CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

Defining Quality Teaching

In recent years, the term 'quality teaching' has emerged as a key concept in public debate. 'Quality teaching' has become an analytical, critical, and evaluative goal for education systems and governments, with the meanings and applications of the term occupying a significant place in their respective agendas. This phrase forms the central concept for evaluative processes and has acted as a justification for educational reforms in several countries. It is, therefore, worthwhile to explain the meanings and applications of the term 'quality teaching'. The phrase is significant for research, and we need to clarify and distinguish it from other synonymous terms.

It is important to begin by attempting to define 'quality teaching' and the attributes of the 'quality teacher'. Kaplan and Owings (2001) define teacher quality and teaching quality as:

> Teacher quality concerns the inputs that teachers bring to the school, including their demographics, aptitude, professional preparation, college majors, SAT and teacher examination scores, teacher licensure and certification, and prior professional work experiences. Teaching quality refers to what teachers do to promote student learning inside the classroom. Teaching quality includes creating a positive learning climate, selecting appropriate instructional goals and assessments, using the curriculum effectively, and employing varied instructional behaviours that help all students learn at higher levels (p.64)

In the quote above, Kaplan and Owings focus on two main things: the teachers and the professional skills they bring them to the classroom, and what they do in the classroom, which includes their quality teaching skills. The world 'quality' has engendered controversy, debate, and interpretation of the elusion of the meaning. In this occasion, it can be said that: 'Statements... concerning the quality of education are made in various contexts, but systematic studies on the subject are few and far between. As a result, statements concerning quality are not always well-founded, whatever the sense in which the term is used' (Swedish statement contributed to the OECD activity on Quality 1984 quoted in Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1989, p.27). However, 'quality', as an adjective, means something that is 'good' or 'excellent' (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1989, p. 28) and it can refer to

21

'a *trait* or *attribute*' (Organisation fo∘ Economic Cooperation and Development, 1989, p, 27). As an extension to this, Downey Frase and Peters (1994), define quality as 'meeting, exceeding, and delighting customers' needs and expectations with the recognition that these needs and desires will change over time' (p.8). The meaning of the word 'quality' depends on the context in which it is used: '"quality" means different things to different observers and interest groups; not all share the same perceptions of priorities for change' (Organisation for Economic Cooperat on and Development, 1989, p.15). For example,

> The importance of the term "q iality" in the educational context, including its political significance, increases substantially, however, when it is given a normative interpretation. A d ctionary will include such definitions of the word as "*degree of excellenc ?*" or "*relative nature or kind or character*". When quality means "degree of excellence", two aspects are encompassed: that of judgements of worth ar d that of position on an implied scale of good and bad. To judge the quality of a school, for instance, as "poor", "mediocre", or "excellent" neans both applying, whether roughly or precisely, a certain notion of merit, and identifying, again more or less approximately, where that school is positioned relative to other schools. (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1989 p.28)

When the word 'quality' is used in relation to commercial dealings, it means the product and/or service meet customers' expec ations; this is, sometimes, entirely transferable to its usage in an educational context. Despite the prevalence of this concept in education, the meaning of 'quality' remains unclear and no definition can cover it completely. 'Quality appears to be relative, interpretive and contextually determined' (Goedegebuure *et al.*, 1994 cited in Vidovich, Fourie, Wes huizen, Alt, & Holtzhausen, 2000, p. 194). 'It is a contested concept' (Strydom, 1995 cited in Vidovich, Fourie, Westhuizen, Alt, & Holtzhausen, 2000, p. 194) 'which is both flexible' (Van Vught and Westerheijden, 1995 cited in Vidovich, Fourie, Westhuizen, Alt, & Holtzhausen, 2000, p. 194) 'and multidimensional, with its dynamic nature expressing itself in continuous innovation' (Van Bruggen *et al.*, 1998 cited in Vidovich, Fourie, Westhuizen, Alt, & Holtzhausen, 2000, p. 194). In other places, quality teaching has been defined carefully and understood as being context-dependent and affected by various exogenous factors. Crebbin (2004) transformed the field of debate over the term by focusing on the context of quality teaching: 'In presenting a variety of potential meanings, I am arguing that any definition or practice is not free from the social, cultural, historic, and power contexts in which they have been formed'(p.80). Crebbin went further to say 'there is an increasing complexity in defining concepts like 'quality teaching' and quality learning' is not the same as saying that all

definitions have equal authority to influence, or carry equal explanatory power, to shape teaching and learning (p.80).

In any case, quality teaching has to be measured and defined on the basis of the quality of learning, because we cannot make an assessment of teaching unless we can see the product in the form of 'quality learning'. Fenstermacher and Richardson (2005, p.189), for example, state 'quality teaching could be understood as teaching that produces learning. In other words, there can indeed be a ask sense of teaching, but any assertion that such teaching is *quality* teaching depends on students learning what the teacher is teaching'.

Quality teaching must be determined by context, if the worthiness of teaching activities is to be judged as 'good teaching' and if the outcomes of these activities can be described as 'successful teaching' (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005, p.186). 'When teaching in the task sense is done well, we called it good teaching. When teaching results in learning, we called it successful teaching' (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005, p.192). They went to say: 'When teaching is both successful and good, we can speak of quality teaching' (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005, p.192).

