for those wanting to teach in the schools.

We also believe, however, that there are nevertheless core ideas about the profession of teaching that are widely agreed on. These points are reflected in the standards for graduating and experienced teachers developed by organizations that oversee teacher education such as the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL), the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), the Interstate New Teacher Assessment Support Consortium (INTASC), and the New Zealand Teachers Council (NZTC). Additionally, these core propositions about teachers and their work are anchored to our collective experience as teacher educators, teacher education researchers, and teachers in the schools. It therefore seems appropriate, and potentially helpful, to first stipulate what we believe to be commonly-held views about teachers' work that potentially will provide a more manageable, if not agreeable, context for this review of fast track TFA schemes. Specifically, we believe that the following points about teachers' work can be stipulated with a high degree of confidence:

- Teaching is a complex profession that requires both specialized and wide ranging knowledge and skills, and personal and professional dispositions that develop over time;
- Teachers' knowledge of the subject(s) they teach is critically important, particularly at high school and beyond.
- In addition to knowing their subjects, successful teachers manage and assess student learning, identify learning goals, and choose among instructional approaches to meet those goals;
- Successful teachers are reflective in their teaching, and evaluate their decisions and experiences to make evidence-based adjustments in their teaching; and,
- Successful teachers understand their contexts, and that they are part of a larger learning community including school administrators and teachers, students and parents, and the broader community.

Thus, although this current review of the literature overlaps, to varying degrees, the literature associated with teachers' work, teachers' initial preparation and licensing to undertake that work, teachers' quality and effectiveness, and teaching as a profession in its own right, it does not address any of these important topics with great specificity and/or depth. Rather, in endeavouring to maintain a focused responsiveness to the needs of the PPTA, this review specifically examines what is currently known about *Fast Track Teacher Education*, with particular focus on *Teach For All* schemes, and with a particular orientation to the comparative effectiveness of these programmes and the teachers they produce. As such, the review that follows is structured to provide the best answers possible, based on current evidence and

understanding, to the eight questions asked by PPTA. Put another way, the current review aims to enhance the ability of the Association and its members to make evidence-informed decisions around the arrival and operation of *Teach First* in New Zealand's teacher education landscape.

One further point seems appropriate in setting the stage for the questions and answers that follow. In a recent US review, Glass (2008) noted that the alternative certification of teachers "rare before 1980, has become a prominent part of the teaching profession" (p. 3). At the time of Glass' 2008 review, more than 60,000 alternatively prepared/certified teachers were employed in US schools, and the likelihood of a public secondary school teacher being alternatively or provisionally certified had risen from 2.5% (18,800 teachers) in 1993-1994 to 4.9% (44,600 teachers) in 2003-2004. These numbers were based on data sourced from the US National Center for Education Statistics. Another study, using data from the National Center for Education Information estimated in 2006 that more than 250,000 persons had been licensed through alternative teacher certification routes in the US (Owings, Kaplan, Nunnery, Marzano, Myran, & Blackburn, 2006). In California, Mitchell and Romero (2010) estimate that close to 30% of that state's new teachers now enter classrooms through alternative pathways. Within this mix, Labaree (2010) has documented the dramatic rise of *Teach For America*:

By 2008, TFA was raising \$100 million a year and had 6,000 corps members teaching more than 400,000 students across the United States, and it received 35,000 applications for the 4,000 positions in the 2009 cohort. (p. 48)

In his review, Glass further noted, however, that *Teach For America* accounted at that time for only about 5% of alternatively certified teachers in the US, but nevertheless attracted high visibility because it reflected "a radical alternative to traditional forms of pre-service teacher training and is often held up as a highly successful example" (Glass, 2008, p. 5). A similar, although much more recent, story could also be told, we believe, about the rise of alternative routes to teacher training in the UK (e.g., Hutchings, Maylor, Mendick, Menter & Smart, 2006; King, 2004), including *Teach First UK*.

In short, a wide variety of alternative routes to preparing teachers for the schools seems now a well-established feature of initial teacher education, and the education landscape more generally, at least in the US and UK. In Australia, TFA has recently gained a presence in ITE through a partnership with the prestigious University of Melbourne's Graduate School of Education (Scott, Weldon, & Dinham, 2010) and as described above is working toward establishing a presence in New Zealand. We make these points to acknowledge the remarkable growth and presence of TFA and other alternative routes to teacher education and certification in the current ITE milieu. However, like other authors who have written recently on TFA teacher

We do not consider this review of the research as a venue for extolling or condemning fast track TFA programs, or the ideologies with which they may be aligned.

Rather, we emphasize that we have approached this review as an opportunity to synthesize what is currently known about the proximal and distal effects and/or comparative effectiveness of fast track TFA programs and teachers.

In this, our aim is to better equip the association and its members in making evidence-informed decisions around the arrival and operation of Teach First in New Zealand's teacher education landscape.

preparation programs (e.g., Carter, Amrein-Beardsley, & Hansen, 2011; Heineke, Carter, Desimone, & Cameron, 2010) we do not consider this review of the research as a venue for extolling or condemning such programs, or the ideologies on which they may be based. Rather, we re-emphasize that we have approached this review simply as an opportunity to synthesize what is currently known about the proximal and distal effects and/or effectiveness of fast track TFA programs and teachers, with the aim of better informing educational jurisdictions or associations currently faced with the prospect of working with such programs in the preparation of teachers for their schools.

6.1. WHAT DOES “EFFECTIVENESS” MEAN IN TEACHER EDUCATION?

Gaining an understanding of what commonly constitutes *effectiveness* for programs that prepare teachers for working in the schools—if such an understanding is attainable—seems the cornerstone of being well positioned to critically assess any particular ITE programme. What follows in answering this key question therefore provides an important structure for framing the answers to the subsequent questions asked of this review.

It is widely acknowledged that traditional, university-based approaches to educating teachers for professional careers in the schools are currently, and have been for some considerable time, under substantial pressure to change, to justify continued support for their established position as preferred pathways to teacher certification, and to be publicly seen as responsive to various education reform agendas, including widespread adoption of standards-based reform. The pressures on traditional, university-based ITE to re-examine and reform its approach to teacher preparation have been well documented across Western democracies, including Australia (Jasman, 2009; Lonsdale & Ingvarson, 2003), Canada (Hall & Schulz, 2003), New Zealand (Cameron & Baker, 2004; Conner, 2009; Hope, 1999; Thrupp, 2006), the United Kingdom (Furlong, 2002; Gray & Whitty, 2010; King, 2004; Menter, Brisard, & Smith, 2006) and the United States of America (for example, Ballou & Podgursky, 1998; Imig, 2008; Labaree, 2010). Of course, there are also differences across national contexts—for example, between the English and Scottish contexts (Menter, Brisard, & Smith, 2006)—in the specific genesis and particular unfolding of these pressures and processes to reform and improve ITE. Nevertheless, there are also notable commonalities in the drivers of ITE change across these countries. These include, in a first wave, for example: 1) a widespread perception of a growing shortage of teachers for the schools, particularly in subjects like science and mathematics, in special education, and in hard-to-staff schools; 2) a persistent and perhaps growing concern about the quality of teachers in the schools, linked to research showing that the effectiveness of teachers is the single most important school-based factor influencing the learning of students; and 3) the rise of deregulation, choice and marketization as key planks in a neoliberal/neoconservative educational policy reform agenda (Ballou & Podgursky, 1998; Cameron & Baker, 2004; Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2001; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hattie, 2002; Imig, 2008; Kumashiro, 2010; Labaree, 2010; Lai & Grossman, 2008; Menter, Brisard, & Smith, 2006; Popkewitz, 1998; Weiner, 2007).

As a result of these forces, and in the context of this systematic review of the literature on fast track schemes for teacher education, an additional (second wave) source of pressure to change has been the rapid expansion of alternative—and aggressively competing—routes for ITE (Labaree, 2010) that in most instances provide a substantially accelerated or fast track path for prospective teachers gaining a credential to teach in the schools. As noted by Isaacs, Elliott, McConney, Wachholz, Greene and Greene (2007) “the public discussion surrounding alternative certification is best understood in the framework of the two confluent forces that fueled its creation: 1) an unprecedented and well-publicized scarcity of teachers and, 2) growing concerns over teacher quality.” (p. 7)

In part, as a result of the combination of these first- and second-wave forces across the last two and a half decades, views about what constitutes “effectiveness” in teacher education have changed profoundly. In general, these understandings move strongly away from focussing on the inputs or characteristics of teacher preparation programs as yardsticks of their effectiveness, and strongly toward “outcome-based measures” that have at their core, descriptions (standards) of what beginning teachers should know and be able to do as they take up their practice in classrooms.

The shift in focus from the inputs or characteristics of teacher preparation approaches or programs to a strong focus on the outcomes of ITE, and especially the extent to which this report portrays key stakeholders as supportive of these changes, might be surprising to some constituencies. For example, in their recent study on developing fundamental principles for teacher education programs in Australia, Canada and the Netherlands, Korthagen, Loughran and Russell (2006) observed that

Recently, the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005) published the final report on the immense work they carried out in a meta-study, analyzing almost all the North American research on the effectiveness of teacher education. Their final conclusion was somewhat alarming, namely, that there is no clear evidence that certain approaches in teacher education may be more effective than others, and even that it may be questionable whether teacher education can make a difference at all. (p. 1037)

As reflected in this statement, despite the public appearance of growing consensus about what is meant by *effectiveness* in teacher education, there continues to be considerable contention on this and related issues among teacher educators, researchers and commentators both in the US, and in other Western democracies. In New Zealand, debate around the nature and aims of initial teacher education, its content and its control provides a case in point. For example, in their recent comprehensive review of research on initial teacher education, conducted for New Zealand’s Ministry of Education, Cameron and Baker (2004) document longstanding tensions and disagreement:

There is a lack of consensus about what the specialised body of knowledge and skills for initial teacher education should be, who has the right to say what it is,

Over the past two and a half decades, as a result of a variety of confluent forces, there have been significant shifts in thinking, by a wide range of stakeholders—including teacher education leaders, associations representing teachers and the profession, school leaders and education policy makers—around what is meant and understood by effective teacher education.

In general, these shifts move strongly away from focussing on the inputs or characteristics of teacher preparation programmes as yardsticks of their effectiveness, and strongly toward the outcomes of teacher preparation. For New Zealand and Australia these outcomes focus on what new teachers should know and be able to do.

In the US, this paradigm shift has at its centre the progress in learning of pupils taught by teacher education programme graduates. At the same time, however, the extent of this paradigm change is much less evident in other countries.

and how it can be recognised and validly assessed. Views of what the knowledge base should be are dependent on perspectives of intended goals of education, and debate about purposes of education will be on going. (p. 14)

Cameron and Baker (2004) explain that various agencies (New Zealand Qualifications Agency [NZQA], Teacher Registration Board [TRB], Ministry of Education, Educational Review Office [ERO]) have all attempted—with quite limited success—to develop criteria, competencies or standards for “satisfactory teaching” (p. 14), and that in 2004 there still remained “little published description as to how, whether, or which standards are used to guide the knowledge base and exit standards” (p. 15) for ITE in New Zealand. These authors further note that from 1996 to 2001, there had been five reviews of initial teacher education in New Zealand, conducted by the ERO (1996 and 1999), *Te Puni Kokiri*, the Education and Science Select Committee, and by Geoffrey Partington on behalf of the Education Forum (Cameron & Baker, 2004). Like in Australia, these reviews had exerted “continual pressure on initial teacher education without resolution or achievement of balance” and in New Zealand, “there has been little debate between parties involved, and little progress in addressing issues of concern or in reaching agreement on fundamental principles for initial teacher education” (2004, p. 22).

Despite, or perhaps partly as a result of this recent unsettled history, New Zealand’s adoption and communication of consensus standards for new graduates of teacher education programmes has improved in more recent years. The New Zealand Teachers Council / *Te Pouherenga Kaiako o Aotearoa* was established in 2002—to replace the Teacher Registration Board—under the Education Standards Act of 2001. NZTC is an autonomous crown entity funded by teachers to provide professional leadership in teaching and enhance the professional status of teachers in schools and early childhood education. NZTC also explicitly asserts that, as a profession, teachers have the right and responsibility to control who enters and who remains in the profession. Further, the NZTC developed and disseminated in 2007 a set of *Graduating Teacher Standards* that Provisionally Registered Teachers entering schools or early childhood services are expected to meet. Importantly, in answering the current question about effectiveness in ITE, the NZTC’s *Graduating Teacher Standards* also provide the basis for assessment and approval of ITE programs, in conjunction with other agencies like the NZQA (see, for example <http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/te/gts/index.stm>). In essence then, NZTC’s *Graduating Teacher Standards* provide a *de facto* operational definition of effectiveness for ITE in New Zealand that clearly maintain focus on the *outcomes of teacher education* (what beginning teachers should know and be able to do), rather than on the inputs or characteristics of teacher education programmes.

In Australia, it is also most certainly the case that there have been significant shifts toward a view of ITE effectiveness anchored to the outcomes of teacher preparation programs. As clearly evidenced by the formation of the Australian Institute for Teaching Standards and Leadership (AITSL) early in 2010, and the release of centralised national standards for teachers (including beginning teachers) in February 2011, Australian authorities have made explicit what graduate teachers should know and be able to do across three domains of teaching: professional knowledge; professional practice; and professional engagement (<http://www.teacherstandards.aitsl.edu.au/>). As explained in AITSL documents:

The [Australian] National Professional Standards for Teachers are a public statement of what constitutes teacher quality. They define the work of teachers and make explicit the elements of high-quality, effective teaching in 21st century schools that will improve educational outcomes for students. The Standards do this by providing a framework which makes clear the knowledge,

practice and professional engagement required across teachers' careers (AITSL, 2011, p. 2)

As in the case of New Zealand's Teachers Council, an additional role for AITSL, approved by the Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs (MCEECDYA) is the accreditation of teacher preparation programs operating in Australia. As explained by AITSL, for the first time in Australia, "programs preparing teachers will be assessed based on whether their graduates meet the National Professional Standards for Teachers. These nationally agreed standards describe what teachers should know and be able to do." (<http://www.aitsl.edu.au/teachers/initial-teacher-education-program-accreditation/initial-teacher-education-program-accreditation.html>). As in the case of the NZTC standards, therefore, Australia's new teacher standards provide a *de facto* operational definition of quality and effectiveness in teacher preparation. Despite these notable shifts in views about the effectiveness of teacher education, however, both AITSL and NZTC have also prescribed in some detail what the content and structure (the inputs) of ITE programs should look like for approval (see for example <http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/te/itefinal.stm>), thereby maintaining roles very similar to that played by the the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) in teacher preparation programme accreditation in the US.

Beyond New Zealand and Australia, the extent and nature of what arguably amounts to a paradigm shift in what is meant by quality and effectiveness in teacher education is perhaps most profoundly reflected in a recently released US Department of Education brief outlining major facets of the Obama administration's vision and plan for reformed teacher preparation, titled *Our Future, Our Teachers* (US Department of Education, 2011). In this paper's foreword, the administration's Secretary of Education Arne Duncan notes that improving teacher preparation is the first step in supporting a strong teacher workforce, but that some programs appear to be "not up to the job" (p. 1). In part, Duncan posits, this may be because many do not have access to credible data that tells them how effective their graduates are in elementary and secondary school classrooms after they leave their teacher preparation programs. Duncan further notes that

Leaders from all teacher preparation pathways, both traditional and alternative route programs are uniting around a vision of teacher preparation that puts student results and effective teaching front and center. (US DOE, 2011, p. 2)

These statements mirror significant shifts in thinking, by a wide range of stakeholders—including teacher education leaders, associations representing teachers and the profession, school leaders and education policy makers—around what is understood by effective teacher education. In the US case, in addition to statements reflecting the knowledge and skills required of new teachers, this paradigm shift now has at its centre the progress in learning of pupils taught by teacher education programme graduates (US DOE, 2011). Specifically, in this view of ITE, three categories of outcomes together comprise an appropriate, defensible yardstick for assessing the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs, including:

1. Growth in learning of school students taught by program graduates as reflected by multiple, valid measures of student achievement that reliably assess growth associated with graduates of preparation programs;
2. Job placement and retention rates reflecting the extent to which program graduates are hired into teaching positions, particularly in shortage areas, and whether they stay in those positions for multiple years;

3. Surveys of program graduates and their school principals that would provide evidence on the degree to which teacher preparation programs provide graduates with the knowledge and skills needed to succeed in their first years as classroom teachers.
(US DOE, 2011, pp. 9-10)

Further, despite worrying assessments of the poor state of evidence on what ITE approaches constitute effective teacher education (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005), the federal US education authorities seem to have been able to sidestep this impasse by leveraging key stakeholders to come on board with regard to a unified vision for reform and improvement in teacher education (US DOE, 2011). The following quotes, extracted from *Our Future, Our Teachers* are illustrative of the apparent consensus across key stakeholder groups:

The Administration's proposal *Our Future, Our Teachers* provides a strong roadmap for promoting and highlighting excellence in teacher preparation programs and providing long overdue support for teacher preparation programs at minority-serving institutions. *Dennis Van Roekel, President, National Education Association*

Teacher preparation must, in the words of a recent NCATE Blue Ribbon Panel report, be 'turned upside down.' We have to raise the bar for teacher preparation so that excellent programs and practices are the norm....We applaud the efforts...to develop a comprehensive agenda that will promote effective teaching at every stage of the career pipeline. *James G. Cibulka, President, NCATE*

Clear standards for what teachers should be able to *do* when they enter the classroom would shift the focus away from arguments over who should prepare teachers and how to select program entrants and toward beginning teachers' actual instructional skills. The Administration's teacher education plan takes an important stand—it's the outcomes of teacher preparation that matter most. *Deborah Lowenberg Ball, Dean, School of Education, University of Michigan*
(US DOE, 2011, pp. 3-4)

The apparent consensus view that the effectiveness of teacher education needs to focus squarely on the outcomes of such preparation, however, should not be misunderstood. This growing public consensus should not be interpreted to mean that there remain no voices that argue for reform also on the input side of the current ITE equation. One of the most prominent voices in this regard continues to be that of Linda Darling-Hammond, who contends, for example:

Despite all of the recent focus on outcome-based [ITE] accreditation, it is equally important to examine a focused set of important inputs. Just as we cannot now imagine accreditors approving a medical school that lacks an appropriate teaching hospital, omits the internship for some of its candidates, fails to provide oversight from skilled doctors, or neglects to teach pathology, we should demand an accreditation process that is more clearly attentive to the essential ingredients of a responsible preparation for teaching. (2010, p. 43)

Additionally, Darling-Hammond (2010) has pointed out analyses of New York City data that have shown some teacher education programs have much more positive effects than others in terms of stronger value-added learning gains for students of teachers they produce. In examining the

characteristics of these programs, the researchers identified features that seemed to make a positive difference, such as:

- ✓ careful oversight of the quality of student teaching experiences;
- ✓ close match between the context of student teaching and candidates' later teaching assignments, in terms of grade levels, subject matter, and type of students;
- ✓ the amount of coursework in reading and mathematics content and methods of teaching;
- ✓ focus on helping candidates learn to use specific practices and tools that are then applied in their clinical experiences;
- ✓ candidates' opportunities to study the local district curriculum;
- ✓ a capstone project (typically a portfolio of work done in classrooms with students);
- ✓ percentage of tenure-line faculty, which the researchers viewed as a possible proxy for institutional investment and program stability (Darling-Hammond, 2010, p. 40).

Similarly, Professor Field Rickards, Dean of the University of Melbourne's Graduate School of Education has argued, in the context of a submission to the Australian Productivity Commission, that clinical teacher education courses are more effective than courses following a traditional apprenticeship model. After noting that "only 41 per cent of new teachers in Australia claimed they were 'well' or 'very well' prepared for the classroom in a 2008 survey by the Australian Education Union" Rickards advocates a much more 'clinical' approach to ITE:

Clinical programs link theory and practice through intensive and meaningful school-university partnerships, in a similar way to university-teaching hospital partnerships. They also teach candidates to use evidence of their impact on students to better meet individual learning needs.

<http://newsroom.melbourne.edu/news/n-651>

Conclusion

In summary, there is no question that across Western democracies, constituencies and controlling authorities in initial teacher education have moved away from seeing effectiveness of these programs in terms of their inputs. Very much, the consensus view is now squarely reflective of a focus on the outcomes of teacher preparation, specifically what new teachers should know and be able to do when they enter the schools. This shift in thinking has traveled farthest in the US, where the current centerpiece of an outcomes view of ITE effectiveness is the learning progress of pupils taught by the graduates of ITE programs. Despite this, there are those who continue to argue that attention must also be paid to the inputs of teacher education.

6.2. HOW DOES TFA RECRUIT ITS ASSOCIATES/CORPS MEMBERS?

Marketing and Recruitment

Perhaps not surprisingly for a 'globalised network of social enterprises' *Teach For All* teacher training schemes across the world have common marketing strategies and standardised recruitment and selection processes.