Glasser (1990) shifts the debate from quality teaching in general to focus on the quality or effective teacher as an essential part of a quality teaching process. Glasser asks for perfection by defining an effective teacher as 'one who is able to convince not half or three quarters but essentially all of his or her students to do quality work in school. This means to work up to their capacity, not to "lean on their shovels" as so many are doing now' (p.14). Borich (2000) argues from a different angle by focusing on the teacher's behaviour in the classroom leading to student achievement. The concept can change from that of defining a 'good teacher' to defining 'effective teaching' (Borich, 2000), and this ultimately may be the meaning of quality teaching. Elsewhere, teachers of quality have been defined as those who have knowledge in different subject areas, have teaching skills and strategies, seek professional development, and consider their students' knowledge and abilities (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1994). In a similar way, Glatthorn and Fox (1996) define quality teaching as:

> ...teaching that maximizes learning for all students. *Learning*, in this definition, is comprehensive growth-continuing development in knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Comprehensive growth is accomplished by teachers who have mastered the basic skills of teaching and are moving forward in their development of intermediate and advanced skills. (pp.1-2)

Cole and Chan (1994) defined quality or effective teaching 'as the actions of professionally trained persons that enhance the cognitive, personal, social and physical development of students' (p.3).

As it mentioned above the meaning of quality generally and quality teaching specifically comes from different backgrounds. These perspectives and backgrounds use the phrase in different ways so that it can serve the contexts where it is supposed function. In this research, however, different terms will be used in different places in the thesis and all these terms mean quality teaching in its educational context.

The Context of Quality Teaching

Quality teaching does not occur in a vacuum. It occurs in a physical space and this cannot be removed entirely from the related contexts. The whole education system contributes to the teaching – learning process and if one section or part of the education system is isolated from the other parts, then students' achievements may be affected. With this understanding, Wang and Walberg (1991) reviewed the professional literature and surveyed experts in instruction and learning to develop an understanding of the variables that influence learning. Their final framework included 228 variables or factors categorized into six main categories: the context outside of the school, variables linked to the students, variables linked to the district or education system in the state including political factors, variables linked to the school, variables linked to the program design and, finally, student outcomes. Their analysis of these categories for effective learning environments showed that variables linked to the program design possessed the greatest importance, followed by the context outside of the school, then classroom climate and instruction, and then variables linked to the students. Variables linked to the school and district or state ranked as the least important overall. In the mentioned study, the variables relating to the classroom and teaching still have a high rank or influence in the quality of the learning environment.

For a long time, there have been debates and questions about which factors influence students' achievements. Some researchers attribute students' achievements to the school, while others indicate that the school has little impact on academic outcomes. Other researchers indicate that the effective teacher plays the main role in terms of student progress. From the wide range of factors examined by extensive research, and the fact that

this research makes claims that most of these contextual factors have at least some impact on student learning, it may be presumed that all contextual factors, such as the teacher, school context, classroom context and school community, contribute something toward student achievement. Some researchers highlight further factors that may influence the teaching-learning process, including school reform, community dynamics, teacher attitudes, curriculum, school location, and student abilities and socio-economic backgrounds (Maxwell & Ninnes, 2000b; Paterson, 2000).

Quality teaching operates within a complex teaching and learning context that can influence it in different ways. Quality teachers by themselves cannot work effectively and productively unless they are located in a supportive environment. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2005) stated that: 'the quality of teaching is determined not just by the "quality" of teachers... but also by the environment in which they work. [quality teachers are not necessarily going to reach their potential in settings that do not provide appropriate support or sufficient challenge and reward' (p.7). There are different factors influencing quality teaching: the policies of education, the school, and teaching-learning practices. In the current investigation, the researcher acknowledged that an extensive range of variables relate to each of these factors influencing quality teaching, each of which contributes to building a comprehensive contextual framework for quality teaching. However, not all of these factors were selected to inform this investigation, and only the factors which were relevant to the research questions were taken into account. That is, only factors relevant to a study of the applicability of the NSWQT Model to the Jordanian primary school context were considered.

The Influence of the Policy of Education

Education policy is an important part of education systems, if and when they are to operate as structured systems. When governments structure education by policy, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to isolate the education system from the way governments perceive other institutions or state bodies. In such institutions, it is difficult to presume that any citizen works completely individually or is isolated from political or economic influences. There is an interaction process between politics and the education system. Therefore, the relationship between the politics of education and the teaching-learning process is a fundamental issue. The inevitability of this relationship in modern government-run

education systems needs to be examined to ascertain the nature of this influence. The aim of this project, however, is not to discuss political issues as such, but to discuss how the political process impacts on the education system and subsequently the teaching-learning process.

It is worthwhile to distinguish between 'policy' and 'politics'. Thomas (1983) defines 'politics' as activities and objectives exerted by particular groups to legitimise their 'beliefs or welfare in relation to other groups' or in a broad sense 'the process of exercizing power' (p.2), whereas 'policy' is defined by Dye (1992) as 'whatever governments choose to do, or not to do' (p.2). In other words, policy means the government's action over all the social sectors, such as health, education, and economy (Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard, & Henry, 1997). Elsewhere 'policies' are defined as a form of structural power that operates through a 'constellation of organized practices in employment, government, education, law, business, and housing that work to maintain an unequal and unjust distribution of resources' (Collins, 2000, p.301). In this definition, governmental power has a significant influence on any decision.

Jenkins defines 'public policy' as '[a] set of interrelated decisions taken by a political actor or group of actors concerning the selection of goals and the means of achieving them within a specified situation where these decisions should, in principle, be within the power of those actors to achieve' (Jenkins 1978, p. 15 quoted in Haynes, 2002, p.21). This definition focuses on policy as functional decision-making, not on how or what is done materially (Haynes, 2002). Anderson's definition of 'public policy' 'focuses attention on what is actually done as against what is proposed or intended, and it differentiates a policy from a decision, which is a choice among competing alternatives' (Anderson 1979, p. 3 quoted in Haynes, 2002, p.21). The relationship between 'politics' and 'policy' has been further explored by Marshall and Gerstl-Pepin (2005) who state that:

> ... politics is conflict, culminating in powerful forces allocating values, determining who gets what. Policy, then, is the result of politics, the result of that allocation of values; policy is what governments choose to do. Analyzing policy entails focusing more on the content of policy, asking questions about the type or content of policy and about how and whether it is working as intended. (p.5)

Taking into account the presumption of the influence of politics on the education system, there is ongoing debate about the type and degree of influence political decisions have on education. Some researchers see such influence as mainly operating through a financial

relationship that moves in cycles affecting educational reform at the state and school levels (Codd, Gordon, & Harker, 1998; Maxwell & Ninnes, 2000b). Others see it as a more direct and directive intervention in the education system and consequently in the teaching-learning process (Harber, 1989; Thomas, 1983; Windschitl, 2002).