One of the key planks of TFA's marketing and recruitment strategy is its commitment to addressing educational disadvantage both in the short term by supplying the 'best and brightest' teachers for disadvantaged schools and in the long term by developing leaders in the public and private spheres who are committed to extensive educational reform. *Teach for America*, for example, emphasises in its advertising campaigns and on its website, that it is looking for high

achieving, motivated young graduates who want “to make a difference” to the educational outcomes of students in disadvantaged or under resourced communities (<http://www.teachforamerica.org/>). In the UK, potential applicants are asked if they are the kind of person “who could make an impact in one of *Teach First's* challenging schools” (<http://www.teachfirst.org.uk/AboutUs/>). *Teach for Malaysia* calls on the nation’s future leaders to help overcome educational inequality by “immersing themselves in understanding the root causes of education inequity” and then working to overcome them (<http://www.teachformalaysia.org/>). *Teach for Pakistan* is quite explicit about the role that its recruits will play in “the movement against educational inequality.” In the short term this is through the supply of TFP recruits to under-resourced schools and in the long term “by creating a cadre of leaders for a movement to end educational inequity” (<http://www.teachforpakistan.edu.pk/website/>).

Alongside appeals to social justice and altruism, the potential for personal career growth, development of leadership skills and networking opportunities form other key planks of TFA marketing and recruitment strategies. The *Teach for Australia* website, for example, emphasises that being a TFA Associate “opens many doors for graduates.” TFA’s strong links with corporate and public-sector partners provides Associates with the opportunity to be “mentored by public and private sector leaders” and to have access to “exclusive job opportunities, within and outside of the education sector.” Advertising in England by *Teach First UK* emphasises the personal future career opportunities that the programme offers by being part of an ‘elite group’ (Hutchings et al., 2006). This mixture of altruism and ambition appear common to all TFA marketing and recruitment strategies.

TFA marketing and recruitment processes have also been found to differ from the strategies used by more traditional teacher education pathways in a number of other ways (Hutchings et al., 2006). In England, for example, the Hutchings et al. (2006) study found that the *Teach First UK* programme was more successful in recruiting from ‘elite’ universities such as Oxford and Cambridge than traditional programmes. Haines and Hallgarten (2002, cited in Hutchings et al., 2006) concluded that students at ‘elite’ universities traditionally are less likely to enter teaching than those from other universities largely as a result of the poor perception of the teaching profession held by students. In an effort to attract high-ranking students, *Teach First UK* has specifically targeted these elite universities in their recruitment campaigns and through marketing themselves as “a cut above the rest” (Hutchings et al., 2006, p. 10). The programme portrays itself as prestigious and the report found that many interviewees in schools, such as Principals talked about ‘the calibre’ of the *Teach First UK* trainees (Hutchings et al., 2006, p. 11).

TFA programmes have used innovative marketing and recruitment strategies with a particular emphasis on attracting top students from elite universities – a previously untapped market for ITE programmes.

TFA programmes’ success in attracting these graduates comes from marketing that appeals to a sense of altruism and social justice combined with the offer of short courses and future career and networking opportunities outside the classroom or even education. Added to this are financial incentives and other forms of compensation.

Whilst successful marketing strategies that appeal to short term altruistic motives are indeed very worthy and may seem unproblematic, some research suggests the need to interrogate these assumptions more fully.

Another innovative feature identified in the Hutchings et al. (2006) report was that one of the key attractions for participants selecting *Teach First UK* was that they were able to keep their career options open. The relatively short nature of the programme and the emphasis on the transferability of the skills gained as a teacher meant that participants who were not committed to a long-term teaching career, saw *Teach First* as a viable option that enabled them to move on to other careers if they wanted (Hutchings et al., 2006). An evaluation of the first few months of the first *Teach For Australia* Pathway, commissioned by the Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), also found that a major attraction for Associates was the ability to go straight into the classroom without a further year of study and to earn a living while studying (Scott et al., 2010, p. 7).

Compensation and benefits to Associates and other stakeholders also seem to contribute to TFA's successful recruitment strategy. In the US, for example, Corps members (equivalent to Associates in the UK and Australia) may be attracted by the opportunity to receive a full time teacher's salary, health and retirement benefits, funding for relocation, help with student loans and exclusive scholarships and benefits from Graduate Schools and employers (<http://www.teachforamerica.org/why-teach-for-america/compensation-and-benefits>).

Additionally, school principals involved in the initial *Teach For Australia* Pathway programme were attracted to the possibility of accessing young, 'hand picked', academically accomplished and enthusiastic graduates. An added and not insignificant incentive, particularly for 'difficult to staff' schools was the fact that Associates were appointed as "supernumeraries" (in other words, each represented 0.8 of an extra staff member). This is planned to be phased out in order to make the programme more economically viable and sustainable (Scott et al., 2010, p. 7).

Academic Qualifications and Selection Processes for TFA

Details about the academic qualifications and selection processes for TFA can be found on their local websites, which are very similar in content, design and layout. In most cases TFA home pages have a "Who We Look For" tab. This leads potential applicants to a general global statement about the type of person the programmes are seeking. The *Teach for Australia* website for example is looking for "well rounded individuals with a track record of achievement – in their studies, work and extra curricular activities." These global statements are followed by more specific academic requirements. Typically these are a Bachelor's degree (or equivalent). Notably this can be in any subject except Education. Applicants cannot apply if they are currently studying towards, or have completed, a qualification that allows them to teach. Interestingly this was one of the concerns raised by Téllez (2011) in his longitudinal case study of a US teacher who began his career as a *Teach For America* corps member. When 'Steven', the subject of Téllez' case study applied for and gained a position with *Teach For America*, his then girlfriend who had almost completed an education degree was not even interviewed. Perplexed at first, once Steven had entered the programme, he came to believe that *Teach For America* did not want members who were "tainted" by the influence of traditional teacher preparation (Téllez, 2011, p. 22).

Once attracted to the programme, there are generally three steps in the application process. The first is completion of an online application, which requires personal and academic information, and there are several additional questions regarding motivations and experience. Successful on-line applicants may be invited to participate in a 20-minute telephone interview with a TFA staff member. Those successful in the telephone interview are then invited to a Selection Day, which they must attend in person. During the course of the day each candidate completes two behavioural interviews, a group activity, a sample teaching lesson and a problem-solving test.

Information about TFA and its vision are also quite extensively communicated on this day (<http://www.teachforaustralia.org/apply/the-selection-process>).

The newly established *Teach For Australia* Pathway, which commenced in 2010, uses this standard application process. The *Teach For Australia* Pathway programme is one component of a reform initiative, *Smarter Schools – Improving Teacher Quality National Partnership* (TQNP), agreed to by the Coalition of Australian Governments (COAG) supporting new pathways to teaching. The *Teach For Australia* Pathway is underpinned by an arrangement between the *Teach For Australia* organisation and the University of Melbourne, and supported by the Victorian Department of Education and Early Childhood Development and the Australian Government (Scott et al., 2010). With its small cohort and significant resource support it represents something of a boutique model for Initial Teacher Education.

Successful candidates in the *Teach For Australia* Pathway programme are made an offer conditional upon TFA matching them with a suitable school. This is followed by an intensive 6-week programme in preparation to commence the school year. Once selected, candidates in the *Teach For Australia* model are enrolled in a two year Post Graduate Diploma in Teaching in the Graduate School of Education at the University of Melbourne. Associates are then matched with schools and teach subjects relevant to their University degrees.

Applicants for the *Teach First UK* programme must also meet the academic requirement of at least a Bachelor's degree (or equivalent). As well, they must also demonstrate that they have relevant subject knowledge and that they have what are described as 'competencies.' These competencies are listed on the website accompanied by brief descriptors; for example: Humility, respect and empathy (build relationships quickly, give value and respect to others to get the best out of them); Interaction (communication and being a team player); Knowledge (passion for the *Teach First UK* mission and enthusiasm for the programme); Leadership; Planning and Organising; Problem solving; Resilience (hungry for a challenge, have patience, perseverance, tenacity, versatility and a positive mindset) and the ability to self evaluate (<http://graduates.teachfirst.org.uk/recruitment/requirements/index.html>).

Like the Australian selection process, the first step for *Teach First UK* is completing an on-line application form. Successful applicants are then invited to attend an Assessment Centre Day. At this, candidates are asked to deliver a pre-prepared 7-minute lesson on a National Curriculum subject delivered to one assessor and one teacher. Candidates must then complete a self-evaluation of the lesson. A 30-minute group problem solving activity and a 30-minute competency-based interview comprise the rest of the initial assessment process. The latter is designed to enable applicants to demonstrate the Teach First competencies outlined above.

Following successful completion of the Assessment Centre Day, an on-line Subject Knowledge Audit (SKA) is conducted and offers are made subject to successful completion of this. The audit requires applicants to assess their own subject knowledge against relevant parts of the National Curriculum. Applicants are then asked to identify their own strengths and weaknesses and develop an action plan showing how they intend to develop their subject knowledge before the six-week intensive course. These plans are assessed by *Teach First* staff and further recommendations made if required. Prior to the introduction of this audit, the Hutchings et al. report found that 15% of participants were training to teach in subjects that were not the same as their subject degree and even if their degree was relevant, many participants felt they still needed to acquire subject knowledge as taught in schools (2006, p. 18). More recent studies would help indicate whether the subject audit has resulted in improvements in self-perceived subject knowledge.

The application process for the longest running and by far the largest TFA programme, *Teach For America*, similarly begins with an on-line application. Applicants are then required to complete a two hour on line activity and may then be invited to participate in a 30 minute phone interview. If successful they will be invited to a day-long interview. In readiness for this, applicants must prepare a 5 minute sample lesson plan, read assigned articles and prepare relevant academic transcripts and referee statements.

Hutchings et al. (2006, p. 16) found that the assessment processes involved far more resources in terms of time and personnel than typically used by most Initial Teacher Education providers in the UK. These researchers observed approximately two hours of staff time spent on each candidate plus additional time on assessment and paper work. Similarly as a result of their observations and interviews with school respondents they concluded that the selection process was more rigorous than other types of programmes. A criticism that emerged through the research from schools was that there was not enough teacher input in the selection process. Selection panels in the first years at least were largely made up of professional recruiters and not teachers. Similarly, in Australia, the Scott, Weldon and Dinham report found that one of the key strengths of the *Teach For Australia* Pathway, in its first iteration at least, was

The use of a rigorous selection process for Associates that has – in most cases – successfully chosen high quality candidates with the necessary ability and personal attributes to succeed in the program (2010, p. 7).

In an international review comparing practices in teacher selection and recruitment conducted between February and August 2009, Hobson, Ashby, McIntyre, and Malderez (2010) report that TFA programmes are not the only ones to use highly selective and rigorous recruitment strategies. Based largely on Barber and Mourshed's McKinsey Report (2007), Hobson et al. found that the best performing school systems, according to international testing results, not only have rigorous certification and licensing selection procedures for entry to the profession but also have strict entry requirements for initial teacher preparation programmes. In these systems ITE candidates are recruited from the top third of graduating students from their school systems. These systems employ effective mechanisms for selecting entrants to teacher education programmes that enable them to identify levels of literacy and numeracy; interpersonal and communication skills; willingness to learn and the motivation to teach (cited in Hobson et al. 2010). Similarly it is argued that very selective entry requirements make teaching more attractive to high performing applicants.

Hobson et al. (2010) also report that in some countries as well as a Bachelor's (or equivalent) degree for entry into initial teacher preparation programmes, potential candidates must pass a national or university based examination to demonstrate their suitability to teaching. In other countries multiple approaches are used to select candidates for initial teacher education including interviews. According to the McKinsey Report (2007) two of the world's higher performing education systems, Singapore and Finland, place great emphasis on academic achievement, communication skills and motivation for teaching. Finland, for example, uses a multi stage process including a nationally based 300 question multiple choice test on literacy, numeracy and problem-solving, followed by university-based tests on information processing, data analysis and critique, followed by interviews to assess motivation to teach and learn, communication skills and emotional intelligence (cited in Hobson, et al., 2010). In contrast, Hobson and co-authors also report that there are no national regulations in the USA and selection criteria into ITE programs vary from state to state with some relying solely upon commercially developed or locally produced multiple choice tests. The Netherlands' ITE model requires a Master's level degree for

those aiming to teach university-bound students, and at least a Bachelor's degree for teaching students on a vocational track (Hobson et al., 2010 p. 13).

In concluding their review Hobson and his co-authors (2010) report that the evidence suggests that the world's top performing school systems employ a number of strategies to ensure they are able to attract sufficient and highly suitable applicants to ITE programmes. These include rigorous checks to assess potential, effective marketing campaigns, efforts to raise the status of teaching as a profession (e.g., through competitive salaries) and the effective resourcing of ITE programmes.

Conclusion

The evidence suggests that TFA programmes have used innovative marketing and recruitment strategies with a particular emphasis on attracting top students from elite universities – a previously untapped market for teacher education programmes. TFA's success in attracting these graduates can be linked to presenting its programmes in ways that appeal to a sense of altruism and social justice, combined with the features of a short training course and future career and networking opportunities outside the classroom, or even education. Added to these are financial incentives and other forms of compensation.

Whilst successful marketing strategies that appeal to altruistic motives are indeed very worthy aspirations and may seem unproblematic, some research suggests the need to interrogate these assumptions more fully. Popkewitz (1998), for example, contends that *Teach for America's* missionary type agenda to rescue the children of poor and rural communities has the effect of normalizing discursive constructions of the poor, urban or rural child as 'other' and therefore requiring 'other' types of schooling. Popkewitz's (1998) ethnographic study during *Teach for America's* first year of operation highlights the way in which the candidates he interviewed were constructing a continuum of values about what is normal and reasonable and what counts as success based on their own personal experiences and worldviews. This is a view supported by Smart et al. (2009, p. 35). Based on an analysis of the findings of an evaluation of *Teach First UK*, funded by the Gatsby Trust, Smart et al. concluded that

Teach First is a site for the reproduction of middle-class privilege through the accumulation of capital, the reinforcing of middle-class values and views of the working-class other, and the production of discourses obscuring middle-class privilege and power. (2009, p. 50-51)

Veltri's (2010, p. 180) longitudinal study of *Teach For America*, also draws attention to what she describes as the "Master Narrative" underpinning TFA's mission. This Master Narrative is broadcast through mass media and powerful corporate advertising which influences public perceptions about teaching and education. *Teach For America's* "Master Narrative" is one in which America's most challenging schools are said to be in a state of crisis and need rescuing. This missionary model is inherent in almost all TFA's media publicity. Authors such as Veltri are critical of this oversimplified message that she says "leads the populace to accept a position that teaching poor children is somehow equated with performing community service." (2010, p. 185).

Veltri (2010) also cites McCarthy (1998) who argues that:

The discourse of bourgeois social voluntarism which is exemplified by TFA's highly ideologically motivated intervention in the education of the inner city child. This voluntarism is backed by leading corporations in the country such as Xerox, IBM and Union Carbide. (p. 142)

In a similar way, some Australian school principals interviewed as part of a more recent evaluation of the first stage of *Teach For Australia* raised concerns about the negative consequences for their schools as a result of being labelled disadvantaged through their association with TFA (Scott et al., 2010, p. 9). For example, one principal in that evaluation study noted that:

My own greatest reluctance was that the TFA program is said to target 'disadvantaged' schools. This means that schools get painted in a particular light. Schools are very aware of their image. We don't see ourselves as at all disadvantaged, and we don't want the community to see us that way either. This is a very highly regarded school, the school of choice in this area.

6.3. WHAT IS THE RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF DIFFERENT *TEACH FOR ALL* SCHEMES?

Evidence to Compare the Relative Effectiveness of TFA Schemes

We found no systematic comparisons across the different TFA schemes to provide evidence regarding their relative effectiveness. This lack may be due to two factors. First, TFA programs in different countries are remarkably similar. Second, except for the case of *Teach For America*, TFA schemes have been in existence for less than a decade. Highlighting the most relevant schemes for this review, *Teach For America* has existed for over two decades, *Teach First UK* began in 2003 and *Teach for Australia* was established in 2010 (Hutchings et al., 2006; Scott et al., 2010; Veltri 2010). An in-depth review of all TFA schemes throughout the world is beyond the scope of this review and there are not enough details about each of the schemes to support such a comparison. Therefore, we have here described and compared three relevant TFA schemes: *Teach For America*, *Teach First UK*, and *Teach For Australia*.

Although we found no systematic comparisons, there have been statements comparing the different schemes' success in teacher preparation. For example, a paper presented at the Canadian Association for the Study of Educational Administration titled *Comparing Teach First and Teach for America: How partnering with higher education institutions adds value in the fight against educational disadvantage*, argues that "*Teach First* has been more successful than *Teach for America* (TFA) in addressing educational disadvantage because it has enthusiastically partnered with academia, whereas TFA has deliberately maintained its independence" (Mercer & Blandford, 2010, p. 1). Similarly, the Ofsted Report, *Rising to the Challenge: a review of the Teach First initial teacher training programme*, distinguishes between the *Teach for America* and *Teach First UK* models by stating "Unlike its American counterpart, the training and professional support (for *Teach First*) is provided by an accredited provider of initial teacher training, Canterbury Christ Church University is the provider for the London-based programme" (Ofsted, 2008, p. 18). These comments highlight university partnerships as one key characteristic that has varied as the TFA model has been adopted and implemented in different international settings. Further, since the 2008 Ofsted report, three additional partnerships with *Teach First UK* have been established (University of Warwick, Institute of Education (University of London) and the Specialist Schools and Academies Trust) (Ofsted, 2011). In addition, there are other key features that are integral to TFA schemes that are compared in this review as we attempt to understand their relative effectiveness. These include selection requirements and screening, length of the initial intensive training, teacher certification, and continued training support and/or education provided after the initial training.

The 2008 Ofsted Evaluation report and the 2006 Institute for Policy Studies in Education Evaluation report (Hutchings et al., 2006) provide extensive details regarding many key features of

the *Teach First UK* scheme. Similarly, the *Teach For Australia* Evaluation Report (Scott et al., 2010) also provides useful detail about the programme in Australia. On the other hand, the most recent 2011 Ofsted inspection report of the *Teach First UK* scheme reflects a notable shift in tone compared to the 2008 evaluation. In general, the 2011 report provides considerably less detailed accounts with minimal evidence or descriptions to support extensive positive comments. The lack of evidence and descriptive detail makes this document less useful in understanding and reporting comparisons among the different TFA schemes.

Likewise, few details are available for the key features and characteristics of the *Teach For America* programme despite the fact that it has been in operation for more than two decades. The two major evaluation reports conducted in America, the *Mathematica Report* (Decker, Mayer, & Glazerman, 2004) and the *CALDER report* (Xu et al., 2007) both focus on the achievement effects of TFA teachers on students rather than providing specific features or comprehensive evaluations of the *Teach For America* model. Thus, for this review, instead of relying on evaluation reports, a variety of published sources (e.g., Carter, Amrein-Beardsley & Hansen, 2011; Heineke, Carter, Desimone & Cameron, 2010; Téllez, 2011; Veltri, 2010) is used to understand the specific details regarding *Teach For America*.

Rates of Acceptance in the TFA schemes

As described in Question 2, the selection procedures used by TFA schemes are similar (Hutchings et al., 2006; Ofsted et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2010; Veltri, 2010). TFA selection requirements and procedures are built on processes that have been used in business and modified for education settings (Hutchings et al., 2006). Generally the rate of acceptance of applicants into TFA programmes is low with only 11.7% of the 35,178 applicants accepted from the 2009-2011 pool of applicants to *Teach For America* (Veltri, 2010, p. 19). Similarly, in the UK, 220 applicants were successful (15.7%) from the 2006/2007 pool of applicants (Ofsted, 2008). In Australia, the rate of acceptance into the scheme was not provided in the *Teach For Australia* Pathway evaluation report (Scott et al., 2010).

Intensive Initial Training

The UK and Australian TFA schemes both use a six-week residential intensive training institute. Within the six weeks, trainees spend two weeks in schools with one of the weeks in their placement school. The institutes are held during the summer so the teaching experience may not be the same compared with the regular teaching time period, but even so they are considered useful introductions to teaching (Hutchings et al., 2006; Ofsted et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2010). The intensive institutes are held in partnership with well regarded universities in the UK and in Australia. In the United States summer institutes were held in many different locations.