As mentioned above, there has been major debate about the influence of the political system and its impact on the education process, especially through the provision of increasing, stagnating or decreasing funding. Governments fund or otherwise intervene in local education systems in two ways: to support what they consider to be locally practicable and legitimate, or, when foreign governments and aid agencies direct local education interventions, it is usually to apply their agenda for dealing with what they perceive to be the needs and demands of 'poor' countries. Such intervention can strongly influence the provision of education in the recipient country and potentially neglect or disregard the special circumstances of these countries. As Tamatea (2005) stated, in his critique of the 'Dakar Framework for Action-Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments, which presents the UNESCO, G8, World Bank and International Monetary Fund's blueprint for the 'development' of education globally by 2015' (p.311):

> [Because the framework] is a particular masquerading as a universal, it has been argued that it may not be accepted by the diverse cultures across the globe simply because it intuitively makes sense to all, as I imagine a universal might. Rather it is likely that it will be accepted also because of the existence of asymmetrical relations of power between its pro-neo-liberal capitalist donors and its 'developing' recipients. (Tamatea, 2005 p.329)

Furthermore, as Stone (1997) says:

> Politicians always have at least two goals. First is a policy goal – whatever program or proposal they would like to see accomplished or defeated, whatever problem they would like to see solved....[Secondly,] politicians always want to preserve their power, or gain enough power to be able to accomplish their policy goals. (p.2)

The current perception amongst policymakers of a world changing from traditional communalism to capitalism has provoked calls for reforming aid-recipients' education systems to make them more 'practical', 'purposeful', and marketable. It is been argued that 'The whole world is being swept by a realisation that markets have tremendous advantages over central control and bureaucracy' (Chubb & Moe 1992, p. 46 quoted in Grace, 1997, p. 311). Lauder (1998) concurs with Chubb and Moe by establishing a false dichotomy between 'policy' (or governments) and 'markets': 'So long as education is politically

controlled rather than determined by market forces it is likely to produce less than optimal outcomes' (p.383). Beyond this dichotomy, of course, lies the real 'politics' of parent, teacher, and student participation in school decision-making regarding learning and curriculum.

However, encouraging this type of politics does not seem to be a major priority for any government or aid agency. In the teaching-learning practice, community involvement can act in a vital way for students to encounter 'real-life' situations beyond the classroom (Harber, 1989). For one particular international agency, the OECD (1994), a particular set of policies can actively promote quality teaching by giving attention to teacher education in different concepts, particularly teacher training before and during service, and supporting educational processes financially and professionally. For these policies to work, the OECD assumes that the relationship between educational stakeholders is built on an acceptable level of trust, loyalty, and honesty.

Following from this suggestion, it could be assumed that the relationship between policymakers and other educationa stakeholders should be a democratic one. The stakeholders have to work together and communicate in a democratic manner in order to achieve agreed-upon education goals. In this light, Dewey (1916) states:

> ... a democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience. The extension in space of the number of individuals who participate in an interest so that each has to refer his own action to that of others, and to consider the action of others to give point and direction to his own, is equivalent to the breaking down of those barriers of class, race, and national territory which kept men from perceiving the full importance of their activity. (p. 101)

For Dewey, such democratic relationships will be reflected in the teaching-learning process, which, it may be assumed, will form part of the context for producing quality teaching.

The political-policymaking process can influence and affect the teaching-learning process insofar as educational provision is operating in a more-or-less centralised, systematic and institutionalised way. This influence can reveal itself in the curriculum, teacher training and support, mentoring and assessment, new regulations and the school environment.

Curriculum

It is worthwhile to start this section by examining the curriculum as an important aspect of quality teaching in general, and as the main landmark for the teaching-learning process in particular. The 'curriculum' can be defined in different and multiple ways. Such variation in definitions and understanding of the term relies on any researcher's background and the existing implementation of what may be defined as the curriculum. In other words, no definition can be right or wrong. For example, Cheng (1994) defines curriculum, at the school level, as *'a set of activities and content planned at the individual level, the programme level, or the whole school level to foster teachers' teaching and students' learning'* (p.26), which may then be seen as a likely influence on the quality of the teaching-learning process. Curriculum has also been defined as a comprehensive and general pattern both inside and outside the school. For example, Parkay, Anctil and Hass (1994) state:

> The curriculum is all of the educative experiences learners have in an educational program, the purpose of which is to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives that have been developed within a framework of theory and research, past and present professional practice, and the changing needs of society. (p.3)

Stenhouse (1975), to some extent, agrees with Parkay and colleagues by defining the curriculum as 'the means by which the experience of attempting to put an educational proposal into practice is made publicly available' (Stenhouse, 1975, p.142 quoted in Grundy, 1994, p. 33). In other words it is a policy process promoted and supported by the education authorities. As formal policy, the curriculum is formed in different ways depending on the broader context and may serve different purposes and aims at different times. In total, whatever these aims and purposes are, the curriculum may be regarded as an anchor point for teachers in classrooms. In this sense then, there can be considerable debate about the goals or purposes of the curriculum. Egan (1997), Grundy (1994), and Pollard and Tann (1993) agree that the goal or purpose of the curriculum in the past was different from that of the contemporary curriculum, and also differs from place to place and country to country. Egan (1997) states:

> Before the middle of the nineteenth century the theories [in regards to the curriculum] were largely concerned with the moral virtues, human excellences, and knowledge that should be inculcated in a small group of males who would become the social and political elite. After the mid-nineteenth century they have been largely about what skills and knowledge are required to prepare the masses, female and male, for productive work, good citizenship, and satisfying leisure. (p.205)

In any historical period, the direction of debate over a definition of 'curriculum' seems to be about whether activities subsumed under the term 'curriculum' are implemented effectively and whether the term covers adequately all the activities that occur under a school roof. Maxwell et al. (2000a) distinguish between 'the formal and the hidden curriculum'; the formal curriculum is the obvious syllabus in teaching, whereas the hidden curriculum is all the activities occurring under the school roof – the latter definition being more inclusive than that of the formal curriculum (p.12). McLaren (1994) extends this notion of the hidden curriculum:

> The hidden curriculum refers to the unintended outcomes of the schooling process. Critical educators recognise that schools shape students both through standardised learning situations, and through other agendas including rules of conduct, classroom organisation, and the informal pedagogical procedures used by teachers with specific groups of students. The hidden curriculum also includes teaching and learning styles that are emphasised in the classroom, the government structures, teacher expectations, and grading procedures. (p.40)

Seddon (1983) concurs with her definition:

> The hidden curriculum refers to the outcomes of education, and/or the processes leading to these outcomes, which are not explicitly intended by educators. These outcomes are generally not explicitly intended because they are not stated by teachers in their oral or written lists of objectives, nor are they included in educational statements of intent such as syllabuses, school policy documents or curriculum projects. (pp.1-2)

The hidden curriculum is an effective but invisible face of the curriculum. It is the process of instilling 'attitudes, norms, beliefs, values and assumptions often expressed as rules, rituals and regulations' (Seddon, 1983, p.2). But to what extent can the hidden curriculum influence quality teaching? This point has been addressed by Seddon:

> One view of the hidden curriculum is that it is a vehicle for the transmission of knowledge which allows individuals to function effectively within the society. It thus plays a vital part in the transmission of culture. However, other social theories have addressed this question, setting their explanations in an historical, political and social context. The general flavour of these explanations is that the hidden curriculum is a powerful means by which education and schooling maintain the *status quo* in our society with all its inequality and social injustice (p.4)

Beyond that, the hidden curriculum can be political, that is, implicated in reproducing or challenging power relations between education stakeholders. In light of this and in terms of curriculum values, Grundy (1994) and Pollard and Tann (1993) propose that the curriculum should include and emphasise the students' needs, interests and abilities and

encourage the active participation of eachers, parents and students in its construction and implementation.

A document accompanying the educational reform initiatives proposed in the late 1980s for schools in New South Wales states that '[a]ll students will be provided with a broad, balanced, quality contemporary curriculum which takes into account the needs of students of differing abilities and backgrounds and seeks to provide for all students an enriching school experience which develops their potential' (NSW Board of Studies 1991, p. 1 quoted in Grundy, 1994, p.27). Parkay et al. (1994) mention that curriculum planning is influenced by different philosophical positions, especially in the twentieth century, such as 'perennialism, essentialism, progressivism, and reconstructionsim' (p.7). Ultimately, this philosophical basis is usually justified by the educational authorities' recourse to a type of populist utilitarianism; that is, that curriculum goals have been be shaped by 'society and its values' and to meet 'the individual learner and his or her needs, interests and abilities' (Parkay et al., 2006, p.7).

The goals and values of and influences on the curriculum emanating from changing social needs and demands have sparked considerable debate within educational communities and systems. This concern is exemplified by the *New Zealand Curriculum Framework*, which states that 'Education in New Zealand today operates within the context of rapid social and economic change. The curriculum must help students to be adaptable and to play their full part in this changing environment' (New Zealand Ministry of Education 1993 quoted in Grundy, 1994, p.28). Similarly, a landmark educational policy statement from Australia in 1988, *Strengthening Australia's Schools*, states that:

> Adjustment of our society and economy is inevitable and necessary if we and our children are to have meaningful and fulfilling lives, and the sort of society we have come to expect. ...As part of this adjustment, parents and the community generally ... have rightly come to expect schools to provide young Australians with all the knowledge and skills, and especially contemporary skills, they will need in life. (Dawkins 1988, p. 1 quoted in Grundy, 1994, p.28)

Grundy (1994) describes thinking about the curriculum in two ways: as thinking about an 'object', or thinking about an 'action' (p.28); each of these has a different meaning and implication. The curriculum as 'object' can be seen in 'syllabus documents, policy statements and teachers' work programs. It appears as something to be given, transmitted or passed on to students' (p.28). For Grundy, this means that there is a gap between the

curriculum planners in their construction of an object and the implementers engaged in action. Nevertheless, policy planne's like to imagine that there is an identical or overlapping relationship between the two and that all this is done for the students' benefit by structuring the curriculum so that it is effective and meets the students' future needs. On a more positive note, Grundy's definition takes into account the diversity of students in the classroom. It can be thought of as implying that teachers should be given the flexibility and opportunity to create, expand, integrate, and use their knowledge to enrich the formal curriculum, rather than syllabus documents acting as a fixed body of 'truth' restricting teacher efficacy.

Another point within curriculum debate is that of the centralised and decentralised curriculum. Some studies showed that the centralised curriculum can have positive and negative influences on quality teaching and so on students' achievement (Zammit et al., 2007). More specifically, some studies have proven a centralised curriculum can influence teachers' performance psychologically and conceptually and can be a barrier to their creativeness and teaching endeavours (Blackmore, 2004; Cohran-Smith & Fries, 2001; Leithwood, Steinbah, & Jantzi, 2002). On the other hand, a decentralised curriculum has a positive influence on the learning process by helping students in their needs and demands. This type of curriculum can be more adaptable to students' needs (Carighead, Kazdin, & Mahoney, 1981; Wijesundera, 2002). The assumption is that the curriculum, and the patterns structured into that curriculum, whether formal or hidden, can influence quality teaching by the way it is constructed and by the way teachers apply it.