Corps Training Institute participants described their experiences as trainees when they were bussed from the dorms at the university to several site locations in the Atlanta, Houston, New York, Philadelphia, and/or greater Phoenix Public School system. *Teach For America's* intensive summer training was conducted at six Institute campuses in conjunction with local school districts over the years: Temple University (The School District of Philadelphia), California State University Long Beach (the Los Angeles Unified School District), St. John's University (New York City Department of Education), Georgia Institute of Technology (the Atlanta Public Schools), and Arizona State University (for select school districts in the Greater Phoenix region). Although universities are used as meeting places for classes and the dorms for housing, the *Teach For America* programme does not partner with university staff in facilitating the institute. As explained by Téllez (2011) in his longitudinal case study:

Had the TFA planners wanted to help their Corp Members understand more about reading development, specialists at the university were nearby. But even though the TFA program rented the university's dorm rooms and meeting spaces for their summer program, not one of my colleagues, either in the College of Arts and Sciences or in the College of Education, was ever asked to speak to the TFA Corps Members. (p. 22)

Instead, the main priority of the summer was "listening to testimony from TFA recruits who were now in their second or third year in teaching" (Télez, 2011, p. 22).

In *Teach First UK* the quality of the training reported in the Ofsted report (2008) was reported as at least good, with a few outstanding sessions facilitated by *Teach First UK* associates completing their first, second or subsequent years along with university tutors. A balance of theory and the "practicalities of teaching" were presented. Similar to the UK model, *Teach For Australia* has a six-week intensive summer training institute facilitated by both university staff and TFA affiliates. In contrast *Teach For America* uses a five-week intensive institute. In summary, the UK and Australian models are similar in terms of partnerships with universities and the length of institutes while the American scheme has a shorter institute which does not include university partnerships. In our view, based on the evaluative evidence available, longer initial training and partnerships with prestigious universities seem to result in more effective training before TFA participants start teaching in schools.

Subsequent Training and Support in the Schools

For all of the TFA schemes examined, training is provided in the schools with the "employment-based nature of the scheme rely(ing) heavily on the quality of training provided by the schools" (Ofsted 2008, p. 5). Wide variations exist in school-based mentor support for trainees in *Teach First UK* (Hutchings et al., 2006). Not all the subject mentors had the understanding or skills to fulfil their training role to a high standard; others lacked the time they needed to carry out their role effectively. This meant that some trainees did not reach the level of competence of which they were capable (Ofsted 2008, p. 5). Like in the UK, the Australian TFA scheme uses school-based mentors in their support for participants with similar variations observed in the support provided to the TFA associates. University tutors provide additional guidance for both UK and Australian schemes, and are especially important when associates do not receive support from their in-school mentors (Hutchings et al., 2006; Ofsted, 2008; Scott et al., 2010).

In Australia the university partnership also involves progression towards a postgraduate diploma in teaching while the *Teach First UK* partnership provides support to participants who are training to meet the Standards for Qualified Teacher Status. In contrast to the UK and Australian schemes, and as noted earlier, *Teach For America* has traditionally "maintained its independence" from university partnerships (Mercer & Blandford, 2010, p. 1). However, this may be changing. The College of Teacher Education and Leadership at Arizona State University is embracing "the opportunity to better support urban teachers in classrooms" and partnering with *Teach For America* to provide teachers' professional development and preparation while they are teaching" (Heineke et al., 2010, p. 124). We did not find other examples, however, of US-based TFA schemes in formal partnerships with universities. In summary, support for TFA teachers once they are in the schools can be variable; university tutors can add an extra element of support to the teacher trainees as they learn on the job in classroom settings.

Teacher Certification and Further Education

TFA schemes can be viewed as alternative pathways to teaching but not always as routes to gaining a certificate or license to teach. The TFA schemes are all similar in that they involve an

employment-based route for training teachers with an intensive training period of 5 or 6 weeks followed by teaching in the schools. However, how TFA participants gain their teaching certification is somewhat different for each programme. *Teach First UK* participants “are trained to meet the Standards for Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) while employed as unqualified teachers” in their first year....Second year *Teach First UK* participants continue to teach in challenging schools as newly qualified teachers” (Ofsted, 2008, p. 18). On the other hand, *Teach for Australia* associates are enrolled in a two year Post Graduate Diploma in Teaching at the Melbourne Graduate School of Education (MGSE) and receive their teaching qualification at the end of two years. In contrast to the UK and Australia, teacher certification for American TFA corps members varies across the US. TFA teachers in the US are non-education graduates, and need to meet the requirements for certification in the state where they are placed (Carter et al., 2011). Further, teacher certification requirements vary because “the circumstances from state to state are so different” (Glass, 2008, p. 4). Emergency permits may be issued in some states if there is a critical shortage in certain subjects including special education, science and maths, and the district can document the shortage. Although the continuing education aspect of gaining a postgraduate qualification in education is not a required component of *Teach For America*, many TFA alumni nevertheless continue to study in leading schools of education as Masters or Doctoral students (Labaree, 2010). As Labaree notes when explaining this phenomenon:

Some (TFA alumni), I have found, are driven there because of a bad experience in their induction into teaching, which fired them up to learn how to prepare teachers more fully than they themselves were in their 5-week summer boot camp. But for many, their interest in the field has been sharpened by their experience in the classroom, and they now want to understand more fully how the system works and how to change it. (2010, p. 52)

It is interesting to note that the three TFA programs highlighted for this review have either a direct partnership with (*Teach For Australia, Teach First UK*), or potential continuing education relationship (*Teach For America, Arizona*) that rely on existing teacher education programmes. These teacher education programmes are usually modified to meet the needs of the TFA participants. The prestige and experience of the University of Melbourne’s Graduate School of Education was a strength noted in the evaluation of the Australian TFA programme (Scott et al., 2010). Similarly, one of the key findings from the Ofsted report is that the teacher training component of the programme is effective because it “builds upon Canterbury Christ Church University’s experience and success in initial teacher training” (2008, p. 5).

Conclusion

To summarise, although many key features are quite similar across TFA programs, they do vary in important ways that we believe influence the relative effectiveness of the schemes. Specifically, the extra week in the UK and Australia provides important time for participants to engage with fundamental aspects of intensive teacher training. In the intensive setting an extra week can be especially important. A second key feature of the UK and Australian schemes that seems to add strength is the partnership with experienced schools of education in well respected universities. The added in-school support of a university tutor ensures that critical ‘on the job’ training is supported, even if in-school mentoring is not available or effective. Finally, the requirement of both the Australian and UK TFA schemes that all associates gain a teaching qualification by either the end of the first or the second year has the potential to add an extra important venue for supporting the development of the TFA teacher.

6.4. ARE TFA TEACHERS EFFECTIVE IN COMPARISON TO THEIR TRADITIONALLY PREPARED TEACHER COLLEAGUES?

Overview

One of the most critical questions for jurisdictions or organisations considering fast track ITE schemes generally, and TFA schemes particularly, concerns the comparative *impact of teachers* prepared via such routes on the learning progress of students. As noted by many researchers (e.g., Xu, Hannaway, & Taylor, 2009) there have been, over the past two decades, only a handful of empirical research and/or evaluation studies that systematically examine the effectiveness⁶ of teachers prepared via TFA fast track programs compared against the effectiveness of teachers prepared by more traditional routes to teacher certification, at a scale appropriate for informing education policy. The most significant of these include three studies conducted in the US and one in the UK. In brief, these studies comprise: (1) a university-based US study (Arizona) on the effects of different types of primary school teacher certification (including one group of TFA-prepared teachers) on student achievement (Laczko-Kerr & Berliner, 2002); (2) a think tank-based US study that compared learning outcomes among students taught by *Teach For America* teachers with outcomes of students taught by other teachers in the same schools and at the same grades (Decker, Mayer, & Glazerman, 2004); (3) a US study (North Carolina) of the effectiveness of high school *Teach For America* teachers compared to the effectiveness of traditionally prepared teachers conducted by the Urban Institute in collaboration with the National Center for the Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research (CALDER), and supported by the Institute for Education Sciences of the US Department of Education (Xu et al., 2009); and most recently, (4) a UK evaluation study of *Maximum Impact* (teachers in their second year of school practice) commissioned by *Teach First UK* and conducted by a group of university-based researchers (Muijs, Chapman, Collins, & Armstrong, 2010). Some of the key features of this select group of studies are given in Table 1, below.

Four Empirical Studies of Teacher Effectiveness

Laczko-Kerr and Berliner's (2002) study focused on comparisons of effectiveness between under-certified and fully certified primary school teachers. Nevertheless, we have included it here as it represents one of only a few that directly examines the comparative effectiveness of differently certified (prepared) teachers, including those prepared via *Teach For America*. As indicated in Table 1, Laczko-Kerr and Berliner's study used an *ex post facto* (i.e., after the fact, non-experimental) archival research design.

The data used for the study were the personnel records of newly hired teachers in five Arizona school districts that volunteered to participate, as well as teachers' class averages for the Stanford Achievement Test, 9th Edition (SAT 9), a nationally norm referenced standardised test that assesses student achievement in reading, mathematics and language arts. These data were provided to the researchers by the districts as well as the Arizona Department of Education for the 1998-1999 and 1999-2000 school years.

As described by Laczko-Kerr and Berliner, under-certified teachers made up one group and certified teachers the other for this study. In Arizona, as in many US states, under-certified

⁶ Consistent with commonsense definitions, by *effective* we mean "successful or achieving the results that you want" (Cambridge Dictionaries Online) or put another way, "producing a decided, decisive, or desired *effect*" (Merriam-Webster's Online Dictionary). If we are able to agree with the widely accepted view that the central purpose of teaching in the schools is student learning (e.g., Henry, Bastian, & Fortner, 2011; McConney, Schalock, & Schalock, 1998; Millman & Schalock, 1997; Xu, Hannaway, & Taylor, 2009) the concept of *teacher effectiveness* is understood here as the extent to which teachers successfully foster, support and advance the learning of students in their care.

teachers can be of three types: *emergency* (holders of bachelor degrees with little or no education coursework); *temporary* (a rarely used designation similar to *emergency*); and, *provisional* (for those with some, or even considerable teacher education, who may be short of some units or other requirements that would qualify them for a standard teaching certificate). In contrast are regularly certified teachers who meet all of the state's requirements for certification, and who typically have completed traditional teacher preparation. Laczko-Kerr and Berliner were able to identify 293 new teachers (hired in 1998-1999 and 1999-2000) who met the criteria for inclusion in their study. Through a series matching procedures to ensure fair comparisons, however, the size of the sample was trimmed to 109 matched pairs of beginning teachers (109 under-certified versus 109 certified). Of the final sample of 109 under-certified teachers, 30 had been prepared via a *Teach For America* fast track route.

Several statistical analyses (using mainly analysis of variance and correlated *t*-tests) systematically showed that:

- The students of fully certified new teachers consistently outperformed those of under-certified teachers—including the group of TFA teachers—in reading, maths and language arts, as measured by the SAT 9;
- The students of TFA-prepared teachers performed on average no differently than those of the other 79 *under-certified* new teachers included in the study.

In summarizing these findings, Laczko-Kerr and Berliner (2002) state that:

...one could expect that during one academic year in the primary grades, the students of certified teachers would make approximately 2 months more academic growth than would the students of under-certified teachers....That is, students pay approximately a 20% penalty in academic growth for each year of placement with under-certified teachers. (p. 36)

Thus, it seemed quite evident from this early empirical analysis of the effectiveness of *Teach For America* and other under-certified teachers in Arizona, that these teachers were less effective in advancing their students' learning as compared to regularly certified teachers. However, based on the modest size of the study's sample (30 TFA-prepared teachers), the researchers' caveat that matches between teacher pairs might not be perfect particularly for those teachers paired across districts, as well as the unknown degree to which the study's findings can be generalized to settings outside of Arizona, the strength of the findings of this research can at best be classed as *moderate*.

A second US-based study, similarly conducted in self-contained primary school classrooms (grades 1 through 5) by Mathematica Policy Research, Inc. and jointly sponsored by the Smith Richardson Foundation, the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation, and the Carnegie Corporation also examined questions regarding the influence of TFA teachers on student achievement (Decker et al., 2004). In this case, the group of teachers compared to TFA teachers comprised "other teachers in the same schools and same grades" collectively referred to as "control" teachers (Decker et al., 2004, p. xi). Control teachers comprised any active teacher who was not TFA-prepared, and therefore included traditionally and alternatively certified, as well as uncertified teachers. That is, control teachers had diverse backgrounds: just over two-thirds (67%) held either regular or initial teacher certification, and nearly all of these reported entering teaching via a traditional route. The other one-third of control teachers held temporary (10%), emergency (15%) or other types of provisional (7%) certification.

Table 1. Key features of four empirical research or evaluation studies that compare the effectiveness of TFA-prepared teachers against teachers prepared via traditional ITE programs.

Year of study	Country (State/City)	Level of school (# of TFA teachers compared?)	Type of research design	Strength of evidence provided	Conclusion? Positive, negative or neutral for TFA (<i>fast track</i>) teachers
2002	US (Arizona)	Primary n=30 TFA teachers	Non-experimental retrospective analysis of matched school records (<i>ex post facto</i>)	Moderate	Negative —differences in students' achievement routinely favoured regularly-certified (prepared) teachers by about 2 months on a grade equivalent scale
2004	US (Baltimore, Chicago, Los Angeles, Houston, New Orleans, Mississippi Delta)	Primary n=44 TFA teachers	Experimental (randomised assignment of students to classrooms)	Strong	Positive —TFA teachers outperformed control teachers, including experienced teachers, in students' math achievement; the effectiveness of TFA teachers and control teachers was no different in students' reading achievement
2009	US (North Carolina)	Secondary n=98 TFA teachers	Non-experimental multilevel regression analysis of matched teacher and student records (<i>ex post facto</i>)	Moderate-Strong	Positive —TFA teachers outperformed comparison teachers, including novice, experienced, and fully certified teachers, in students' science and maths achievement
2010	UK (evaluation of <i>Maximum Impact Program</i> for <i>Teach First UK</i>)	Secondary (GCSE; Key Stage 4) analysis at level of school (matched pairs)	Mixed-methods including surveys, interviews, observations and quasi-experimental design for analysis of pupil performance data at level of school	Moderate	Positive — <i>Teach First UK</i> teachers had a positive impact based on evidence related to school-level analyses of pupil outcome data, classroom observations, interviews, and survey data

The 44 teachers in the TFA group comprised both beginning teachers in their first two years of teaching and a small number of TFA teachers still teaching beyond their initial two year commitment—in other words, any teacher who had entered teaching via a TFA route. Fifty-one percent of TFA teachers held either regular or initial teacher certification, 12% held temporary, 28% emergency, and 9% some other type of provisional certification, respectively (Decker et al., 2004).

Different from the Arizona study, this study used an experimental research design. This meant that students were randomly assigned to classrooms before the beginning of the school year to help ensure that “classes in the targeted grades were essentially identical with respect to the average characteristics of students assigned to the classes; consequently any differences in average outcomes can be attributed to differences in the teachers” (Decker et al., 2004, pp. 7-8). Statistical analyses of demographics, test scores and class characteristics showed that the two groups of students (those assigned to control and TFA teachers) were essentially equivalent. Also, this research included a pilot study in Baltimore (2001-2002) and full-scale evaluations in 5 of the 15 regions in which TFA placed teachers at the time of the study (Chicago, Los Angeles, Houston, New Orleans, and the Mississippi Delta), thereby enhancing the validity of the study’s findings.

For the Mathematica study, student achievement in maths and reading was measured using the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). A baseline test at the start of the school year and a follow-up test at the end of the year in each of the classes in the study allowed estimation of teachers’ impact on student learning for both TFA and control teachers (Decker et al., 2004). In brief, the study found that TFA teachers had a more positive impact on their students’ maths achievement than did control teachers. In maths, the average control student scored in the 15th percentile at the start of the year and remained in the 15th percentile by the end. In other words, control students experienced normal achievement growth. By comparison, the average TFA students’ maths achievement improved from the 14th to the 17th percentile over the same period. The study’s authors estimated the size of this difference in impact favouring TFA teachers over control teachers at 0.15 of a standard deviation, which translated to about 10% of a grade equivalent or about one additional month of maths instruction (Decker et al., 2004). On the other hand, TFA teachers did not have a different impact on students’ reading achievement in comparison to control teachers. That is, students in TFA and control classrooms experienced the same growth rates in reading, equivalent to one percentile as measured by ITBS (Decker et al., 2004).

An important, persistent criticism of the Mathematica study has been that the control group comprised not only teachers who held regular or initial certification (two-thirds of the 57 control teachers) but also included several teachers with temporary, emergency or other types of teaching credential, and several novice teachers who had little or no student teaching experience (e.g., Glass, 2008). The Mathematica researchers acknowledge this feature, noting that “compared with a nationally representative sample of teachers, the control teachers in the schools in our study had substantially lower rates of certification and formal education training” (Decker et al., 2004, p. xiv), and were less likely to have attended a competitive college compared to the average elementary school teacher. However, they also point out that the study’s inclusion of all non-TFA teachers in the schools participating in the study reflected accurately the typical situation in “poor schools where TFA places teachers rather than the situation in all schools across the country” (Decker et al., 2004, p. xiv). To further address the varied backgrounds of control teachers, the authors conducted a second analysis restricted to novice teachers. In this analysis, the impact gap between TFA and novice controls widened to 0.26 standard deviations in maths, and remained statistically insignificant in reading. Decker, Mayer, and Glazerman also examined the impacts for TFA teachers in comparison to only those control teachers who held regular

teaching certificates. In general, this analysis found that the impacts were similar to, although somewhat smaller, than those seen when comparing all TFA to all control teachers.

More recently, a third US study (situated exclusively within North Carolina) conducted by the Urban Institute (Washington, DC) in collaboration with the National Center for the Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research (CALDER), and supported by a grant from the Institute for Education Sciences of the US Department of Education, examined the effectiveness of TFA teachers in comparison to traditionally-prepared teachers, based on students' achievement in "end of course" (EOC) tests (Xu et al., 2009). To accomplish its analysis the study used individual student data linked (matched) to individual teacher data, a retrospective *ex post facto* archival research design similar to that used in Laczko-Kerr and Berliner's Arizona study (2002). According to the study's authors, North Carolina was selected because of the rich databases available through the North Carolina Education Research Center housed at Duke University (Xu et al., 2009).

For the school years 2000-2001 through 2006-2007, data were collected for 98 TFA-prepared teachers and 6,826 traditional teachers, of whom 2,411 were classified as 'novice teachers' (those with fewer than 3 years experience). Teacher data included salary, experience, licensure (certification status), educational attainment, PRAXIS scores, and National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) certification status, and spanned 23 North Carolina school districts (LEAs) that had hired at least one TFA teacher during the study's time period.

As might be expected given that high school students typically have several subject-specific teachers, the linking of individual student records with the records of individual teachers is not an entirely straightforward matter. It was further complicated in this case by the fact that teachers-of-record who proctored EOC exams may not necessarily have been the same teacher who taught the students during the school year. The authors were aware of this, however, and employed a series of previously developed and tested matching procedures, as well as two alternative analytical samples that allowed a good degree of confidence in the resulting student-teacher matches and in the study's findings. A second important feature (and limitation) of this study's design was that, different from the Mathematics study, there was no initial student performance measure (pre-test). This meant that the analytic approach taken was "not able to specify a model that controls for lagged student performance" and therefore assumed "complete decay of prior performance; that is, initial academic preparation in a specific subject at the time of class enrollment has negligible effect on EOC test scores" (Xu et al., 2009, p. 15). The authors convincingly argue, however, that based on other research, models with missing measures of

Few well designed, large scale studies exist that have systematically examined the effectiveness of teachers prepared via TFA (fast track) routes. Only one US study and one UK study have done this for secondary school teachers.

Based on the few studies that do address this question directly, the evidence about TFA teachers is mixed. On balance, there is insufficient evidence to conclude that TFA teachers are systematically less effective in fostering or advancing student learning than their traditionally prepared peers, either novice or experienced.

In fact, a majority of the available evidence suggests an advantage for TFA teachers, particularly in the areas of Mathematics and Science.

initial student performance tend to underestimate the “true” effects observed—in this case the effects of TFA prepared teachers in comparison to their traditionally-prepared peers.

In general, the study’s findings show that TFA teachers in North Carolina were more effective than traditionally-prepared teachers, whether novice or experienced, based on the results of students’ performance on EOC exams. Further, the study’s results suggest that TFA teachers’ advantage over their traditionally-prepared peers exceeded the beneficial impact of additional years of experience. The authors note that these findings were consistent across subject areas, but particularly strong in science and in maths (Xu et al., 2009).