Teacher Training and Support

Teacher training and support have a significant influence on the teaching profession and its development. Training occurs simultaneously with the teaching of theory. Teacher training in extensive and effective pre-service and/or in-service programs can provide for teachers' professional development (Sinclair, 1997). Simple initial teacher certification is not enough to guarantee teachers have the abilites to deal with daily issues arising from either their students' demands or to guarantee continuing development of the teachers' skills that they required. Consequently, pre-service and/or in-service programs provided for the professional development of teachers will have an effect on the quality of teaching (Adas, 1986; Organisation for Economic Co operation and Development, 1992; Sinclair, 1997).

One of the most important issues in this field is to prepare quality teachers through effective training. Policymakers or education planners can make training available in many ways, one being to balance what student-teachers learn before commencing teaching with what they may subsequently need to learn when in the classroom. The OECD has stated that:

> ...the basic problem of teacher education is that it finds itself positioned between two worlds – that of higher education and the school. On the one side, teacher education is pulled in the direction of being more academic or more like other academic disciplines; on the other side, teacher education is urged to be more practical, to move close to the real world of the classroom, and to ensure that teacher trainers have recent and relevant experience in schools. (Rhoades 1985, cited in Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1989, p.74)

This same agency suggests that pre-service and in-service programs be accompanied by reliable and consistent selection and assessment processes, especially for beginning teachers (Adas, 1980; Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1989). The goals of pre-service and in-service training for teachers are open to debate. Borman and Rachuba (1999) claim that to make training meaningful and useful it must:

(a) Focus on specific needs expressed by teachers;
(b) Be carefully linked to what goes on in classrooms;
(c) Provide teachers with opportunities to interact with each other and share ideas;
(d) Receive support from principals, district officials, and other partners in the reform process;
(e) Have greater intensity and depth. (p.369)

Larrivee (1981) suggests that one of the beneficial effects of in-service training is that it positively influences teachers' attitudes towards mainstreaming. According to Larrivee, pedagogy-focused in-service training can motivate and encourage teachers to work with students with and without disabilities in the regular classroom. According to Larrivee, this can be done by providing them with strategies for dealing with students exhibiting diverse abilities. There is a considerable body of evidence showing that professional development gives teachers the opportunity to develop their teaching skills and these are ultimately reflected in their students' performance (Adas, 1986; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Groundwater-Smith, Cusworth, & Dobbins, 1998; Rust & Dalin, 1990; Sinclair, 1997).

Of course, the quantity and, perhaps, quality of teacher training is linked to fundamental factors in the education system, especially the extent of its funding in the education budget. Teachers' professional development through training programs can be thought of as being in direct proportion to budgetary allocations. which may be directly linked to the financial

status of the particular country. If it is assumed that quality teaching can be created and enhanced by expenditure on extending the quantity and quality of pre- and in-service training, then this may explain, to a certain extent, the quality of teaching in various countries. Following from this, the importance of certification and its influence on practice have to be recognised. A large body of research has assessed the effect of the level of teacher certification on student achievement. This research shows that there is a significant relationship between the level of teacher certification, opportunities for professional development, and student achievement (Borman & Rachuba, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 1989, 1996, 1997, 1999, 2000; Darling-Hammond, LaFors, & Snyder, 2001; Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002). Furthermore, teacher cooperation, collegiality, and support from 'expert teachers' within schools led Wade (1987) to claim that:

> Giving support to other teachers can be rewarding both personally and professionally. Personally, because of the satisfaction in helping another teacher to become more effective. Professionally, because this is an excellent process through which to clarify, reflect on, and possibly modify your own beliefs and method. (p.101)

There has also been some assessment of the 'supportive' role played by decent teacher salaries and their influence on teacher retention or turnover (Dinham, 1992; Murnane, Singer, & Willett, 1989). By providing an 'acceptable' level of salary, employers can make the teaching profession more attractive and/or allow employers to recruit high quality teachers (National Board of Employment, 1991). In short, supporting teachers financially and professionally can influence their teaching performance, which, some research suggests, will be consequently reflected in their students' performance. It appears that quality teachers cannot work effectively without securing some degree of basic security in salary and career.

Mentoring and Evaluation

In any educational institution there are evaluation, assessment and monitoring processes testing the value of existing programs. Through an evaluation and monitoring process, the stakeholders can be informed about the output of that program, either to reform it or to avoid any future inadequacies. This kind of process contributes to the quality of the teaching process by allowing mentors, supervisors, or inspectors to give feedback to teachers in order to develop their teaching skills. It is usually proposed that mentoring is meant to be 'performing the function of offering emotional support, providing [professional] suggestions about teaching methods, and information about some of the

more intangible aspects of teaching relating to the mores and values of the school community [rather than using it as a ool for punishment or negative criticism]' (Dinham, 1992, p.96). Teachers' mentors or supervisors are meant to be cooperative, helpful, experienced, and accessible (Bower, 1990) and the relationship between the mentor or supervisor and the teacher should be conducted in a personalised but professional manner (Odell, 1990).