More specifically, when all eight subjects⁷ were analysed together, the study found that having a TFA teacher was associated with about a 0.10 standard deviation improvement in EOC performance as compared to having a non-TFA teacher. For maths and science, the size of the advantage for TFA teachers was 0.10 and 0.18 standard deviations, respectively. Additionally, to address the issue of possible mismatches between students and teachers, the researchers analysed the data using only those students whose classroom teachers and test proctors had the same uniquely identifiable IDs. In this case the researchers found slightly stronger positive TFA effects when all subjects were included (0.14 SD) and for science subjects (0.19 SD), but a smaller effect in maths (0.06 SD). When TFA teachers were compared only to those non-TFA teachers who were licensed in the subjects they teach, the TFA advantage was also retained. When compared with less experienced teachers with a regular license, TFA teachers again remained more effective across all subjects, for maths subjects only, and for science subjects only. As might be expected, the TFA advantage was reduced in comparison to more experienced teachers holding continuing licenses (0.05 SD for all subjects and maths only, and 0.13 for science only). Last, the researchers restricted the comparison of TFA teachers to those prepared through traditional routes to teacher preparation (teachers licensed by completing an approved teacher education programme at an accredited North Carolina institution of higher education). In this case, the TFA advantage over comparison teachers ranged from 0.08 to 0.16 SD, and all differences remained statistically significant. In summarising their findings Xu, Hannaway, and Taylor note:

...the TFA effect remains mostly consistent no matter what our comparison group is. TFA teachers have particular strong positive effects on student science test scores. In all cases, the TFA effect is several times larger than the effect of teacher experience. (2009, p. 23)

In concluding, these authors also point out, however, that their findings “do not necessarily mean that there is no value to [traditional] teacher training. It is possible that the teachers that TFA recruits and selects would be even more effective with more pedagogical training.” (Xu, et al., 2009, p. 26)

The fourth, and most recent, study examining the impact (effectiveness) of TFA-prepared teachers was commissioned by *Teach First UK*, funded by the Goldman Sachs Foundation, and conducted by a group of researchers from the Universities of Southampton and Manchester (Muijs et al., 2010). As stated by these researchers, the main purpose of this evaluation study was to “explore the impact of *Teach First* teachers in their classrooms and schools” (Muijs et al., 2010, p. 3) during their second year of teaching.

⁷ Eight core subjects were included in the study’s dataset: Algebra I, Algebra II, Geometry, Physical Sciences, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and English I.

To assess the central issue of impact on pupil attainment for second-year *Teach First* teachers (i.e., teacher effectiveness) the evaluation used a quasi-experimental research design⁸. The researchers were able to identify *Teach First* schools through a list provided by *Teach First UK*, and their unique individual school number, and to establish the year they joined *Teach First* (Muijs et al., 2010). National pupil and school-level data, including the Pupil Level Annual Schools Census (PLASC) and National Pupil Database (NPD) were provided by the UK Department of Education (DfE) for each year from 2001 to 2009. Using these data, a statistical procedure known as propensity score matching allowed the researchers to match each *Teach First* school to a similar school on variables such as type of school, gender intake, performance levels, pupil intake characteristics, and school size. Propensity score matching is an accepted procedure for statistically levelling the playing field, and schools were matched for the three years prior to joining *Teach First*. The authors note that “no schools could be matched identically....However, as close a match as possible was sought in all cases” (Muijs, et al., 2010, p. 37).

For the comparative examination of pupil attainment in *Teach First* and non *Teach First* schools, the outcome (achievement) measure used was normalised pupil-level GCSE scores (Key Stage 4⁹) weighted for subject, number of GCSEs taken and school subject distribution. Two-level multilevel regression models (pupils nested within schools) were used in the analyses of the relationship between *Teach First* status and student achievement, and because the data were for different cohorts of students, analysis of each year was done separately. The number of schools included in these analyses ranged from a high of 27 for the 2003 cohort to a low of 10 *Teach First* and comparator schools for the 2004 cohort. Overall, the authors report that there is evidence of a positive relationship between *Teach First* participation and pupil attainment. For example, for the 2003 cohort, from 2005 onwards, pupils in *Teach First* schools on average showed higher levels of performance at GCSE. The correlation of *Teach First* with student outcomes was characterised as quite strong, explaining between 38.9% and 46.5% of school-level variance in achievement, that is, “the variance in achievement between pupils that can be attributed to them attending different schools rather than to individual differences between them” (Muijs, et al., 2010, p. 38). The size of this difference in achievement was estimated by the authors as equivalent to “2 to 2.4 GCSE points per student per subject, or a third of a GCSE grade” (Muijs, et al., 2010, p. 39).

The evaluation study authors also caution, however, that appropriate care needs to be exercised in interpreting or generalising from these findings because *Teach First* participation was measured at the level of the school (as opposed to the classroom). This necessarily meant that the data analysed were for *all pupils*, not just those taught by *Teach First* teachers. A related source of concern is that the evaluation report neglects to specify the number of *Teach First* prepared teachers in each of the schools included for the study. On the positive side, however, Muijs and his co-authors have analysed the association between the number of *Teach First* teachers in a school and pupil attainment for which they report a “modest but significant positive relationship between the number of *Teach First* teachers in a school and pupil achievement at Key Stage 4, with schools with more *Teach First* teachers performing better than those with

⁸ Overall, the *Maximum Impact* evaluation used a mixed-method design. In addition to the quasi-experimental design applied to the comparative assessment of pupil attainment, the study also used other quantitative methods (e.g., surveys) as well as qualitative methods (e.g., interviews with school principals, observations of teachers in case study schools) to examine the impact of the project on teaching quality and leadership capacity in the schools, in addition to student achievement.

⁹ Key Stage 4 is the legal term for the two years of school education which incorporate GCSEs, and other exams, in maintained schools in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland—normally known as Year 10 and Year 11 in England and Wales, and Year 11 and Year 12 in Northern Ireland, when pupils are aged between 14 and 16.

fewer" (Muijs, et al., 2010, p. 4). Overall then, as the authors take pains to emphasise, it is the apparent pattern of results in this study that "is suggestive of a positive correlation between *Teach First* teacher participation in a school and pupil attainment" (Muijs et al., 2010, p. 47). Further, the authors suggest that "finding an impact like this at the school level is suggestive of possible stronger effects at the classroom level" (Muijs, et al., 2010, p. 40). Finally, however, we are also reminded that this study is correlational rather than experimental, and as such does not demonstrate a causal relationship between *Teach First* status and better student attainment. Other intervening variables or factors may have resulted in the observed effects, such as changes in school leadership. As the authors correctly advise:

A variety of intervening factors may have caused the relationship, such as the prior effectiveness or leadership of the school...unmeasured differences in pupil intake; changes in exam subjects or unmeasured staff changes other than the intake of new *Teach first* teachers. (Muijs et al., 2010, p. 46)

In addition to the quantitative school-level analyses of GCSE results for *Teach First* schools, the Maximum Impact study also collected and analysed various qualitative data for TFA teachers in case study schools (Muijs et al., 2010). In general, these data supported the patterns seen in the quantitative analyses. For example, classroom observations of TFA teachers suggested that they were "particularly strong in creating a positive classroom climate," "rate highly on classroom management and on instructional skills" and "show high levels of self efficacy, and feel they can make a difference to their students" (Muijs et al., 2010, p. 4). On the other hand, TFA teachers were "somewhat weaker" in fostering active learning and metacognitive skills" (Muijs et al., 2010, p. 4).

Conclusion

Over the past two decades, for both proponents and sceptics, perhaps the most enduring question surrounding *fast track teacher education* programs generally, and TFA programs specifically, has been the extent to which teachers prepared by these schemes are effective in advancing students' learning, particularly in comparison to their traditionally-prepared peers. Presumably because of the challenges associated with designing and conducting randomized controlled trials (RCT) in schools, as well as the challenges inherent in matching student and teacher records in meaningful ways, particularly in high schools, only a handful of well-designed studies that address this question empirically have been conducted to date. Four of these studies (3 US and 1 UK) have been reviewed in some detail here, because together they provide a representative overview of the small universe of such studies, and also because each was conducted at a scale that policymakers, in our view, would find meaningful and useful.

Also, it has not been our typical practice in reviewing such studies, to describe each in the detail provided here. However, in keeping with the controversial nature of the issue being addressed, important questions have been raised about the design features and/or analysis quality of such studies, and as hinted above, each of these studies has its own particular strengths and weaknesses. This reality influenced us to provide sufficient detail about each study's design, participants, limitations and findings to allow readers more than a surface-level understanding of each, and to provide our assessment of the quality of each.

No studies were located that specifically compared the effectiveness of TFA-prepared teachers to those prepared via one-year graduate programmes like those used in New Zealand for training secondary teachers. However, based on the few studies that do address the question of teacher effectiveness directly, and the two studies that include secondary teachers, the evidence about fast track TFA-prepared teachers seems positive, on balance. Three of the four studies examined

in this section, including the one RCT (experimental) study, reported more positive impacts for TFA teachers in comparison to various groups of teachers not prepared via a TFA route. In summary, other than Laczko-Kerr and Berliner's 2002 matching study in Arizona, there is little evidence to suggest or conclude that TFA teachers are systematically less effective in fostering or advancing student learning in comparison to their otherwise prepared peers, either novice or experienced. In fact, a clear majority of the available evidence suggests an advantage for TFA teachers, particularly in the areas of Science and Mathematics.

6.5. HOW DO TFA MODELS OF TEACHER EDUCATION IMPACT TEACHER RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF HIGH QUALITY TEACHERS IN HARD TO STAFF SCHOOLS?

Attracting and retaining high quality teachers are twin concerns that continue to receive considerable attention in many countries. This can in part be explained by the consideration of recruitment and retention as important outcomes of effective teacher education programmes (Glass, 2008). It can also be explained by the high costs of teacher attrition and turnover. In the *Mathematica* impact evaluation of the *Teach First UK* programme, Decker, Mayer and Glazerman (2004) stated:

...although TFA teachers are paid on the same salary scale as their counterparts, they may create hidden costs if they leave their jobs sooner – for example at the end of their two year commitment-and have to be replaced more frequently than their non-TFA peers. Measuring such costs would be difficult, because the retention rates of TFA and non-TFA teachers are not well documented. (p. 48)

These costs include overt financial costs related to teacher replacement along with hidden costs borne by students and schools in disadvantaged or under-resourced schools. For example, high teacher turnover rates can create deficits for students if they repeatedly experience less effective first-year novice teachers (Donaldson & Johnson, 2010; Henry, Bastian & Fortner, 2011). As noted by one TFA teacher in the US:

Today I learned that my students have been left with permanent subs [relief teachers] for half a year in the past. Most of their favorite teachers spent only a year or two at Jackson before moving on. In fact, most of my students have been at the school for longer than the majority of teachers (Veltri, 2010, p. 89).

Furthermore, departing teachers create additional loss for schools by taking with them their professional development experiences and knowledge of the school's curriculum, policies and climate. For instance, when new teachers arrive, school staff members take both time and energy to facilitate communication in achieving coordinated curriculum and instructional planning. In the context of hard to staff schools, these costs are especially relevant. Although the overall number of teachers associated with TFA programs is still quite small relative to the total number of new teachers each year, producing, for example only 5% of alternatively certified teachers in the US (Glass, 2008), the "local effect" (Donaldson & Johnson, 2008 p. 300) of teacher turnover is potentially high because hard to staff schools, often serving vulnerable populations, are where TFA programs tend to place their recruits. Further reflections by the TFA teacher in the US highlights the context of retention in hard to staff schools.

What a difficult situation! I believe it affects student morale when teachers come and go so quickly. Our students are very in tune to our thoughts and

attitudes. If Jackson were an excellent place, why wouldn't teachers stick around? Why would they [teachers] suddenly leave? (Veltri, 2010, p. 89)

Therefore, understanding the impact of fast track TFA programs on the recruitment and retention of high quality teachers in hard to staff schools is especially salient in contexts where students and schools can be more vulnerable, especially compared with other settings.

As noted earlier, TFA's recruitment strategies typically include marketing that emphasises the development of employable skills for the prospective teacher recruit, as well as the opportunity to 'make a difference.' Using this type of strategy, TFA is especially effective in recruiting academically successful graduates who are altruistic and ambitious. TFA also seems adept at "positioning itself as a highly prestigious graduate scheme" (Smart et al., 2009, p. 1). Thus, the TFA model has been hailed by many as a remarkable success story by "offering elite college students a win-win option" (Labaree, 2010, p. 48). To underscore this focus, a review of alternative teacher certificate programs by Zeichner and Schulte (2001) did not include TFA programs because they were seen as mainly teacher recruitment rather than teacher certification programs (p. 267). This again reflects TFA's emphasis on recruitment of prospective teachers for hard to staff schools. The growth of TFA programs worldwide is an observable indicator of the organisation's success in marketing its programs. Further, the TFA approach has clearly had success in recruiting prospective teachers—who themselves have been successful in their education and possess leadership skills—to teach in schools experiencing challenging circumstances.

The question of teacher retention and the likely costs associated with high turnover rates are especially relevant for TFA because an integral feature of its programs is that recruits are required to make only a two year commitment to teaching in the schools. After two years TFA teachers are not obliged to continue teaching. As noted previously, this can be perceived by potential applicants as a benefit and seems to be successfully used for recruitment. Also, in some cases, the two year commitment does not seem to have a negative impact on teacher retention. In looking at the career plans of *Teach For America* teachers and

The retention of new teachers is a longstanding issue in the schools, particularly for those in challenging circumstances. It is reported that 30% of new teachers leave in the first year, and 50% leave within the first 5 years.

Few studies provide actual data around the retention of TFA teachers in the schools. Some studies indicate that attrition rates are higher for alternatively prepared teachers in their first years, and the impression is that TFA-prepared teachers do not tend to stay in education for long. Other studies point out that the rates of retention are comparable for new teachers in schools in challenging circumstances. In recent evaluation studies, indicators of early attrition rates for TFA-prepared teachers appear similar to those prepared by other routes.

It should also be remembered, however, that TFA schemes are built around a two-year teaching commitment required of "associates" or "corps members". The relatively short duration of this commitment means that hiring a TFA teacher is likely to have both overt and hidden costs for schools and students.

regularly certified first year teachers in the US, Pilcher and Steele (2005) found no difference between the two groups with the majority planning to remain in teaching or in some other school position. However, the authors also note that these findings were derived from self-reports and may not be accurate indicators of actual retention. No differences between TFA teachers and regularly certified teachers were also noted in *Teach First UK* (Muijs et al., 2010) but instead of retention, the UK evaluation highlighted similarity in attrition rather than plans to stay. As one respondent (Head Teacher) noted "in this city, in any case, a lot of young staff don't stay long; they want to live outside the city, so we are used to that kind of turnover" (p. 32). Another senior manager from the UK evaluation did not see the two year term as a problem and instead noted "while it is true that they are here for only two years, in that two years you get 18 months of absolute quality education, and if they do go out to industry or the professions they are ambassadors with empathy for inner city education" (Muijs et al., 2010, p. 32).

Although the two year commitment can be seen as a benefit for recruitment and some studies reflect little difference in attrition between TFA and other new teachers, the high turnover rate built into the design of TFA programs has been criticised (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Darling-Hammond, Chung & Frelow, 2002; Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin & Veilig, 2005; Laczko-Kerr & Berliner, 2002; Miner, 2010). The two-year term of TFA teachers and the associated high turnover rate is "somewhat destabilising" according to some administrative interviewees participating in the UK evaluation (Muijs et al., 2010, p. 32). Obstacles associated with continuing teaching in the programme were also voiced by *Teach First UK* teachers. As noted by one respondent, "if we felt we were valued, and not that we are being exploited, we would probably stay longer" (p. 32).

Conclusion

In general, there is a well documented high attrition rate for all new teachers. In the US, "approximately 30 percent of new teachers leave within the first three years; nearly fifty percent leave within 5 years" (Isaacs et al., 2007, p. 3). Additionally, for schools that serve predominantly low-performing and/or low-income students, the rates at which new teachers either leave teaching permanently or transfer to schools with higher income students tend to be even higher (Donaldson & Johnson, 2010; Humphrey, Weschsler & Hough, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001; Zeichner & Schulte, 2001). For many of the principals in the *Teach For Australia* programme, "attracting and retaining teachers has been an issue at their school" (Scott, et al., 2010, p. 7).

Actual figures for TFA teacher retention, in contrast, are not easily accessible. However, evaluation reports are helpful in determining actual numbers, if only in a limited number of cases. In Australia, "Of the 30 Associates interviewed, 19 intended to remain in teaching after the initial two years, with four undecided" (Scott et al., 2010, p. 17). The Maximum Impact evaluation reported "between 2003 and 2007, almost 50% of Teach First teachers stayed in teaching in England after their two-year stint, while another 16% stayed in education" (Muijs et al., 2010, p. 32). However, there is criticism that the numbers reported by TFA programs do not adequately represent actual attrition rates. It is not clear whether these figures only include the TFA teachers who finished the two year commitment or if it includes all candidates who started the programme (Miner, 2010). It is possible, at least for the American scheme, that the actual attrition rate for *Teach For America* teachers in their first year of teaching will never be revealed (Télez, 2011). Most TFA recruits do not stay in education for long, which is consistent with the two-year commitment of the TFA models of teacher education. Humphrey, Wechsler and Hough found that about 20% of *Teach For America* teachers are still in education after four years but, as they noted, "*Teach For America's* goal is leadership development, not teacher retention." (2008, p. 18). This leads to mixed information and even mixed communication about the retention rate

for teachers prepared via TFA schemes. Perhaps reflections on retention and its effects in hard to staff schools are best highlighted by the apparent ambivalence of an American TFA teacher:

I have mixed feelings about my own commitment here. On the one hand, I am just like the others. I will likely put in my time and leave, if not within two, then within three years. On the other hand, it seems as though even my few years of commitment is providing some type of consistency for my students. (Veltri, 2010, p. 89)

6.6. WHAT IMPACT HAS TFA HAD ON UNIVERSITY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION?

Recently, Linda Darling-Hammond described the current state of teacher education as “perhaps the best of times and the worst of times” (2010, p. 35). In referring to the best of times, Darling-Hammond noted the considerable hard work by teacher educators and the massive amounts of policy that have been aimed at improving teacher education over the past two decades. In terms of the worst of times Darling-Hammond cautioned that flagging political support and deteriorating conditions for improving teaching and schooling have the potential to seriously undermine the work already accomplished. Although Darling-Hammond comments from the context of teacher education in the US, pressures on traditional approaches to teacher education are not unique to that country. As described above, in response to the first question asked of this review, similar pressures are evident across many countries, many arising from an increasingly ascendant neoliberal perspective of appropriate avenues for educational reform and improvement. Additionally, the international rise of alternative routes to teacher certification generally, and fast track TFA programmes specifically, has undoubtedly added to the pressures for change currently experienced by traditional university-based teacher education. From the research literature reviewed, three identifiable types of impact on traditional teacher education—which, it should be noted, are not mutually exclusive—can be attributed, at least in part, to the establishment of *fast track* teacher education schemes, including TFA. At the same time, we hasten to emphasise that the impacts suggested below are not empirical findings, as there is little research that has studied or determined these impacts directly. Therefore, the impacts on traditional teacher education offered below are largely *inferences* drawn from the published literature, rather than research findings reported.

Three areas of potential impact on university-based teacher education include:

- Promotion of a view of teacher preparation that de-skills the profession of teacher and potentially devalues public education
- Potential competition for teacher education students
- Increased internal and external scrutiny of teaching and teacher education which has, in part, resulted in national standards for graduate teachers, the centralised accreditation of teacher education programs, and continued ‘hard questions’ asked of traditional routes to teacher education.

Below, each area of potential impact, or conflict, is briefly examined.

De-skilling the teacher profession and devaluing public education

A greatly condensed and intensive period of teacher preparation is integral to the design (and attractiveness) of TFA programmes. Opponents of fast track schemes like TFA target the

short time spent in preparing future teachers by arguing that alternative routes, and fast track schemes in particular, water down teacher preparation, placing ill-prepared teachers in classrooms (Mitchell & Romero, 2010). This argument is especially made for TFA-teachers placed in the context of urban schools in the US. Undoubtedly, this design feature carries with it strong potential to communicate an understanding of teacher education that discounts the complex nature of teaching (Labaree, 2010). The fast track approach implicitly suggests that few special skills are needed to teach. Such a view instead communicates that only a strong knowledge of content, an ability to communicate, and a good dose of altruism are necessary to teach successfully (Lacsko-Kerr & Berliner, 2002; Labaree, 2010). This perception has the potential to reinforce the public view that teaching mainly involves natural ability and content expertise rather than a combination of complex pedagogical and management skills, along with deep understanding of learning and learners' needs, developed during extended and carefully-designed preparation (Labaree, 2010). As noted by Glass and many others, the alternative certification movement "threatens to de-skill the profession of teaching and even to devalue public education" (2008, p. 1). Since TFA is an extreme case of the alternative certification movement (in terms of the short duration of training) and highly visible, critics warn that its growth undermines, and could ultimately result in the demise of, traditional teacher education.

Competition for prospective teachers

In terms of attracting prospective teachers, TFA marketing seems to target individuals who would not normally enter the field of teaching. In other words, TFA's recruitment strategy, as reflected by its marketing, does not rely on or emphasise competing with traditional teacher education programmes for its participants. In addition, the findings of evaluation studies that have examined this issue do not support the argument that there is serious competition for participants. For example, the 2006 Institute for Policy Studies in Education Evaluation Report on *Teach First UK* explains that "Teach First aims to accept only those people who would not otherwise have entered the teaching professions; they are looking to recruit a new group, not to 'poach' from other providers" (Hutchings et al., 2006, p. 21). Similarly, "Teach for America taps into a non-traditional pool for teachers" (Xu, et al., 2007, p. 2). Even further, proponents of alternative certification and fast track schemes have highlighted the opportunity to be innovative in eliminating barriers for qualified individuals to enter the profession by "unlocking university monopolies over teacher education" (Mitchell & Romero, 2010, p. 365). On the other

The international rise of TFA programmes has, undoubtedly, added to the pressures for change currently experienced by traditional university-based teacher education.

Three areas of impact are discernible:

Promotion of a view of teacher preparation that de-skills the profession of teaching and potentially devalues public education;

Potential competition for teacher education students; and,

Increased internal and external scrutiny of teacher education that have resulted in national standards for both graduate and more experienced teachers.

These standards provide operational definitions of effective teacher education that will be used in the centralized accreditation of teacher education programs anchored to these standards.

hand, however, it is also the case that in Australia a large proportion of *Teach For Australia* participants had indeed “at least considered teaching as a career before encountering the TFA pathway” (Scott et al., 2010, p. 7). On balance, these findings seem to support the view that TFA schemes generally are not in direct competition for students with traditional university-based teacher education; if there is such an impact, it may be best characterised as ‘subtle.’ Nevertheless, this a question that clearly warrants further empirical research, particularly for countries like Canada and New Zealand, whose most usual initial preparation for secondary teaching has been designed and operated as one-year programmes for graduates holding subject-based Bachelor’s degrees (see, for example, <http://www.teachnz.govt.nz/assets/Uploads/Secondarybookletfinal2011.pdf>).

The development of standards for teachers and teacher education

As discussed at length in response to Question 1, the rise of alternative certification schemes, and TFA programs particularly, has been an additional (second-wave) source of pressure on traditional teacher education to be increasingly self reflective, and self evaluative, within a larger context of justifying its continued existence and support. In the US, systematic mechanisms for teacher education programme assessment and reflection, such as those developed and used by NCATE for programme accreditation, have been in existence for many years. Similarly, over the past decade in the UK there have been initiatives to raise teacher standards including the Raising Standards and Tackling Workload national agreement and more recently the revised Professional Standards for Teachers. More recently in New Zealand and Australia, the continued review of teacher education programs and providers has resulted in national organisations (AITSL and NZTC) whose mandate has been to develop and communicate standards for teachers and teacher education for which they will be accountable in the accreditation process. At least in part, the need for, and development of, national standards that guide teacher preparation has been driven by the alternative teacher preparation movement, and perhaps most strongly by fast track schemes like TFA.

Conclusion

As is normal in polarised debates, there are few definitive answers with regard to the rise of alternative routes to teacher preparation and credentialing, and its potential impact on traditional university-based programs. Refreshingly, proponents on either side of the debate have attempted to recognise positive aspects of the other side. For example, in an evaluative report providing evidence for the effectiveness of TFA-prepared teachers in the US, the authors acknowledge the value of traditional teacher education by suggesting that TFA teachers may benefit from pedagogical training (Xu et al., 2007, p. 26). Traditional, university-based teacher educators have also highlighted potential lessons that can be learned from TFA schemes (Labaree, 2010; Téllez, 2011). Téllez points out lessons learned ‘from the other side’ as he worked with Steven, a *Teach For America* corps member who was the focus of a seven year case study.

I admit to a bias against TFA from the beginning, and looking back over the years, I recall many times when my questions about TFA’s role in his development were unfairly phrased. In fact, I fully admit that over the course of the study, I secretly hoped that Steven would deny TFA’s influence on him as an educator and see it as I had: as a ham-handed, unprofessional, unprincipled project that harmed children’s education. As the interviews and the years wore on, I think he came to see TFA in a slightly less positive light while I grew to understand better its power. (Téllez, 2011, p. 30)

Similarly, Labaree acknowledged positive aspects of *Teach For America* programmes in “Things to Like about TFA.” The success of TFA schemes in making teaching attractive and recruiting teachers

to teach in hard to staff schools is “hard to hate” (Labaree, 2010, p. 51). Further, Labaree contends, TFA participants, even if they stay in classrooms only for a short period of time, are likely to continue to support education in their future careers because they have had first hand experience, and are therefore armed with better understanding of the school system (2010).

While Labaree underscores many positive aspects of TFA schemes, Téllez also asks hard questions of traditional teacher education that seemed to emerge from his case study of Steven. For example, he wonders if there are potential teachers who do *not* benefit from preservice courses before teaching in the schools and questions whether everyone should be doing the same thing at the same time with the same experiences. Extending this line of argument, Téllez further questions the extent to which there is efficiency in preservice teacher courses. Adult learners, he notes, are keenly aware of wasted time and may switch off if they find the information provided irrelevant, abstruse or redundant. Lastly, Téllez questions traditional teacher education's avoidance and suspicion of standardised tests to measure teacher effectiveness. He explains that he is “not suggesting that higher test scores provide direct evidence that Steven was an effective teacher” (2011, p. 33) but he also thinks that they helped Steven gauge his own success. Using test scores as one source of evidence, Steven was especially effective in meeting the needs of his multicultural students. Thus, the most pointed lesson for traditional teacher education is perhaps Téllez' assertion that

Until teacher educators can demonstrate clearly that preservice preparation has a measurable effect on student achievement, and that they are clearly preparing their students for urban schools, the moral argument against TFA and other alternative programs will carry little weight. (2010, p. 33)

6.7. DO PHILANTHROPIC FOUNDATIONS INFLUENCE TFA, AND IF SO HOW?

Many authors have drawn attention to the ways in which neoliberal policies¹⁰ have been changing the face of education in the USA and globally over the past decade (for example, Berliner & Biddle 1997, Barber, 2004, Menter, Brisard & Smith, 2006, Zeichner, 2006, Weiner 2007, Sleeter 2008). The so-called neoliberal project for educational reform, largely driven and financed by wealthy social entrepreneurs, is characterized by a belief that free markets can solve social problems and that government regulations often exacerbate or cause social problems. The shift towards privatization of teacher education as characterized by TFA schemes is one example of the neoliberal reform agenda, according to Weiner (2007). Devolution of management to schools, exclusive use of standardized tests to measure student performance, merit pay for teachers based on the results of these tests, attempts to de-professionalize teaching, as well as attacks on teacher unions are also characteristics of neoliberal reform agendas (Barber, 2004; Weiner, 2007).

TFA describes itself as

...a global network of independent social enterprises that are working to expand educational opportunity in their nations (<http://www.teachforall.org/>)

¹⁰ “Neoliberalism” refers to a form of conservative thought that emerged globally in the 1970s. Neo liberalism is a market driven approach to economic and social policy which prioritises private ownership and control of social goods including education. The term is widely used internationally but can be confusing in the US where the “left” of the political spectrum is described as “liberal” and the right as “conservative;” elsewhere (e.g., the UK, Australia and NZ) the left is usually referred to as “Labor” and the right may be “Liberal” and/or “Conservative.”

As this indicates, developing connections with philanthropic foundations and individuals is central to the *Teach For All* philosophy and modus operandi. Indeed, according to their website, TFA was launched in 2007, specifically to

...assist social entrepreneurs around the world who were inspired by the Teach For America and Teach First Model and wanted to adapt it to their respective countries. (http://www.teachforall.org/aboutus_history.html)

The terms 'social enterprises' and 'social entrepreneurs' describe particular types of organizations and their leaders that have been gaining influence globally since the 1990s. Sometimes known as *venture philanthropists*, these enterprises and entrepreneurs have as a core part of their operation a social or environmental mission that they seek to advance through their business activities. TFA's oldest and largest operation, *Teach For America* has been the beneficiary of some of America's most influential social entrepreneurs for many years. Top of the list of 'Life Donors' (Foundations and Individuals) who have committed over \$50 million to *Teach For America* are Sue and Steve Mandel and the Walton Family Foundation. The Laura and John Arnold Foundation, Robertson Foundation, Doris and Donald Fisher Fund and the Eli and Edythe Broad Foundation have each committed over \$25 million. The Walton Family Foundation and The Broad Foundation are two of the "big three" educational philanthropists in the US according to a recent report which concluded that \$684 million was spent between 2000 and 2008 with *Teach For America*, receiving the most (http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2011/07/27/walton-foundation-teach-for-america-walmart_n_910615.html).

The websites of some foundations that donate to *Teach For America* clearly articulate their strong neoliberal political views regarding the need for educational reform in the USA. The public education system is first characterized as in a state of crisis, which can be fixed by competition and private investment. The Walton Family Foundation, for example, with its focus on "*timeless small-town values*" indicates that "*systematic K-12 reform*" is one of its three main priorities for funding.

Our core strategy is to infuse competitive pressure into America's education system by increasing the quality and quantity of school choices available to parents, especially in low income communities.
<http://www.waltonfamilyfoundation.org/educationreform>).

In 2010, the Foundation invested \$157 million in education reform specifically aimed at shaping public policy, creating quality schools and improving existing schools (<http://www.waltonfamilyfoundation.org/educationreform>). In July 2011, the Foundation announced a \$49.5 million dollar grant to double the size of TFA. This was the single largest donation to TFA in its 20-year history and solidifies TFAs standing as the recipient of the most privately-sourced grant money directed towards teaching and learning in the USA.

Promoting 'school choice' is a key goal for the Walton Foundation as it believes that increased competitiveness will lead to better school performance and higher student achievement. A large amount of the Walton Foundation's donations go to a variety of pro 'school choice' organizations and to charter schools. Teacher selection and recruitment is another key plank in the Walton Foundations's educational reform agenda. The Foundation has a targeted Public Education Fund, which invests in "organizations that improve the way teachers are selected, trained and compensated."

Performance pay for teachers, another prominent neoliberal goal, is also supported by the Walton Family foundation. In 2010, they negotiated a “Landmark New Teachers’ Contract” through which teachers are awarded for outstanding performance and which “emphasizes quality over seniority”. The Walton Foundation was joined in this initiative by the Laura and John Arnold Foundation, The Broad Foundation, and the Robertson foundation, all of whom are among TFA’s top lifetime donors.

These social entrepreneurs are all part of what has been described as the corporate education reform movement in the US, many of whom have spent decades investing in programmes and media and political campaigns to pursue their reform agendas (Barkan, 2011). These agendas centre on school privatization, parental choice (e.g., through voucher schemes), charter schools, competition, deregulation; accountability, high-stakes standardized testing and performance pay for teachers. The influence of social entrepreneurs such as the Broad Foundation in education policy reached a peak in the lead up to the 2009 US Federal election. According to Barkin (2011), the Gates and Broad foundations, jointly funded a \$60 million campaign to persuade both major political parties to address their version of educational reform. The election of Obama was heralded as the fruition of a decade of investments.

The election of President Barack Obama and his appointment of Arne Duncan, former CEO of Chicago Public Schools, as the US Secretary of Education, marked the pinnacle of hope for our work in educational reform. In many ways we feel the stars have aligned.

With an agenda that echoes our decades of investments, charter schools, performance pay for teachers, accountability, expanded learning time and national standards – the Obama administration is poised to cultivate and bring to fruition the seeds we and other reformers have planted. (Broad Foundation 2009/10 Report, p. 6)

And with the appointment of a Director of Philanthropic Engagement within Obama’s Federal Department of Education it would appear that continued active involvement of social entrepreneurs is assured.

The pattern of high stake involvement (i.e., investing large amounts of money) of philanthropists recurs across the TFA global network. In the UK, *Teach First* lists among its Platinum supporters Steven Mandel’s Lone Pine Foundation. Steven Mandel is founder and Managing Director of the \$8 billion dollar Hedge Fund Lone Pine Capital and is a trustee for *Teach For America*. Mandel's

There is little direct evidence in the research literature regarding the motivations or influence of philanthropic foundations on TFA schemes.

Additionally, to date, foundations supporting TFA in Australia and the UK do not have as clearly articulated political agendas for educational reform as do their American counterparts.

However, the extent to which those who are significant donors, such as the Walton Family Foundation and Steven Mandel, are actively engaged in attempting to shape educational policy would seem to indicate that the TFA model fits well with their vision for reformed public education systems. These reforms seem well aligned with privatized, market-driven educational systems, and a focus on high stakes testing of student achievement.

charitable foundation was recently at the centre of a controversy involving the dissolution of the Bridgeport city school board in which it was claimed that his company would help with "educational reform" if the current board was ousted (Banjo, 2011). Other major supporters of *Teach First* include Accenture – one of the largest consulting companies in the world, the global investment banking group Goldman Sachs Inc., Deloitte, Black Rock and Proctor and Gamble.

The newly established *Teach For Australia* notes its founding partners as the Boston Consulting Group, a global management consulting firm and Corrs Chambers Westgarth Lawyers. Other supporters and champions include the Fogarty Foundation whose investments focus on a range of educational initiatives in Western Australia. They are currently funding a feasibility study for the expansion of *Teach For Australia* to regional Western Australia.

Conclusion

Companies and foundations supporting TFA schemes in Australia and the UK, to date, do not have such obvious and clearly articulated political agendas for educational reform as their American counterparts. This is not to suggest that they may not be influential in driving neoliberal reform agendas. Furlong (2002), for example, argues that ideological shifts in education in England have not been advanced through public debate but rather that "their influence was mainly achieved through a complex web of interlocking political networks that took them close to the seat of power" (p. 23).

While there is little direct evidence of the motivations and influence of philanthropists on TFA schemes, the extent to which those who are significant life time donors, such as the Walton Family Foundation and Steven Mandel are actively engaged in shaping educational policy would indicate that TFA fits within their ideological vision for a reformed education system. These reforms very clearly are aligned with a privatized, market driven educational system with a focus on high stakes testing as a measurement of student achievement.

6.8. WHAT IS THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TFA AND PROFESSIONAL TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS AND/OR UNIONS?

Policy documents and media statements reveal clearly that professional teacher associations / teacher unions in the USA, UK and Australia consider fast track schemes like *Teach For All* to be an assault on the professional status and standards of teaching. While in most cases they are in support of alternative routes to certification, the minimalist and highly technicist approach to teacher education and the inherent assumptions that anyone who is bright and enthusiastic can teach are viewed as both insulting and wrong.

In the USA, for example, the National Education Association (NEA), the largest professional organization and labour union in America, represents some 3.2 million members including public school teachers, faculty and staff at higher education colleges and universities, school support personnel, retired educators and college students preparing to become teachers. The NEA rejects fast-track short-cuts to teaching but does not reject alternative routes. The NEA recognises that there are and should be multiple pathways for entrance into the teaching profession and for attaining full licensure. The NEA believes, however, that alternative pathways must be equal to in rigour to traditional programmes and that every teacher must meet identical standards to receive professional teaching licence. The Association argues further that fast-track programs only exacerbate the problem of the 'revolving door' of teacher turnover by emphasising short-cut preparation and short term commitments. Added to this fast-track programs often place their candidates in schools where teacher stability is needed most. (NEA policy brief "One Licence –

Many routes: NEA and Alternative routes to Licensure"

(http://www.nea.org/assets/docs/HE/PB24_Alternativeroutes.pdf). The American Federation of Teachers, another large American teacher union also supports college based teacher educations and calls for these programs to be strengthened with further resources, not less.

The National Union of Teachers, in the UK, has recently condemned the Education Secretary's announcements to increase employment-based routes into teaching and double the number of *Teach First* places, in part through expansion into the primary school sector. The union's General Secretary, Christine Blower called the Education Secretary's proposition that the UK was following Finland and Korea's lead in teacher education as "disingenuous". Both countries have much higher academic qualification requirements and longer courses. Similarly she said that doubling the number of *Teach First* places, particularly for the primary sector was a mistake.

"Teaching is not a profession that can be picked up at the drop of a hat. There needs to be the time for reflection and the capacity to undertake in-depth theoretical study. Having knowledge and being able to teach it are not the same thing." Christine Blower, General Secretary of the NUT
<http://www.teachers.org.uk/node/10749>

The other large teacher union in the UK is National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT) which represents teachers and other educational professionals in England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. In a recent document "Which Way Now?" the union examines and responds to current policy documents by key Conservative aligned think tanks to assess the future possible direction of Conservative / Liberal Democratic Coalition Government education policies. Section C. Teacher Training/Development notes that key strands in these policies include an emphasis on employment based routes, greater private sector involvement, mechanistic teacher training and a reduction in the professional status of teachers. The NASUWT condemns many of the assumptions made in the reports which it claims are not based on empirical evidence. The union finds the reports insulting to working class students and the teaching profession. Commenting on the report *Troops to teachers: A successful programme from America for our inner city schools* (Burkard, 2008) published by the Centre for Policy Studies, for example, the NASUWT states that it is:

...predicated on the fetishisation of troops and the insulting suggestion that physically powerful adults (men) are needed to teach working class children. It downgrades the professional status and expertise of teachers, suggesting that effective teaching for some groups of young people can be reduced to the use of simplified, structured materials and operating manuals.
http://www.nasuwt.org.uk/system/search/index.htm?sort_by=SCORE&search=teach%20first&NextRow=11&page=2&stype=QUICK

The Australian Education Union (AEU) represents over 180,000 educators working mainly in the government school and TAFE sectors. Since the Federal Government's first proposals to support the development of a *Teach For Australia* scheme in 2009, the AEU has consistently held the position that such schemes undervalue the complex nature of teachers' work and undermine the status and standards of the profession.

Repeated surveys of beginning teachers tell us that they do not feel properly prepared for the reality of teaching when they enter the profession. It is inconceivable that a six-week program could adequately prepare prospective teachers for the range of school contexts they will encounter, especially those

that are most challenging. (AEU Federal President Angelo Gavrielatos 24 April 2009 Media Release)

“While we should be looking at ways to get people from other professions into teaching, allowing them to take up a teaching role with only eight weeks training is the wrong approach.” (AEU Federal President Angelo Gavrielatos’ August 10, 2010 Media Release). Gavrielatos further criticised the government’s claims that *Teach For America* and *Teach First UK* have been shown to deliver better outcomes for students, saying “This is offensive and demeaning to the profession. It is also untrue.”

Most recently, in his President’s Address to the AEU Federal Conference in January 2011, Gavrielatos criticized recent government statements that promoted *Teach For Australia* and its extension *Teach Next* as a programme for people “put off by the time it takes to get formal qualifications” (a typical TFA marketing strategy). Gavrielatos asked delegates if they would consider taking their child to a doctor with 8 weeks training or even their car to a mechanic with such limited training.

Conclusion

Given that *Teach For All* programs had been endorsed by the Australian Federal government and were coming into existence in Victoria, teacher unions have attempted to ensure that some minimum education and employment standards feature in the programs. The Victorian Branch of the Australian Education Union for example whilst objecting in the strongest possible terms to the then Minister for Education Julia Gillard’s claim that Pathways programs in the US and UK had delivered better student outcomes, made the following recommendations with regard to programmes like *Teach For Australia*.

1. Participants must be granted ‘Permission to Teach’ prior to commencing the programme, as required by the Victorian Institute of Teaching;
2. Participants are required to complete the educational qualifications for full registration within two years of commencing the *Teach For Australia* programme;
3. The programme is fully resourced to provide: (i) a reduced teaching load for the participant; and (ii) a programme of mentoring that includes a reduced teaching load for the mentor.
4. Employment is consistent with the appropriate Certified Agreement.
(www.aeuvic.asn.au/teach_for_au_policy.pdf)

The subsequent boutique programme developed through a partnership between the University of Melbourne’s School of Education and *Teach For Australia* has taken on board some of these recommendations at this stage. The extent to which other manifestations of TFA are sufficiently willing or financed to meet these minimal claims remains to be seen.

Policy documents and media statements clearly show that teacher associations and/or teacher unions in the US, UK and Australia consider fast track teacher training schemes like Teach For All to be a significant threat to the professional status of teaching.