Furthermore, since there can be variation in teachers' interests, needs and circumstances in terms of working in various school; and locations, formal mentoring, supervision and evaluation programs need to be flexible to meet these special demands and be able to include these individual needs and circumstances (Harris & Collay, 1990; Parker, 1988). Dinham (1992), in his literature review, points out that the findings of previous research on mentoring show the potential to assist beginning teachers and reduce the number of teachers resigning, 'although the link between the provision of mentoring and resignation needs further exploration' (p.97). The financial cost of formal mentoring programs and opposition of teachers and the teaching unions appear to be major problems that could be overcome if the benefits of formal mentoring programs could be demonstrated (Dinham, 1992) . Maxwell, Laird, Grundy and Warhurst (1994) argue that teachers' judgment about their work quality should be made by the teachers themselves rather than by inspectors. They regard the judgement of teachers' work by inspectors or senior staff as 'unproductive and unseemly in the teaching profession' (p.198) because the teachers' professionalism is questioned. Teachers use their judgment to adapt their teaching to specific contexts and students. By critically questioning and assessing their teaching, teachers increase their own understanding and so subsequently adapt/adjust their practices (Maxwell et al., 1994).

Evaluation and mentoring doubtless play an important role in terms of teachers' careers, both professionally and personally. Whether at the school or individual level, evaluation and mentoring can affect teachers' promotion, appraisal and professional development, which consequently should be reflected in the teachers' accomplishments in their teaching and in their students' performance.

Social Context

Schools are always located in a social and cultural context, and the school community tends to be a microcosm of the surrounding community. If the school's community context

consists of different religions, values and beliefs, customs, ethnicities and socio-economic backgrounds, then these most likely will be reflected in the school's students. Such diversity needs to be handled effectively by a quality teacher. The teacher's understanding of the ramifications of diversity is fundamental to the task of moving towards quality teaching (Alton-Lee, 2003; Hatton, 1994; Maxwell & Ninnes, 2000a; Zammit et al., 2007). Since the school cannot be cut off from its social context, it is essential to understand the structure of the social context around the school in order to manage the teaching-learning process smoothly without any serious contentions or clashes, especially in terms of divisive issues occurring outside the classroom (Adas, 1980; Maxwell & Ninnes, 2000a). Probably the most important policy formulation dealing with diversity has been termed 'multiculturalism'. It influences education policy generally and the assessment of quality teaching specifically. This term has been a major subject of debate among sociologists of education (Connell, 1993; Hargreaves, 1982; Heath & McMahon, 1997; Liston & Zeichner, 1991; McInerney & McInerney, 1994; Ramsey, 1987; Richmond & Andreoni, 2000; Rizvi, 1985, 1986, 1990; Wickert, 1993). Some researchers go beyond the term itself by explaining that the main problem that teachers and students may face in a diverse classroom is 'racism' and that quality teaching includes the way in which racism is confronted by effective action in schools and classrooms. – 'Passive sympathy' is seen as not enough to engender a healthy classroom climate in which quality teaching can take place (Ninnes, 2000, p.113).

An anti-racist 'multiculturalism' would understand that the different social and cultural backgrounds of students should be a positive factor and resource for quality teaching in the classroom, and it can contribute to productive lessons and professional development for quality teaching. Policymakers and legislators hold the prime responsibility for guiding other stakeholders towards implementing positive 'multiculturalism' in schools and classrooms.

The Influence of the School on Quality Teaching

School have existed for a long time. They have catered for people of all ages, everywhere, and they all have carried out various roles and tasks as well as teaching subjects. The schools of the 1960s differed in purpose from the schools of 2007. Hargreaves (2003) expressed the public expectations for public education in general and for the schools and their teachers specifically:

> Schools and their teachers have been expected to rescue children from poverty and destitution; to rebuild nationhood in the aftermath of war; to develop universal literacy as a platform for economic survival; to create skilled workers even when little suitable employment has beckoned them; to develop tolerance among children in a world where adults are divided by religious and ethnic conflict; o cultivate democratic sentiments in societies that bear the scars of totalitarinism; to keep developed nations economically competitive and help developing ones become so; and to eliminate drugs, end violence, and make restitution for the sins of the present generation by reshaping how educators prepare generations of the future. (pp.10-11)

Schools have had multiple and complex roles and challenges. The goals of schools have changed and adapted throughout their history, depending on the demands and needs of the social context in which the schools are located. The contemporary school focuses more on economic and market issues and the reeds or demands in the area of "globalisation" which is, according to Bagnall (2007)

> ... is about power and how that power is distributed. It is about culture and the way that some cultural groups have more power than others. It is about money and how freely it flows between borders as if there were no such things as nation states. It is about the way that education is influenced by increasingly complex international standards of comparison such as the TIMSS survey and OECD education indicators that compare such things as access to education and transition to work. (p. 297)

Therefore, schools are asked to produce workers with high intellectual abilities, as human capital, to be competitive in the age of the 'Knowledge Economy' within the 'Knowledge Society' (Hargreaves, 2003, p.3). Changes have occurred in subjects taught, technological development, and the changing purpose of teaching. Schools have become an important part of everyone's life. When we talk about 'quality schools', we talk about many things, such as the physical environment (the school buildings), and/or the education system, social characteristics, funding, management and leadership, school culture, teachers, students and parents. We have to ask ourselves, to what extent does the 'quality school' influence quality teaching? What makes a quality school? What are the characteristics of a quality school? In this section the school-level conditions and factors that can influence quality teaching will now be discussed.