While in most cases teacher associations offer measured support to alternative routes to certification, the minimalist and highly technicist approach to teacher education and the inherent assumptions that anyone who is bright and enthusiastic can teach are generally viewed as demeaning and devaluing of teachers and traditional teacher education

7. Concluding Thoughts

Internationally, alternative routes to teacher certification, including fast track schemes like *Teach For All*, have over the last two and a half decades ushered in new approaches and even new 'brands' of initial teacher education. These range from emergency certification for immediate employment and school based teacher-training programmes, to specifically designed fast track programmes, like TFA. The factors leading to the rise of alternative routes to obtaining a teaching credential are many, complex, and overlapping. One of the most obvious is government efforts to alleviate perceived shortages in teacher supply, particularly in certain high value subjects and/or locations (Lai & Grossman, 2010). These short-term, supply driven forces, however, are not the only sources of pressure behind the expansion of alternative routes for ITE. Other pressures have arisen from debates around the quality and suitability of traditional university- or college-based teacher education pathways. Others arise from controversy among teacher education stakeholders over what exactly is required to adequately prepare effective teachers, particularly for poor, minority, rural or remote communities. Additionally, these debates sit within wider competing socio-political agendas which centre on choice, privatisation and marketization of schools, curriculum, and teacher education. Thus, it seems clear that discussions of the issues concerning the growth, operation and impacts of fast track ITE programs (and specifically TFA schemes) are situated within these larger ideological debates that touch not only education, but also many other spheres of social and public life.

Amongst the rapid expansion of alternative fast track routes to ITE, perhaps the most visible and aggressive have been those coming under the *Teach For All* (TFA) umbrella. As a 'globalised network of social enterprises' TFA schemes are now an established feature of the ITE landscape in at least 18 countries, most notably the US (*Teach For America*) and the UK (*Teach First UK*), and to a lesser but growing degree in Australia (*Teach For Australia*). A new iteration (*Teach First NZ*) has recently begun negotiations with Auckland University to develop a similar scheme in New Zealand. The introduction and rapid expansion of TFA schemes have caused considerable debate. TFA is widely heralded, in some quarters, as one part of the solution to the perceived crisis in education, particularly in poor, minority remote or rural schools. Sending the 'best and brightest' to teach those in greatest need is seen by some as a panacea for a social problem that governments and public education systems have not been able to solve. TFA schemes, on the other hand, are condemned in other quarters as an ideologically driven and deliberate attack on public education, teachers, teacher professionalism and working class or 'other' communities.

As explained by Xu, Hannaway, and Taylor (2009) criticisms of TFA centre around two issues. First, the programs have been criticised because TFA teachers do not receive traditional teacher education and therefore are not as well prepared for the demands of real schools and classrooms as compared to their traditionally prepared peers. Second, critics point to the fact that TFA requires only a two-year teaching commitment, and the majority of corps members (associates) leave at the end of that time. This can be a problem, according to critics, because of the conventional wisdom that new teachers are generally less effective in comparison to their more experienced colleagues. Additionally, Glass (2008) has argued that the alternative certification movement threatens to "de-skill the profession of teaching and even to devalue public education" (p. 1).

This literature review has sought to investigate these diverse claims, both for and against TFA schemes, through an examination of the available empirical literature, as well as the wider sociological literature that provides important background to the political and socio-economic context within which the emergence and expansion of TFA lies. We agree here with Cochran-Smith and Fries (2001) that underlying ideologies, ideas and values need to be debated along with

and in relation to the evidence about teacher quality and the impact of educational reforms, although such a debate remains beyond the scope or mandate of this review. Rather, the specific focus for this review has been to respond to a series of questions raised by the New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers' Association *Te Wehengarua*. These questions revolve around issues to do with teacher recruitment, selection and retention as well as the various models that exist for TFA schemes globally. Importantly too they ask us to consider what evidence there is of the relative 'effectiveness' of TFA teachers compared to others, and the impact TFA schemes may have on traditional university- or college-based teacher education programmes. Importantly, with acknowledgement of the broader socio political context within which fast track ITE schemes exist, we are asked to consider what evidence there is of the influence philanthropic organisations and corporations may have had on TFA and what, if any, relationships exist between teacher unions or professional associations and TFA.

Recruitment, Selection and Retention

TFA schemes market themselves as uniquely different to traditional or other alternative initial teacher education pathways. The focus of TFA advertising is not on attracting students for a lifetime career in teaching but rather providing young and talented graduates the opportunity to 'give back to society' and 'make a difference' through offering to teach in poor, minority or rural communities. This appeal to philanthropy and altruism, sometimes portrayed as an 'adventure', is combined with other benefits including becoming part of the TFA alumni, which offers future career and networking opportunities both within and outside the sphere of education. In fact, a significant part of TFA's long-term goals, is to develop leaders who can play future roles in educational reform either through politics or business.

TFA has actively and successfully recruited in elite universities and markets itself and its recruits as 'a cut above the rest'. The pool of candidates being attracted to participate is one that has not previously been widely tapped by traditional teacher education programs. Related to this point, based largely on Barber and Mourshed's McKinsey Report (2007), Hobson and his colleagues (2010) found that the best performing school systems, according to the results of international testing, not only have rigorous certification and licensing selection procedures for entry to the teaching profession but also have strict entry requirements for ITE programmes. In these systems, ITE candidates are recruited from the top third of graduating students and effective mechanisms are in place for selecting entrants to teacher education programmes that enable identification of levels of literacy and numeracy; interpersonal and communication skills; willingness to learn and motivation to teach (cited in Hobson et al. 2010). Along these lines, it is argued that highly selective and rigorous entry requirements make teaching more attractive to high performing applicants.

On the other hand, there are significant arguments raised in the literature which question TFA's 'missionary' approach to teacher training and teaching. Popkewitz (1998), for example, has drawn attention to the way in which such advertising strategies encourage a view that the poor, minority or anything 'other' than white middle class are in need of a different type of education. Additionally, TFA has been criticised for perpetuating and encouraging (perhaps unintentionally) a 'revolving door' view of teacher recruitment and retention in the schools it typically serves. Unfortunately, however, studies in the schools that compare the retention rates of teachers prepared by fast track TFA routes versus other (traditional) routes are few, and actual figures are difficult to come by. We do know that attrition rates among new teachers are high, particularly during their first 3 years of practice, and particularly in schools considered hard to staff because of challenging socioeconomic or other circumstances. It could also be argued, however, that it is seemingly unfair to hold TFA programs to account for many of its teachers leaving the profession

after only two years, when a key feature of the programme's design and attractiveness is the two-year commitment to teaching, and about which TFA is quite clear.

Effectiveness of Teachers and Programmes

Little agreement exists among traditional teacher education providers as to what constitutes effective teacher preparation, and this extends to debates about teacher effectiveness and quality. In this review we have preferred a straightforward and increasingly accepted view of effectiveness that has at its centre the advancement of students' learning. Only a few well-designed empirical studies have directly examined the comparative effectiveness of teachers prepared via traditional ITE versus those prepared via fast track (TFA) routes. Of the studies that have attempted to examine this key issue, a majority report that TFA teachers hold an advantage over their otherwise prepared peers in terms of the learning of their students, particularly in subjects like science and maths. Often, studies reporting an advantage for TFA-prepared teachers are criticized on at least three counts, including (1) their perceived objectivity; (2) the teachers to whom TFA are compared; and, (3) the use of standardised achievement tests as the sole criterion for teacher effectiveness and/or quality.

With regard to the first of these points, at least two of the studies that were reviewed for this report (including the most recent conducted in the UK at the secondary level) were commissioned by TFA, which may raise for some the question of objectivity or bias in the findings reported or conclusions reached. However, in our view, and lacking evidence to the contrary, such criticism appears to be a red herring. Using that type of logic would also then suggest that this review, having been commissioned by the PPTA, would necessarily be inclined toward the Association's worldview, or in some way be less than scientific, impartial or evidence-based. Quite the opposite, we suspect that *bona fide* researchers asked to take up such projects may indeed be more scrupulously objective, and consciously careful of their research design and analysis procedures having recognised the controversial nature of the topic at hand. We know that this has happened in the current case.

Second, an often unspoken reality is that there are, in the schools, a substantial proportion of teachers who are under-prepared and therefore under-certified, or alternatively, who are teaching out of field (teaching subjects or levels for which they are not formally prepared). Currently, this seems more likely in the US (Glass, 2008) than would be the case for Australia (McConney & Price, 2009) or New Zealand. Therefore, when comparing the effectiveness, quality or impact of TFA teachers it would seem apparent that policy-makers and other education decision makers have a choice. On the one hand these stakeholders could say that having some, perhaps many, under certified teachers reflects the challenging reality of the situation, and therefore it is acceptable to compare TFA teachers against all other beginning teachers found in the schools where TFA teachers teach. On the other it could be said that too few fully certified (prepared) teachers for schools in difficult circumstances does not mean that we accept that reality; rather we should do everything that we can to improve the numbers of fully certified teachers in the schools, and ensure that comparisons of alternatively prepared teachers are made versus teachers who begin teaching fully prepared and licensed. In terms of empirical analysis, our preference is to do both, and we acknowledge that more recent studies like the Urban Institute/CALDER study of the effectiveness of high school teachers in North Carolina have conducted analyses that compare TFA teachers against all others, as well as against only those teachers fully prepared by traditional ITE programs.

Third, as well explained by Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, Michelli, and Wyckoff (2006) educators continue to be concerned about using value-added measures derived from state, national and international standardized assessments, to make claims about teacher and school

effectiveness. As Boyd et al. (2006) describe, many educationalists content that achievement tests measure only a small part of students' learning, and focusing on these measures misses many other important aspects of learning (an inherent limitation to these kinds of data). Despite these acknowledged limitations, standardized assessments nevertheless measure outcomes that policy makers have agreed are important for students, and can reveal gaps in students' learning, or evidence of poor progress associated with particular teachers or schools. "For these reasons, we can see the value of using student achievement data in large-scale studies of teacher effects, even as we acknowledge their limitations" (Boyd, et al., 2006, p. 163).

In addition to studies that compared the relative effectiveness of TFA-prepared and traditionally-prepared teachers, the current review also considered those that have addressed the potential impact of TFA on traditional teacher education. Although few studies directly examined such impacts, it is also clear that traditional university-based ITE programmes in the US, UK, Australia, New Zealand and elsewhere have been challenged, over the past two decades, by significant policy shifts with regard to the development of specific and mandated 'professional standards' for teachers, accompanying mechanisms for ITE programme certification and a vast array of alternative certification programmes. These policy shifts are often driven by public discourses that argue, firstly, that many schools in western democracies are in a state of crisis and secondly that teachers' work matters. That is to say that the quality and effectiveness of teachers and therefore initial teacher education must be attended to if schools and student outcomes are to improve. Such discourses have brought traditional teacher education programmes under the spotlight. In some cases this has meant policy initiatives that have sought to raise the standard of ITE to ensure that certain prescribed levels of, for example, subject and pedagogical knowledge are mandated. Since 2002, in the UK for example, there have been a number of major government initiatives aimed at raising teacher standards including the Raising Standards and Tackling Workload national agreement (2003) and the revised Professional Standards for Teachers (2009) (Gray & Whitty, 2009). As described previously, such initiatives have been replicated in the US, UK, Australia and New Zealand.

These changes have brought about what Gray and Whitty have called 'changing and competing models of teacher professionalism'. Amongst these changes have been the acceptance of, and encouragement for many more alternative certification routes to teaching and in particular the Teach First programme. These initiatives signal a shift in public discourse regarding what counts as teacher knowledge and professionalism. In other words, what do teachers need to know and be able to do in order to achieve quality outcomes for students? This shift in thinking and public policy has presented major challenges for traditional ITE providers. If it is the case, for example, that 'good teachers' need only subject matter knowledge or only a passion to help others, then there seems little need to fund four year programmes with pedagogical, sociological, indigenous education, or special needs units. Alternatively, if indeed teachers' work is far more complex than knowing a subject and caring for others then initial teacher education must be as intellectually and clinically rigorous as one would expect, for example, of courses that educate lawyers and doctors, and particularly for those working in diverse communities. In time, the impact of TFA and other alternative schemes on traditional ITE programmes seems likely to be that the latter will be increasingly required to much more strongly and publicly argue the case that teachers' work is intellectual, social, emotional and complex. Additionally, while teachers' professional skills are a critical part of student success, there are also other important economic, social, cultural and political issues that impact on schooling.

Relationships with philanthropies, corporations and teachers' associations

According to Kumashiro (2010), one of the most dominant discourses shaping education reform globally is that of neoliberalism. In this paradigm, individuals supposedly reach their

highest potential in competition with each other unfettered by regulation. This pro-business social movement began to have a significant impact on public policy in the US in the 1980s and has since been influential in framing educational policy reform. Central to the free market model of school reform are pro school choice movements including school vouchers and charter schools (Kumashiro, 2010, p. 61). Similarly alternative routes to initial teacher education that have the potential to break the “monopoly” of university- or college- based programmes fit within this logic that competition will improve the quality of teacher education. Certainly in the USA, TFA is supported by some of America’s wealthiest and most influential social entrepreneurs. Many of TFA’s life-time donors play an active and overt role in driving a neoliberal educational reform agenda. These reforms include charter schools, performance pay for teachers and high stakes testing. One of these life-time donors, the immensely powerful Walton Family Foundation, announced in July 2011 that it was donating a further \$49.5 million to *Teach For America* to double its size. The Foundation’s reasons for doing this are quite clear. “The Walton Family’s support for TFA is driven not only by their ability to place the best and brightest college graduates into classrooms that need them most, but also by *their proven track record in producing leaders for the parental choice and education reform movement*” [emphasis added] (<http://www.waltonfamilyfoundation.org/mediacenter/educationreform/tfa-grant>)

The Walton Family Foundation, like many of the other social entrepreneurs that financially support TFA schemes are publicly and deliberately leading a campaign of educational reform that is in line with their neoliberal ideological position. This reform centres on privatisation of all levels of education including teacher education. Support for TFA schemes fits within this political agenda not only at the level of privatising ITE pathways but also as a means of developing a cadre of future leaders who will continue to advance similar educational reform agendas.

On the other side, teacher unions and professional associations have on the whole condemned fast track ITE programs as lacking in rigour and an attack on teacher professionalism. Predicated on the notion that anyone can teach, teacher unions and associations, argue that fast track programmes undermine the complex nature of teachers’ work. Whilst acknowledging the need for alternative pathways to teaching, any programme that reduces ITE to a short summer intensive programme are severely criticised. Where such programmes exist though, teacher unions have sought to ensure that minimal standards apply as, for example, the Australian Education Union has called for *Teach For Australia* Pathway participants to at least have a reduced teaching load, be mentored and required to complete educational qualifications for full teacher registration within the first two years of their TFA assignments. It would seem that whilst such programmes are being operated through strong partnerships with universities as in Australia there is potential to ensure the participants are carefully selected and supported in their first years. This of course requires careful monitoring and adequate resources. The extent to which TFA associates go on to drive neoliberal educational reform agendas, potentially including anti union stances, is something that teacher unions and associations should be aware of and that warrants further research.

No one would argue with the proposition that all students and schools need ‘good’ teachers. What makes a ‘good’ teacher continues to be a matter for considerable debate and not something to be taken lightly, despite growing consensus around an outcomes-centred worldview in the US and elsewhere. Are TFA teachers potentially ‘good’ teachers? The empirical evidence would suggest that yes some are! But is the TFA model the best way to educate teachers and improve outcomes for students? Despite the remarkable success and spread of the approach, important questions nevertheless remain about TFA’s longer-term impact for students, schools and unquestionably for teachers and the teaching profession.

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APPENDIX A

INITIAL ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY¹¹

¹¹This annotated bibliography was initially generated for external reviewers. Their feedback produced further sources for the Literature review which are not annotated here.



ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

ANDREW MCCONNEY, ANNE PRICE AND AMANDA WOODS-MCCONNEY

Alhamisi, J.C. (2011). Comparison of alternative and traditional teacher preparation programs for first year special education teachers in northwest Ohio. *Journal of the National Association for Alternative Certification*, 6(1), 13-25. Available at <http://www.alt-teachercert.org/Current%20Issue.pdf>

This study compares grade point averages and PRAXIS II (subject area and teacher skills) scores between first-year special education teachers who completed an alternative teacher preparation program in special education and those who completed a traditional teacher preparation program in special education at the same university. Findings indicate that teachers from both programs had similar outcomes on the Praxis II licensure exam and final grade point averages.

Ashby, P., Hobson, A.J., Tracey, L., Malderez, A., Tomlinson, P.D., Roper, T., Chambers, G.N., & Healy, J. (2008). *Beginner teachers' experiences of initial teacher preparation, induction and early professional development: A review of literature*. Research Report DCSF-RW076, Department of Children, Schools and Families: University of Nottingham.

This review of the literature is part of the Becoming a Teacher (BaT) research project (Becoming a teacher: the nature and impact of teachers' experiences of initial teacher training, induction and early professional development). The six year longitudinal BaT study was commissioned by the Department for Children, Families and Schools, the General Teaching Council of England and the Training and Development Agency. The review notes that while most existing research in initial teacher preparation (ITP) is small scale, there is nevertheless a firm base of literature, much of which has produced similar findings. These findings include the need to take into consideration individual needs, concerns, contexts and teacher identities when developing programmes as well as fostering and providing greater individual but informed choice in student and beginner teacher learning pathways. The review also emphasises the highly emotional journey that most trainee and beginning teachers experience and the impact that positive relations with significant others can have.

Ballou, D. & Podgursky, M. (1998). The case against teacher certification. *The Public Interest*, 132, 17-29.

Ballou and Podgursky are economists who have "studied labor markets for public and private school teachers." In this 1998 paper Ballou and Podgursky contend that the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) report (What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future, 1996), and proposals therein, take public policy in the wrong direction. They argue that NCTAF misdiagnosed the problem of teacher quality, and rather than attending to improving teacher training, should focus instead on recruiting more "talented people" into the profession, and on teacher performance.

Boe, E.E., Shin, S., Cook, L.H. (2007). Does teacher preparation matter for beginning teachers in either special or general education? *Journal of Special Education*, 41(3), 158-170.

Emphasis on the preparation of teachers in content knowledge, and de-emphasis on pedagogy and teaching practicums, constitutes a major issue concerning how best to prepare a sufficient supply of highly qualified teachers. Results showed that extensive preparation in pedagogy and practice teaching was more effective than was only some or no preparation in producing beginning teachers who (a) were fully certified, (b) secured in-field teaching assignments, and (c) reported being well prepared to teach subject matter and well prepared with respect to pedagogical skills.



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Boone, W. J., Abell, S. K., Volkman, M. J., Arbaugh, F., Lannin, J. K. (2011). Evaluating selected perceptions of science and mathematics teachers in an alternative certification program. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*, 9(3), 551-569.

In 2003 the University of Missouri (with US National Science Foundation funding) initiated an alternative teacher certification program (ACP) aimed at increasing the quantity and quality of mathematics and science teachers at middle and secondary levels. To evaluate the program, data were collected from ACP participants regarding perceived preparation, self efficacy, and outcome expectancy at three time points. Across time, ACP participants exhibited an increasingly positive view of their preparation for classroom teaching, as well as increased self efficacy. However, there was little change in students' outcome expectancy.

Bowe, A., Braam, M., Lawrenz, F., & Kirchoff, A. (2011). Comparison of alternative and traditional teacher certification programs in terms of effectiveness in encouraging STEM pre-service teachers to teach in high needs schools. *Journal of the National Association for Alternative Certification*, 6(1), 26-45. Available at <http://www.alt-teachercert.org/Current%20Issue.pdf>

Alternative and traditional programs were compared in terms of their perceived effectiveness in encouraging potential STEM teachers to teach in high need schools. Results demonstrated that participants from alternative and traditional programs were similar in demographic and most affective characteristics but different in background experiences and beliefs about teaching. Data suggest that alternative routes might attract more candidates who are more likely to teach in high need schools.

Boyd, D. J., Grossman, P. L., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., Wyckoff, J. (2009). Teacher preparation and student achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 31(4), 416-440.

This study is one of the first to estimate the effects of features of teachers' preparation on their value added to student test score performance. The results indicate variation across preparation programs in the average effectiveness of the teachers supplied to New York City schools. In particular preparation directly linked to practice appears to benefit teachers in their 1st year.

Boyd, D.J., Grossman, P., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., Michelli, N.M., Wyckoff, J. (2006). Complex by design - Investigating pathways into teaching in New York City schools. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(2), 155-166.

Overview of a research project that examines features of multiple pathways into teaching in New York City schools and the impact of these features on where teachers teach, how long they remain in the classroom, and student achievement in reading and math as measured by value added analyses. The article provides both a conceptual framework for the study and a discussion of some of the methodological challenges involved in such research, including problems of selection bias, difficulties in documenting programmatic features, and challenges of estimating teacher effects on student achievement.

Cameron, M. & Baker, R. (2004). *Research on Initial Teacher Education in New Zealand: 1993-2004. Literature Review and Annotated Bibliography*. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZER).

This literature review, commissioned by the New Zealand Teachers' Council and the New Zealand Ministry of Education provides a comprehensive background to research and public policy concerning Initial Teacher Education in New Zealand from 1993 to 2004. Arguing that there has been little empirical research conducted in New Zealand, in part because of a lack of funding to support it, the review aimed to provide research evidence to inform policy decisions and provide a platform for further research. The review highlights the shift towards deregulation in initial teacher education provision and pressures to introduce condensed courses to address teacher shortages but claims there has been little or no empirical research to support such policy



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decisions. The review also notes the context of policy decisions within an economic rationalist paradigm dominated by managerial discourses of faster and cheaper.

Cameron, M., Garvey Berger, J., Lovett, S., and Baker R. (2007). *Early Career Teachers' Opportunities for Professional Learning: Impacts on Teaching Practice, Job Satisfaction, Motivation, and Career Decisions*. Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association annual conference, Institute of Education, London, September 2007.

This paper focuses on the ongoing professional learning opportunities that a sample of 57 'teachers of promise' were able to access in their first years of teaching, as well as their perspectives on the value of these opportunities in their teaching, job satisfaction and career development. The study found that opportunities for professional learning varied across sectors and schools but that teachers in schools with a culture and climate for ongoing professional learning generally reported greater satisfaction with their teaching career. Teachers also reported lack of time and extra administrative duties as barriers to professional learning. There was also a significant lack of agency provided for teachers to develop their own professional learning opportunities.

Carter, H., Amrein-Beardsley, A., Cooper Hansen, C. (2011). So NOT amazing! Teach for America Corps members' evaluation of the first semester of their teacher preparation program. *Teachers College Record*, 113(5), 861-894.

The purposes of this study were (1) to explore differences in quality ratings of courses and instructors and (2) to examine what items on the student evaluation instrument could be used to identify salient constructs that are most necessary to meet the needs of TFA students. The researchers analyzed the numerical differences between student evaluation scores posted for the same instructors by different groups of students (TFA and traditional students enrolled in the same methods coursework). The researchers also analysed survey (Likert-type and open-ended) data to evidence and explain differences. (1) TFA students did in fact rate their courses and instructors significantly lower than did their non-TFA peers; (2) TFA students, as practicing teachers in charge of real-time classrooms, were more critical consumers, critical in the sense that they needed—or, more appropriately, felt that they needed—coursework that provided just-in-time knowledge; and (3) TFA students did not feel as if they were treated like master's students. They wanted instructors who modeled practical teaching strategies and did not dumb down course activities, many of which they believed were irrelevant and a waste of time given their immediate needs.

Cochran Smith, M. (2003). Assessing assessment in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 54(3), 187-191.

Three regional studies—from Ohio, Massachusetts, and Oregon—represent an emerging trend in teacher education assessment efforts to capitalize on and study naturally occurring variations (e.g., different models of preparation at the same universities, teacher candidates with and without preparation aligned with state curriculum standards, different program structures and arrangements across institutions) in teacher preparation to produce evidence that can guide program design decisions.

Cochran-Smith, M. & Fries, M.K. (2001). Sticks, stones and ideology: The discourse of reform in teacher education. *Educational Researcher*, 30(8), 3-15.

In this article, the authors analyze how agendas to professionalize teaching and teacher education and to deregulate teacher preparation are publicly constructed, critiqued, and debated, drawing on public documents from each side and using the language and arguments of the advocates themselves. The authors argue that, despite very different agendas, the discourse of both deregulation and professionalization revolves rhetorically around the establishment of three interrelated warrants, which legitimize certain policies and undermine others. Taken together, what Cochran-Smith and Fries label "the evidentiary warrant," "the political warrant,"



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and "the accountability warrant," are intended by advocates of competing agendas to add up to "common sense" about how to improve the quality of the nation's teachers.

Conner, L (2009). Initial teacher education programmes in transition: tensions and possibilities. *Curriculum Matters*. 5:121 (17)

An overview of the findings from the Teacher Education for the Future Project, a multinational futures-focused research initiative. ITE students, teachers and teacher educators were asked to rank items related to aims of education and future focuses for teacher education. Findings show some overlap across countries but also highlighted some distinctly different views from NZ participants. In particular the need for critical thinking and attention to cultural diversity were considered important. The project offers an alternative way to look at teacher education reform by focusing on what works for the future. It also highlights that different countries have different values / goals.

Coombs Richardson, R., Glessner, L.L., & Tolson, H. (2007). Stopping the leak: retaining beginning teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(2), Article 2. Available at: <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol32/iss2/2>

The need for teacher retention has prompted numerous American states to provide programs for training mentors. This study examines the Texas Beginning Educator Support System (TxBESS) which has supported over 10,000 beginning teachers since its implementation in 1999. TxBESS supported interns was surveyed and the data suggest that retention rates and teacher satisfaction were high.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1994). Who will speak for the children? How 'Teach for America' hurts urban schools and students. *Phi Delta Kappan*, September 1994, 21-34.

Criticism of Teach for America based on the disregard for the knowledge base of teaching, devaluing of urban students and de-professionalisation of teaching. Argues that Teach for America Corp members are not prepared to meet the needs of the students and can displace fully qualified teachers. The author asserts that TFA places unqualified teachers in classrooms with students who may need the most support.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education*. 61(1-2), 35-47.

Discussion of the U.S. context for teacher education, the power of teacher preparation for transforming teaching and learning, and the current challenges for teacher education in the United States.

Darling-Hammond, L., Chung, R., & Frelow, F. (2002). Variation in teacher preparation: How well do different pathways prepare teachers to teach? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(4), 286-302.

This research examines data from a 1998 survey of nearly 3000 beginning teachers in New York City regarding their views of their preparation for teaching, their beliefs and practice, and their plans to remain in teaching. The findings indicate that teachers who were prepared in teacher education programs felt significantly better prepared across most dimensions of teaching than those who entered teaching through alternative programs or without preparation.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Youngs, P. (2002). Defining "highly qualified teachers": What does "scientifically-based research" actually tell us? *Educational Researcher*, 31, 13-25.

This paper responds to the U.S. Secretary of Education's Annual Report on Teacher Quality (U.S. Department of Education) titled Meeting the Highly Qualified Teachers Challenge. The authors systematically construct a research informed refutation of the 4 key propositions of the report, including that: 1) teachers matter for student achievement, but teacher education and certification are not related to teacher effectiveness; 2) verbal



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ability and subject matter knowledge are the most important components of teacher effectiveness; 3) teachers who have completed teacher education programs are academically weak and underprepared for their jobs; and 4) alternative certification programs have academically stronger recruits, high rates of teacher retention, and produce more successful teachers.

Decker, P.T., Mayer, D.P., Glazerman, S. (2004). *The Effects of Teach For America on Students: Findings from a National Evaluation*. Princeton, NJ: Mathematica Policy Research, Inc.

This study examines the impact of TFA teachers on student achievement. It compares the achievement of students taught by TFA teachers with the achievement of students taught by other teachers in the same schools and at the same grades, referred to as "control teachers." Importantly, the study enhances the comparisons by randomly assigning students to their classrooms prior to the start of the school year so that the TFA and control teachers have essentially identical classes of students. Two types of comparisons were done. First, classes taught by TFA teachers were compared with classes taught by all control teachers. Second, to control for differences in teaching experience, second type of comparison based on classes taught by novice TFA teachers and novice control teachers was done. (Novice teachers were defined as those in their first three years of teaching during the study year.) The student outcomes examined were based on math and reading tests (Iowa test of Basic Skills) administered at the beginning and end of the school year. Other outcomes were assessed by collecting school records and asking teachers to respond to a survey about their own practices and attitudes and their perceptions of the classroom environment. The evaluation was conducted in two stages: a pilot study in one region (Baltimore) during 2001–2002, and a full-scale evaluation in five additional regions (Chicago, Los Angeles, Houston, New Orleans, and the Mississippi Delta) during the 2002–2003 school year. The final research sample included 17 schools, 100 classrooms, and about 2,000 students. Regarding student achievement, the study found that TFA teachers had a positive impact on the math achievement of their students—average math scores were significantly higher among TFA students than among control students. TFA teachers did not have an impact on average reading achievement. Students in TFA and control classrooms experienced the same growth rate in reading achievement. The authors argue that from the perspective of a community or a school faced with the opportunity to hire TFA teachers, their findings suggest that TFA offers an appealing pool of candidates.

Dobbie, W. (2011). *Teacher Characteristics and Student Achievement: Evidence from Teach for America*. Available at http://www.people.fas.harvard.edu/~dobbie/research/TeacherCharacteristics_July2011.pdf

This (as yet unpublished) paper uses data from Teach for America admissions records to explore whether information collected at the time of hire can predict student outcomes. The study finds that a teacher's academic achievement, leadership experience, and perseverance are associated with student gains in math. Leadership experience and commitment to the TFA mission are associated with gains in English. The TFA admissions measures are also associated with improved classroom behavior. The author contends that these results suggest that teacher success can be predicted at the time of hire.

Foote, M. Q., Brantlinger, A., Haydar, H. N., Smith, B., Gonzalez, L. (2011). Are we supporting teacher success? Insights from an alternative route mathematics teacher certification program for urban public schools. *Education and Urban Society*. 43(3), 396-425.

This study examined the induction policies and practices for new alternatively certified mathematics teachers in the country's largest urban school district, New York City. Data sources included a survey of one cohort of Fellows (N=167), as well as in depth interviews and written reflections from 12 case study Fellows. Results indicate that induction supports, while as espoused seem adequate, as delivered are inconsistent and in many cases inadequate. A key finding is that many teachers found that informal relationships, usually within their local school settings, provided more effective support to help them through their first years of teaching.



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Furlong, J. (2002). Ideology and reform in teacher education in England: Some reflections on Cochran-Smith and Fries. *Educational Researcher*, 31(6), 23-25.

In this article Furlong comments on Cochran-Smith and Fries (2001) paper, from an English policy context perspective. The paper provides some useful background to teacher education reform in England in the 1980s (Thatcher) and 1990s (New Labour). Furlong argues that unlike the US, there has been little informed public debate in England regarding notions of 'teacher professionalism'. Instead dominant discourses have been driven by government lead policy initiatives that have articulated the 'new professionalism' required for changing times. Another main focus of the paper is to emphasise the way in which similar debates, ideas or reforms take on different shapes in different contexts. It is important therefore, to be critical of simply transposing policy from one context to another as can be a trend within the current globalisation context.

Gimbert, B.G., Cristol, D., Sene, A.M. (2007). The impact of teacher preparation on student achievement in algebra in a "Hard-to-Staff" urban PreK-12-University partnership. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 18(3), 245-272.

The purpose of this study was to determine if a nontraditional teacher preparation program, the Transition To Teaching program, was a viable way to ease the teacher shortages in a high poverty, urban U.S. school district, and at the same time, to evaluate the impact of teacher training on students' academic achievement. The results of this study afford evidence that the students taught by 1st-year, alternatively prepared teachers achieved as well as or better than their peers taught by traditionally certified 1st-year teachers, according to student achievement in mathematics, specifically Algebra I.

Gray, S.L, Whitty, G, (2010). Social trajectories or disrupted identities? Changing and competing models of teacher professionalism under New Labour. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 40:1 5-23.

This article focuses on three new professional roles in the education workforce, which have been introduced in England since 1997 under New Labour. These new roles include High Level Teacher Assistants, Teach First trainees and Advanced Skills Teachers. Using Bourdieu's concept of habitus Bernstein's theories of knowledge and identity, the article considers the way such workforce remodelling initiatives have contributed to changes in the nature of teacher professionalism. The article places the Teach First program, for example, within the context of changing teacher professionalism discourses related to 'on the job' training versus more educational theory and teaching as a short-term, incidental profession.

Grossman, P. (1989). Learning to teach without teacher education. *Teachers College Record*, 91(2), 191-208.

A case study analysis of the pedagogical content knowledge of three beginning secondary-school English teachers to explore the sources of knowledge these teachers use as they learn to teach. Without formal systems for induction into teaching, learning is left to chance and teachers may start blaming students rather than taking the responsibility for reaching a wide range of students.

Grubbs, S.T. (2009). An evaluation of an alternative teacher certification program: A matter of trust. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 30(4), 581-586.

According to the evaluation, the alternative certified program provides well-prepared teachers for Georgia's middle and secondary classrooms. The program is particularly strong in how program faculty support and mentor their students in the school setting. The areas for improvement involved how well the program kept data on candidates after they completed and on developing more effective communication with school district personnel.



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Hall, C. & Schulz, R. (2003). Tensions in teaching and teacher education: Professionalism and professionalisation in England and Canada. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 33(3), 369-383.

This article derives from a comparative case study of two pre-service teacher education programmes in England and in Canada. Using Goodson and Hargreaves' propositions about the seven principles of postmodern teacher professionalism, we discuss the tensions between government professionalisation agendas for teaching and teacher education, on the one hand, and on the other hand, the creation of conditions in schools and faculties of education in which professionalism is diminished or even systematically undermined.

Heineke, A.J., Carter, H., Desimone, M., & Cameron, Q. (2010). Working together in Urban Schools: How a University Teacher Education Program and Teach for America Partner to Support Alternatively Certified Teachers. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 37(3).

Explanation of how one university partnered with Teach for America and changed their program to meet the needs of teachers in urban schools. The program has shifted to embed preparation and education of teachers through school-site support and coursework grounded in and applied to classroom practice.

Hobson, A.J., Malderez, A., Tracey, L., Giannakaki, M.S., Pell, R.G., Kerr, K., Chambers, G.N., Tomlinson, P.D., & Roper, T. (2006). *Becoming a Teacher: Student Teachers' Experiences of Initial Teacher Training in England*. Research Report RR744, Department for Education and Skills: University of Nottingham.

This comprehensive report presents findings from the second year of the Becoming a Teacher (BaT) research project (Becoming a teacher: the nature and impact of teachers' experiences of initial teacher training, induction and early professional development). The six year (2003 – 2009) longitudinal study of teacher's experiences of initial teacher training (ITT) and early professional development in England was commissioned by the Department for Children, Families and Schools, the General Teaching Council of England and the Training and Development Agency. One of the objectives of the overall research was to examine the experiences of teachers who had entered the profession via different training routes. The focus of this particular report is on student teachers and their initial experiences of their ITT programs including the Higher Education and School Based components of the programmes. The research design included a large scale national telephone survey, in-depth face to face interviews with a sub set of students and ITT programme personnel. Stratified sampling was used to ensure a representative number from training routes with the fewest training places. General themes emerging from the report include, for example, that student teachers following school-based ITT programmes were more satisfied with the balance between theory and practice in their programmes.

Hobson, A.J., Malderez, A., Tracey, L., Homer, M.S., Ashby, P., Mitchell, N., McIntyre, J., Cooper, D., Roper, T., Chambers, G.N. & Tomlinson, P.D. (2009). *Becoming a Teacher: Teachers' Experiences of Initial Teacher Training, Induction and Early Professional Development*. Final Report DCSF-RR115, Department for Education and Skills: University of Nottingham.

This is the final report from the Becoming a Teacher (BaT) research project. The aim of the six year (2003-2009) project was to explore beginner teachers' experiences of Initial Teacher Training (ITT), induction and early professional development in England including the extent to which the training route they followed impacted on their retention or attrition in the profession. The study tracked prospective teachers from a variety of training routes into their first years of teaching. Data collection included an annual survey, completed initially by 4790 student teachers and in- depth face to face interviews with a sub sample of case study beginning teachers. Key findings included that variations in beginner teacher experiences were related to a range of factors including the training route followed, motives, preconceptions and expectations, ethnicity and age but that the impact of training route and preconceptions were largely 'washed out' over time by teachers' subsequent experiences of teaching. Variation in relation to age and ethnicity were more persistent. With



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regard to retention, secondary Graduate and Registered Teacher Program trainees were less likely to have withdrawn than those from secondary flexible Post Graduate Certificate Education programmes.

Hobson, A.J., Tracey, L., Kerr, K., Malderez, A., Pell, G., Simm, C., & Johnson, F. (2004). *Why People Choose to Become Teachers and the Factors Influencing their Choice of Initial Teacher Training Route: Early findings from the Becoming a Teacher (BaT) Project*. Research Brief RBX08-04, UK Department for Education and Skills.

This paper presents early findings from the Becoming a Teacher (BaT) 2003-2009 longitudinal study regarding the reasons people choose to become teachers. Early findings indicate that majority of trainees, regardless of the training route chosen, were attracted to teaching by the idea of working with children or young people. Different factors, however, were found to attract people into training routes. The majority of university based Post Graduate Certificate of Education students were attracted by the balance of in school and out of school training whereas Graduate and Registered Teacher Education Programme students considered the route the best option financially. Findings were based on the responses of 4,393 student teachers to a self completion questionnaire as well as in-depth interviews with a sub sample of 76 trainees.

Hope, J. (1999). *Reshaping Primary Teacher Education in New Zealand: compressed courses and school partnership*, *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 27:3, 183-191.

This paper describes changes in ITE in NZ during the 1980s and 1990s and specifically describes one compressed course introduced by University of Auckland. The course was an 18 month graduate program in partnership with schools. Paper presents results from surveys conducted with students and teachers at the end of the first year. Concluded that most ITE reform is based on external factors such as teacher supply issues rather than carefully researched program evaluation.

Humphrey, D.C., Wechsler, M.E., Hough, H.J. (2008). *Characteristics of effective alternative teacher certification programs*. *Teachers College Record*, 110(1), 1-63.

This is an analysis of seven alternative certification programs to determine the characteristics of effective programs. Findings suggest that an effective alternative certification program places candidates in schools with strong leadership, a collegial atmosphere, and adequate materials. Effective programs select well-educated individuals or work to strengthen subject matter knowledge, and recognize that previous classroom experience is an asset. Effective programs provide carefully constructed and timely coursework tailored to candidates' backgrounds and school contexts. And, effective programs provide trained mentors who have the time and resources to plan lessons with candidates, share curricula, demonstrate lessons, and provide feedback after frequent classroom observations.

Hutchings, M., Maylor, U., Mendick, H., Menter, I., & Smart, S. (2006). *An evaluation of innovative approaches to teacher training on the Teach First programme: final report to the Training and Development Agency for Schools*

This report presents the findings from an evaluation of innovative approaches to teacher training on the Teach First programme. The report, commissioned by the Teacher Training Agency in 2003, investigated innovative aspects of the Teach First programme with the aim to ensure that Initial Teacher Training as a whole would benefit from such innovations. The evaluation took place during the first two years of the Teach First programme in England. Documentary analysis, surveys of Teach First participants and schools and focus group interviews were used to gather data. The comprehensive report provides a detailed analysis of a range of innovative practices that differentiate the Teach First model from other ITT models. The key successes are identified as (1) the recruitment into teaching of a substantial number of graduates who would not otherwise have become teachers and (2) the short term and long term contribution to the staffing of challenging schools. The report notes that these successes have not come without cost and identify examples of participants



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workload and stress and schools' anxieties particularly with weaker students. The report concludes with a range of recommendations and suggestions for ITT providers to consider.

Imig, D.G. (2008). From traditional certification to competitive certification: A twenty five year retrospective. In Cochran-Smith, M., Feiman-Nemser, S. & McIntyre, D. *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education Enduring Questions in Changing Contexts. Third Ed.* Routledge/Taylor&Francis Group and the Association of Teacher Educators.

An historical overview of teacher certification in the US 1980-2005. The article notes the shift in policy direction under the Bush administration towards teachers as technicians. The author makes reference to the former Bush Administration advisor, Whitehurst's claims that the success of NCLB depends on "good enough" teachers. Professional teachers are a costly burden to schools and that technician teachers more cost effective.

Isaacs, M. L., Elliott E., McConney, A., Wachholz P., Greene, P. & Greene M. (2007). Evaluating "Quality" Methods of Filling the "Teacher Gap": Results of a Pilot Study with Early Career Teachers. *Journal of the National Association for Alternative Certification*. Vol. 2, No. 2.

This pilot study examined teacher confidence and self efficacy related to teacher preparedness within the first three years of employment. The study focused on preparation experience perceptions of early career teachers. All teachers who were employed three years or less from three Florida school districts were invited to participate. Data were analyzed and aggregated according to teacher preparation type – traditional or non-traditional (alternative) program. Participants indicated their likelihood of remaining in the program, district, and school as well as their degrees of confidence in preparation for the teaching competencies identified. Differences between those who completed a traditional teacher preparation program and those with a non-traditional teacher preparation program are presented.

Jasman, A. (2009): A critical analysis of initial teacher education policy in Australia and England: past, present and possible futures, *Teacher Development*, 13:4, 321-333.

This paper provides an historical overview and critique of policy directions that have been driving teacher preparation in England and Australia for the past 10 years. It then uses a futures methodology to speculate on what might be expected of the teaching workforce in 10 years time. Suggestions are made as to how teacher educators might best respond to these possible changes. These include the expanded notions of professional knowledge, pedagogical reasoning, situational understanding, action inquiry and being a change agent.

Johnson, S.M., Birkeland, S.E., & Peske, H.G. (2005). Life in the fast track: How states seek to balance incentives and quality in alternative teacher certification programs. *Educational Policy*, 19(1), 63-89.