The first research on 'effective schools' appeared in the 1970s, but because it was precipitate, it was basic and ambiguous (Owens, 1998). Nevertheless, Owens (1998) mentions the following characteristics of a quality school: effective leadership, a strong belief in students' outcomes, focusing on key skills, the organization of the teaching environment, regular student evaluation, and giving enough time to teach the tasks. These

perceptions were continued by Bentley (2000), who states that researchers described the effective school as having:

> ... autonomy, in-school site management, instructional leadership, staff stability, articulation and organization of a strong core curriculum, school-wide staff development, parental involvement and support, school-wide recognition of academic success, maximised learning time, system support, collaborative planning and co legial relationship, sense of community, clear goals and high expectations commonly shared, and order and discipline. (p.155)

Consequently, factors related to the school can influence students' achievement. These factors can be: professional leadership, the learning environment, high expectations, positive reinforcement, monitoring students' progress, and parent-school cooperation (Adas, 1980; Ayres, Sawyer, & Dinham, 2004; Bentley, 2000; Dinham, Cairney, Craigie, & Wilson, 1995; Harris, 1999; Owens, 1998; Zammit et al., 2007). The school as an educational institution has its own issues that influence the quality of teaching in various ways. Strinfield and Teddlie (1988) conducted a longitudinal study at a school in Louisiana, USA. The aim was to examine the conditions that influence students' achievement. The categories targeted were teachers, principals, and students. The sample had 76 schools from 12 districts and included 250 teachers and 5000 students. They found that conditions relating to the school had a significant effect on student achievement, more so than the performance of teachers. It was also found that the socio-economic conditions, and other school and teacher factors, could influence students' achievement. Meta-analysis of the research into the influence of schools and teachers on students' achievement has been done by Marzano (2000). It was found that student achievement was influenced by three main factors: those relating to the school, those relating to the teacher, and those relating to the student. The factors relating to the school were: effective leadership, an orderly and safe climate in the school, providing the students with the opportunity to learn basic skills, a high expectation that students would gain a high achievement level, frequent monitoring of students' performance and cooperation with parents. The factors relating to the students that can influence their achievement were: socio-economic status, students' prior knowledge, interest and enthusiasm, and native ability or aptitude. The surprising thing in this meta-analysis was that while school-level factors accounted for 7% of the variation and teacher-level factors accounted for 13%, students-level factors accounted for 80% overall. The factors related to the teacher examined by this research will be discussed later in the section on the professional characteristics of the quality teacher.

In short, quality schools do make a difference to students' achievement and to the performance of the school's staff. Therefore, the following characteristics of quality schools may demonstrate that we may find a significant level of teacher quality: professional leadership, sharing vision and goals, school culture supportive of high expectations, teaching and learning environment, and a positive relationship with the community.

Professional Leadership

In every educational institution there are people whose role it is to organise and monitor the affairs of the institution. Their tasks are significant and need to be effective in leading such an educational institution towards its goals. In any school, these are the school leaders or, more precisely, the school's principal. The 'art' of leadership will be discussed only briefly here, focusing generally on the educational angle and more specifically on the way school leadership can be reflected in the quality of the teaching-learning process.

Some researchers have found that principals in quality schools are more active, have long-range plans for their schools, a clear vision of how to achieve their goals for their schools, are involved in the classrooms at their schools, and make the instruction process easier for the teachers and the students (Strinfield & Teddlie, 1988). In addition, it has been found that principals in effective schools usually remain close to the students in order to understand the students and their needs (Strinfield & Teddlie, 1988). In terms of the connections between quality schools and quality teaching in this light, the researchers found that schools with effective leadership become more successful when the students receive from the teachers a good and an effective style of teaching, which, consequently, increases the students' achievement (Strinfield & Teddlie, 1988; Zammit et al., 2007). Dinham, Cairney, Caigie and Wilson (1995) conducted a case study of three schools in NSW and found that principals had significant influence on their school's climate and culture and also on school staff, which, if positive, could lead to progress in the students' achievement. Dinham (2004b) and his colleagues conducted a case study based on the AESOP program (An Exceptional Schooling Outcomes Project) where the aim of the project was 'to identify and analyse processes in NSW public schooling in years 7–10 and produce outstanding educational outcomes to assist national renewal in junior secondary education' (p.8). They found that principals play the main role in school outcomes by providing suitable conditions for the teachers and students to do well in terms of schooling

outcomes, reflected eventually in the students' achievement. According to Dinham's model of principal leadership, the effective and/or successful principal displays the following characteristics or responsibilities: they take into account the external environment and engage with it, they have aptitude, the ability to change and creativity, they have good interpersonal skills and are respected by staff and students, they have long term visions and they prepare themselves to work toward these, they take responsibility, they show trust, they are concerned about their teachers' professional development, they support the students and cooperate with the teachers and other staff, and they focus closest on the students in terms of teaching and learning (p.8). According to the study, leadership cannot be separated from the rest of the school's life, including its influence on students' learning and teachers' work. It is connected consistently with the school's members. It has been suggested that an effective principal in a quality school concentrates on and works hard towards their school's goals and outcomes, is capable and fair in deciding appropriate timing, and has the ability to organise their school around warm relationships between staff and students (Parkes, 2002; Duignan, 1986)).

In short, principals play an important role in terms of expectations. The successful principal is capable of communicating effectively with the school staff, students and parents, and encourages teachers to believe that students have the ability to progress. Successful principals will also meet frequently with students to discuss their problems and listen to them in groups or individually in order to evaluate their achievements and give feedback. Effective principals meet teachers frequently, listen to their comments, and discuss what is going on in the classroom with students' achievement, and teaching techniques and strategies. In addition, effective principals organise frequent meetings with parents and discuss matters concerning their children, seek cooperation from parents and support for the school, and build warm relationships. All these functions can influence or probably lead towards quality teaching by encouraging and motivating teachers, students and parents to work effectively together to achieve quality teaching.