This study examined a range of fast-track alternative teacher certification programs in 11 sites in three states—Connecticut, Louisiana, and Massachusetts. It found that participants were attracted by the incentives of the fast-track programs but also expected to have coursework and student-teaching experiences that would prepare them well for teaching. Overall, candidates were satisfied with what the programs offered, though many wanted more preparation in content-based pedagogy and better student teaching placements.

King, S. (2004). Emerging models of teacher training in England. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education*, 13(2), 197-20.

Since the late 1980s, changes have occurred that have had a fundamental impact on Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in England. There has been a move from a model dominated by the higher education institutions (HEIs) to a school-HEI partnership. High stakes inspections have been given a greater role by the government and this has led to a more homogeneous curriculum. Finally, for this paper at least, there has been an increased



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diversity of training routes, widening access into the profession. These trends appear to be similar to trends in the USA, Australia and New Zealand. Geography teacher education in England has the added pressure of experiencing these changes at a time when the very existence and strength of school geography is being threatened.

Kumashiro, K.K. (2010). Seeing the bigger picture: Troubling movements to end teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(6), 56-65.

This article examines three ways that social movements have worked to stratify public education over the past century, with each movement experiencing an ideological shift in response to the civil rights movements of the mid-1900s. The case of Chicago is presented as a starting point. Three theoretical lenses help to differentiate what are really overlapping movements—namely, neoliberalism, Christian fundamentalism, and neoconservatism—that make attacks on public education and teacher education seem like “common sense.” Implications for reframing teacher education conclude the article.

Labaree, D. (2010). Teach for America and Teacher Ed: Heads they win, tails we lose. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(1-2), 48-55.

A conceptual analysis of TFA in contrast with conventional teacher education programs focused on TFA marketing strategies; concludes that “the competition between TFA and TE is a case of heads they win, tails we lose.”

Laczko-Kerr, I. & Berliner, D.C. (2002, September 6). The effectiveness of "Teach for America" and other under-certified teachers on student academic achievement: A case of harmful public policy," *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 10(37). Retrieved August 2, 2011 from <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v10n37/>

The academic achievements of students taught by under-certified primary school teachers were compared to the academic achievements of students taught by regularly certified primary school teachers. This sample of under-certified teachers included three types: emergency, temporary and provisionally certified teachers. One subset of these under-certified teachers was from the national program "Teach For America (TFA)." Certified teachers in this study were from accredited universities and all met state requirements for receiving the regular initial certificate to teach. Recently hired under-certified and certified teachers (N=293) from five low-income school districts were matched on a number of variables, resulting in 109 pairs of teachers whose students all took the mandated state achievement test. Results indicate 1) that students of TFA teachers did not perform significantly different from students of other under-certified teachers, and 2) that students of certified teachers out-performed students of teachers who were under-certified. Effect sizes favoring the students of certified teachers were substantial. In reading, mathematics, and language, the students of certified teachers outperformed students of under-certified teachers, including the students of the TFA teachers, by about 2 months on a grade equivalent scale. Students of under-certified teachers make about 20% less academic growth per year than do students of teachers with regular certification.

Laczko-Kerr, L. & Berliner, D.C. (2003). In harm's way – How undercertified teachers hurt their students. *Educational Leadership*, 60(8), 34-39.

This paper reviews research comparing teaching performance of certified and uncertified teachers. Concludes that certified teachers perform better in the classroom than do uncertified teachers. Furthermore, teachers completing many alternative-teacher-certification programs may not perform any better than uncertified teachers. Also found that elementary students of certified teachers had higher SAT-9 test score than students of uncertified teachers.



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Ladd, H.F. (2007). Teacher labor markets in developed countries. *The Future of Children*, 17(1), 201-217.

Ladd takes a comparative look at policies that the world's industrialized countries are using to assure a supply of high-quality teachers. Her survey puts U.S. educational policies and practices into international perspective. Ladd notes that many developed countries are trying to attract teachers by providing alternative routes into teaching, often through special programs in traditional teacher training institutions and through adult education or distance learning programs. To reduce attrition among new teachers, many developed countries have also been using formal induction or mentoring programs as a way to improve new teachers' chances of success. Ladd highlights the need to look beyond a single policy, such as higher salaries, in favor of broad packages that address teacher preparation and certification, working conditions, the challenges facing new teachers, and the distribution of teachers across geographic areas.

Lai, K. C. and Grossman, D. (2008) Alternate routes in initial teacher education: A critical review of the research and policy implications for Hong Kong. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 34(4), 261 — 275.

This paper provides an overview of the history of ITE in Hong Kong and recent policy shifts. Concerned about the large numbers of untrained or unqualified teachers and the impact this was potentially having on student outcomes there was focus on promoting an "all trained, all graduate" policy. More recently there has been a move towards the adoption and rhetoric of Alternative Certification as a way to increase supply. Examination of Alternative Certification policy rhetoric in Hong Kong shows how closely (almost word for word) aligned it is with that being used in the USA and elsewhere.

Linek, W.M., Sampson, M.B., Gomez, K.A. , Linder, P.E., Torti, C., Levingston, C., Palmer, J. (2009). Middle school alternatively certified science teachers: Resources, teacher choices, and student achievement. *Journal of Educational Research*, 102(6), 403-412.

In this study, alternatively certified 5th-grade teachers used textbooks and worksheets as primary teaching materials because of their limited access to trade books. The (limited number) trade books were mostly scientifically accurate. However, a large proportion of the trade books integrated into the science curriculum were not related to science. Observational and interview data indicated a focus on textbooks and vocabulary instruction.

Lonsdale, M. & Ingvarson, L. (2003). Initiatives to address teacher shortage. *Teacher Workforce and Careers*. Camberwell, Victoria: Australian Council for Educational Research. Available from <http://research.acer.edu.au/workforce/4>

In addition to providing an overview of the teacher supply issue across English-speaking Western democracies, the main focus of this review is on the kinds of strategies that different jurisdictions have used to overcome teacher supply problems. The review concludes that the most effective approaches appear to be those implemented as part of a global strategy that looks not simply at the immediate problem but at ways of making teaching an attractive profession in the long-term.

McDiarmid, G.W. & Wilson, S.M. (1991). An exploration of the subject matter knowledge of alternate route teachers: Can we assume they know their subject? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(2), 93-103.

To explore the mathematics knowledge of teachers in two alternate route programs, this study analysed questionnaire and interview data collected at the beginning of the teachers' programs and at the end of their first year of teaching. Most of the teachers could use algorithms correctly, but many had difficulty representing or explaining them. Moreover, although some teachers learned some mathematics from teaching the subject, fundamental mathematical ideas apparently continued to elude them. The authors call for further inquiry into



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the assumptions policymakers make about the subject matter knowledge that arts and sciences majors bring with them to alternate route programs and what these majors can learn about a subject from teaching it.

Menter, I., Brisard, E., & Smith, I. (2006). Making teachers in Britain: professional knowledge for initial teacher education in England and Scotland. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 38(3), 269-286.

This paper highlights the fact that while restructuring of ITE is happening on a global scale – there are local differences. While England has shifted towards increased government control of teacher standards at the same time as increasing diversity in pre service delivery, Scotland has maintained Higher Education control. Also Scottish policy documents continue to speak more of extended teacher professionalism (that is – complex, academic and research based) rather than more narrow or restricted notions articulated in English policy rhetoric. It is contended that reasons for the difference in policy directions need to be situated within the particular socio cultural contexts of each country. The Scottish teaching profession, for example, was not subject to the 'discourse of derision' (Ball, 1990) targeted at teachers in England during the 1980s. Many of the conservative education policies initiated by the Thatcher and Major governments in England were resisted in Scotland in part through the efforts of well established General Teaching council and teachers' union. The paper warns, however, that the drive towards technicist views of teaching and education policy dictated by economic imperatives continues on both sides of Hadrian's Wall. The paper notes that the first stage of a review of teacher education in 2001, was for example conducted by a private consultancy – Deloitte and Touche.

Menter, I., Hartshorn, B., Hextall, I., Howell, I., & Smyth, G. (2006). Widening access to the teaching profession: Perspectives from Scotland. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 29(3), 271-285.

This paper is based on a literature review conducted by the General Teaching Council for Scotland concerning the widening of access into the teaching profession. The review was prompted by increasing disquiet over the lack of representation of men, particularly in primary schools, and of people from black and minority ethnic backgrounds in the teaching workforce. The paper provides an overview of the current demographic profile of the teacher workforce in Scotland and a framework for improving its representativeness.

Miller, J.W., McKenna, M.C., & McKenna, B.A. (1998). A comparison of alternatively and traditionally prepared teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 49(3), 165-176.

In this paper, the authors compare traditionally certified (TC) graduates with individuals completing a carefully constructed alternative (AC) program. In the first study, the two groups did not differ significantly on any of the dimensions surveyed (teacher practice 3 years into their careers). In the second part of the study, there was no difference observed in student achievement scores based on whether teachers had been prepared via TC or AC routes.

Mitchell, D.E. & Romero, L.S. (2010). The politics and practice of alternative teacher certification. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 46(3), 363-394.

A significant and growing percentage of all new teachers, close to 30% in California, now enter classrooms through alternative paths. This research examines program designs and market strategies resulting from the subsidies provided to public and private intern programs in California. This research is a conceptual analysis of qualitative data from 11 case studies. Four distinct training program designs have emerged from the intersection of California regulations and subsidies with the priorities, capacities, and interests of training providers. This study provides guidance regarding what can be expected to happen when service providers adapt state goals, regulations, and subsidies to local conditions to develop training programs.



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Montecinos, C., Walker, H., Rittershaussen, S., Nunez, C., Contreras, I., Cristina Solis, M. (2011). Defining content for field-based coursework: Contrasting the perspectives of secondary preservice teachers and their teacher preparation curricula. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(2), 278-288.

The study examined changes and continuities in how 11 secondary teacher preparation programs and 743 preservice teachers conceptualized the content and sequence of field-based teacher preparation. Although curricula and candidates differed regarding the knowledge each deemed as most relevant for field-based preparation, they largely agreed on the types of learning activities considered as most meaningful for the acquisition of that knowledge base. Possible explanations for these discrepancies and continuities are discussed.

Moran, A., Kilpatrick, R., Abbott, L., Dallat, J., & McClune, B. (2001). Training to teach: Motivating factors and implications for recruitment. *Evaluation & Research in Education*, 15(1), 17-32.

This paper examines why teaching is chosen as a career, and considers the extent to which a range of factors identified within a sample of 466 Northern Ireland students was consistent with those identified in the United States, the rest of the United Kingdom and elsewhere. Using analysis of variance, the study also compares the influence of the different factors on sub-groups within the group of teacher trainees surveyed. It is based on the responses to a questionnaire administered to students involved in initial teacher training. The findings showed that, in keeping with earlier research, those in the process of training to teach were attracted to the profession largely for intrinsic reasons, although, to a lesser extent, there was extrinsic motivation too.

Murray, S. Nuttall, J. & Mitchell, J. (2008). Research into initial teacher education in Australia: A survey of the literature 1995—2004. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(), 225-239.

This paper presents the initial findings of a survey of research from 1995 to 2004 into initial teacher education in Australia. Teacher education research has grown rapidly over the last decade and it is timely to critically evaluate directions within the field. An overview of the research is presented in terms of number and type of research projects, key research themes and topics, range of methodologies, general strengths and weaknesses, and key trends.

Neild, R. C., Farley-Ripple, E. N., Byrnes, V. (2009). The effect of teacher certification on middle grades achievement in an urban district. *Educational Policy*, 23(5), 732-760.

Mathematics students of certified teachers outscore those with no certification. In science, secondary certified teachers substantially outscore other types of certification but non-certified are not significantly different from other certification.

O'Connor, E. A., Malow, M. S., Bisland, B. M. (2011). Mentorship and instruction received during training: Views of alternatively certified teachers. *Educational Review*, 63(2), 219-232.

Teaching Fellows program is contrasted with TFA and Teach First. Teaching Fellows are completing Master's degrees as they progress through the program. Participants' plans for remaining in teaching were low (44% plan to leave after graduation). Mentors and paid supervisors did not provide enough support but other classroom teachers did. Teacher education helps with content but not enough strategies to use "the next day".



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Ofsted (2010). The annual report of her majesty's chief inspector of education, children's services and skills 2009/10. London: Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (England).

The first of the three key findings regarding ITE was that 'more outstanding' ITE was delivered by Higher Education Institution led partnerships than School Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) and Employment based routes!

Ofsted (2008). Rising to the Challenge: a review of the Teach First Initial Teacher Training Programme. London: Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (England).

Overall the review is positive although the Teach First graduates did not reach the highest Quality Teacher Standard (QTS) level expected. Success of the Teach First programme was attributed to the strong partnership between the University and the Teach First group. Graduates were motivated but found the experience challenging.

Ofsted (2005). An employment-based route into teaching 2004/05. London: Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (England)

This report is based on the second year of inspections of designated recommending bodies (DRBs), who manage teacher training through the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP), found need for improvement especially for subject specific training for secondary trainees.

Owings, W.A., Kaplan, L.S., Nunnery, J., Marzano, R., Myran, S., & Blackburn, D. (2006). Teacher quality and Troops to Teachers: A national study with implications for principals. *NASSP Bulletin*, 90(2), 102-131.

A 2005 national study surveyed 2,103 Troops to Teachers (T3) program completers and their school administrators using 21 research-based instructional practices and four effective classroom management strategies associated with increased student achievement to determine whether T3s were more effective in the classroom than traditionally prepared teachers with comparable years of teaching experience. Sixty-one percent returned completed surveys. Principals overwhelmingly (more than 90%) reported that T3s are more effective in classroom instruction and classroom management/student discipline—and have a more positive impact on student achievement—than traditionally prepared teachers. Moreover, T3s teach in high-poverty schools, teach high-demand subjects (special education, math, science), plan to remain in teaching, and increase the teaching pool's diversity.

Pilcher, L.C. & Steele, D.C. (2005). Teach for America and regularly certified teachers: Teacher efficacy, teaching concerns, career aspirations, and teaching effectiveness. In Dangel, J.R. & Guyton, E. M. (Eds.), *Research on alternative and non-traditional education* (pp. 123-141). Lanham Maryland: Association of Teacher Educators with Scarecrow Education:

Comparison of TFA and traditionally prepared teachers on general teaching efficacy, self efficacy, teaching concerns, student achievement, principal ratings and retention. Traditionally prepared teachers were higher than first year TFA corps member teachers and second year TFA corps member teachers on general teaching efficacy, and higher than first year TFA corps member teachers on personal teaching efficacy. They were also higher than first year TFA corps member teachers on achievement test averages in reading, English/language arts, and mathematics. The results for second year TFA corps member teachers showed that this cohort was positioned between the two other groups and were not significantly different from traditionally prepared teachers and first year TFA corps member teachers.



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Popkewitz, T.S. (1998). *Struggling for the Soul. The Politics of Schooling and the Construction of the Teacher*. Teachers College Press. New York.

In 1990 Popkewitz was asked to evaluate Teach for America (TFA). Data collection for the research included detailed observations and interviews with TFA staff and recruits for one year as they worked full time in different schools across the US. While the book is a report on the ethnographic study during its first year of operation, it goes further than this. Popkewitz draws particular attention to the role that TFA, with its aim to improve teaching and education in rural and urban schools, plays in normalizing discursive constructions of the urban or rural child as 'other' and therefore requiring 'other' types of schooling. It is this much deeper ideological and political analysis of TFA that concerns Popkewitz and is the subject of this book.

Salyer, B.A. (2003). Alternatively and traditionally certified teachers: The same but different. *NASSP Bulletin*, 87(636):16-27.

A descriptive case study of a group of 38 university students seeking alternative certification. Three major characteristics of this group included positive reasons for seeking a career as a teacher, a firm belief that their experiences would help them as teachers, and the lack of effective induction and mentoring programs.

Shen, J. (1997). Has the alternative certification policy materialized its promise? A comparison between traditionally and alternatively certified teachers in public schools. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 19: 276.

This study compared the characteristics of traditionally certified (TC) and alternatively certified (AC) teachers using data from a nationally representative sample of public school teachers (N = 14,721). The sample was constructed from the Schools and Staffing Survey 1993-1994. The findings supported some arguments for AC, such as alleviating teacher shortages in mathematics and science and in urban schools and diversifying the teaching force by recruiting more minorities into teaching. However, the findings also raised serious concerns regarding the impact of AC policy: (a) AC teachers appeared to have lower academic qualifications than did TC teachers; (b) AC policy failed to recruit a significant number of experienced personnel from other occupations, and a large number of fresh college graduates took advantage of AC policy to circumvent the traditional teacher education program; (c) A lower percentage of AC teachers treated teaching as a lifelong career than did TC teachers; and (d) A high percentage of AC teachers working in inner-city schools raised the important issue of educational equity.

Stoddart, T. & Floden, R.E. (1995). *Traditional and Alternate Routes to Teacher Certification: Issues, Assumptions, and Misconceptions*. Issue Paper 95-2. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, National Center for Research on Teacher Learning (NCRTL).

An early study of alternative teacher education by the National Center for research on Teacher Learning, noting the factors in the US that led to the rise of alternative certification. The study examines the assumptions underlying alternative routes and those for reforming traditional teacher education. Argues that alternative routes may miseducate teachers and narrow the range of settings for which teachers are prepared. On the other hand, alternative routes may draw mature individuals with prior work experience to the teacher pool.

Télez, K. (2011). A case study of a career in education that began with "Teach for America". *Teaching Education*, 22 (1), 15-38.

A seven year biographical study of a Teach for America Corp Member. The purpose of the study is not to judge TFA and instead emphasises a need to better understand the TFA program. Questions for teacher educators are posed as a result of the case study.



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Thrupp, M. (2006). *Professional Standards for Teachers and Teacher Education: Avoiding the Pitfalls*. Report for the New Zealand Post Primary Teachers' Association (NZ PPTA) Te Wehengarua and New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZER). Waikato: University of Waikato.

This report provides a background to the New Zealand teacher education policy context. Thrupp argues against the development of overly specific professional standards that lead to deprofessionalisation, pressure to perform, and fabrication. He also notes that the NZ teacher registration body was pressured to register Fast Track programmes quickly. Narrow professional standards have the propensity to lead to teachers being compliant to state/market driven economic agendas.

Tigchelaar, A., Brouwer, N. & Vermunt, J. D. (2010). Tailor-made: Towards a pedagogy for educating second-career teachers. *Educational Research Review*, 5(2), 164-183.

Alternatively certified 5th-grade teachers used textbooks and worksheets as primary teaching materials because of their limited access to trade books. However, a large proportion of the trade books integrated into the science curriculum were not related to science. Observational and interview data indicated a focus on textbooks and vocabulary instruction. Overall, the student passing rate on state-mandated science tests in these alternatively certified teachers' classrooms was lower than the average passing rate for the state.

Weiner, L. (2007). A lethal threat to U.S. teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 58(4), 274-286.

This paper explores changes being made to teacher education internationally and in the United States, and describes the underlying origins of these phenomena. Some of the alterations have been recognized as threatening university-based teacher preparation, for instance, the growth of alternate route programs. Also analyzed are for-profit corporations' development of professional development services linked to raising students' standardized test scores and the entry of private, for-profit institutions into the market for higher education. The implications of these combined phenomena for university-based teacher education in the near future is considered.

Zeichner, K.M. & Schulte, A.K. (2001). What we know and don't know from peer-reviewed research about alternative teacher certification programs. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52(4), 266-282.

This article examines the peer-reviewed literature on alternative teacher certification programs in the United States to see what can be concluded about who participates in these programs, where participants teach, how long participants stay, how participants' teaching is evaluated, and how well participants are able to promote student learning.

Zientek, L.R. (2007). Preparing high-quality teachers: Views from the classroom. *American Educational Research Journal*, 44(4), 959-1001.

Results from the present study suggested that (a) traditionally certified (TC) teachers felt better prepared than non-traditionally certified (NTC) teachers on communicating, planning, and using instructional strategies; (b) NTC teachers' positive mentoring and prior classroom experiences in conjunction with the overall less positive mentoring experiences of TC teachers may have minimized differences; (c) novice teachers did not feel prepared on items related to multicultural curriculum or assessing student learning; and (d) prior classroom experiences, first year support, and program components were important, but instruction on teaching standards was of particular importance for NTC teachers.



Zumwalt, K. (1996). Simple answers: Alternative teacher certification. *Educational Researcher*, 25(8), 40-42.

Although the current variety of alternative certification options have been around for some years, the author argues that experiential and research evidence indicate that this solution for improving the quality and quantity of the teaching force is neither definitively positive nor negative. According to Zumwalt, the major finding may be that the recruitment, preparation, and retention of teachers is much more complex than originally thought by policymakers, and although now widespread, alternative certification has not proven to be the panacea nor the disaster some predicted.