Sharing Vision, Values and Goals

A school's vision and values play an important role in the quality teaching process by encouraging all parts of the school to work together effectively and productively. The OECD (1994) has stated that 'Vision and values are much abused and fuzzy concepts. It is not so much what the vision and values are, but rather that the school recognises their

importance' (p.90). A vision can impact on the whole of school life by encouraging, reinforcing and motivating all school members. The OECD (1994) continues that:

> [V]ision and an agreement or shared values appears to be characteristic of schools that have high level of teacher quality. Vision is usually related to a sense of "moral purpose" – having a positive impact on students. This has obvious and direct implications for teaching and teacher development. Visions that serve this purpose are not given – by the principal or government - but evolve over time through conflict and negotiation. By the same token, visions are also not exclusive. There may be multiple-value bases existing in large schools but, when successful, they are complementary rather that contradictory. Vision in this ideal sense does not deny the personal values of individual teachers, rather it provides a guiding framework for the school as a whole. (p.93)

Some other researchers go beyond the school's walls to explain the extent to which a school's vision and values can influence parents' participation in the quality teaching-learning process. McGaw, Banks and Kevin (1991) claim that '[o]ne approach to achieving a shared purpose has been to encourage greater freedom of parental choice in the selection of the school in the belief that a self-selecting parent community might produce a high level of consensus about a school's goals and methods'. (p.14)

It is assumed, here, that a school's members' participation in the educational process is fundamental. Furthermore, a quality school gives parents a chance to play a part in their children's learning and makes explicit the importance of their participation. Perhaps the most significant feature of parents' participation is about their negotiating of teaching programs rather than this being done in isolation by the school's staff (McGaw et al., 1991). Students' involvement in decision-making can also have a great role in increasing their feeling of belonging and may enhance their valuing of their school since their input shapes, to some extent, what the school is (McGaw et al., 1991).

School Culture

A school's culture and expectations have a hidden influence over the quality of teaching. The OECD (1994) considers these a main aspect of a school's context with the culture and expectations the hubs of spirit and morale in the quality school; their impact reflects the whole quality of a school's operation, including student achievement. This is confirmed by comments such as the following:

> The most persuasive research suggests that student academic performance is strongly affected by school culture. This culture is composed of values, norms, and roles existing within institutionally distinct structures of

governance, communication, educational practices and policies and so on. Successful schools are found to have cultures that produce a climate or "ethos" conducive to teaching and learning...efforts to change schools have been most productive and most enduring when directed toward influencing the entire school culture via a strategy involving collaborative planning, shared decision making, and collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to experimentation and evaluation. (Purkey and Smith 1985, p. 357 quoted in Owens, 1998, p.93)

Part of a school's culture is the understanding by all the school's staff of applying education policy in an acceptable and reasonable manner. Walker and Murphy (1986) regard:

> Effective schools [are those that] find a happy medium between rigid and loose discipline and understand that order is necessary to proceed with the business of learning... staff s jointly responsible for the discipline of all students and a widespread system of rewards is employed throughout the entire school. (p.79)

A quality school's culture and expectations can manifest themselves in many ways, such as: focusing on academic aspects, evaluating student progress, teachers believing that all the students can learn the existence of a climate suitable for learning, and effective leadership (Tesconi, 1995). Furthermore, part of a school's culture and expectations is the quality teacher's attitude. The literature shows that that teachers in quality schools have positive attitudes towards their students' abilities and learning, encourage their students to ask questions, reinforce their students' best efforts, try hard to present various opportunities for them to succeed, and actively construct students' confidence: 'The administrator, the teacher, and the student, are likely to fulfil the expectations set for themselves. Expectation of success breeds success; expectation of failure breeds failure' (Troisi, 1983, p.5). In the quality school, all the staff have positive and high expectations about students' abilities. Walker and Murphy (1986) claim schools with high expectations for students in 'academic and social-behavioural' areas 'aim toward excellence in student achievement and concurrently toward staff responsibility for this achievement'. (p.78)

In conclusion, the quality school's culture and expectations are significant factors in terms of quality teaching. A positive culture can motivate and support teachers and the school's other staff. It can also encourage, motivate and reinforce in students the need to maximise their efforts in the learning process. All of these factors contribute effectively and productively to the quality teaching process.

Teaching and Learning Environment

The teaching and learning environment in the quality school plays an essential role in students' achievement. Such an environment has two aspects: the interaction between student and teacher, and the physical environment, including the classroom atmosphere, of the school. Quality schools provide a safe and organised learning and teaching environment. Such an environment can be both healthy and intellectually stimulating, where students are engaged in learning and are committed to acquiring knowledge, attitudes, skills, and behaviours for success. Walker and Murphy (1986) stress the school environment providing security for both students and staff, with consistency and fairness in discipline policies. The physical environment needs to be equally well maintained.

Aspects of the classroom, the 'classroom climate', can, to some extent, influence quality teaching and learning. Some researchers have made these a focus for their studies: Reynolds, Muijs and Threharne (2003) state that:

> *Classroom climate*, measured through interviews with pupils, included pupils' perceptions of the clarity of each lesson, an orderly climate, clear behavior standards, a perception of teacher fairness, the opportunity for pupils to participate, feeling emotionally supported in class, the perception that the classroom is a safe place, the perception that the classroom is an interesting and exciting place to be, and the feeling that the classroom is a comfortable, well organized and attractive physical environment. (p.92)

Perhaps one of the more extensive pieces of research in this field is by Fraser (1994; 2002). In his historical research, he indicates that there is a strong correlation or association between the classroom environment and student achievement. The teaching-learning environment can influence quality teaching in the way in which the teacher and student interact, consequently impacting on the student's performance in the classroom and the school context. It has been argued that quality schools and teachers demonstrate the following characteristics: spending time on teaching the task, developing new ways of presenting material, practising independently, having high expectations, encouraging and giving feedback on and reinforcing the students' learning frequently, minimizing interruptions, controlling the students in a positive manner, and providing a friendly environment. In comparison, a school lacking in quality has no such characteristics (Adas, 1980, 1986; Teddlie, Kirby, & Strinfield, 1989).

While comparing the characteristics of quality schools from the 1980s with those of the 1990s may yield some insights, the literature seems to point towards there being little historical difference. Furthermore, Line and Walberg (1987) and Owens (1998) claim that,

historically, an effective school concentrates on the students' needs and demands, has an acceptable learning environment, is where staff take responsibility for the students' success, and positive attitudes are expressed towards students no matter what their socio-economic background.

Including students with disabilities in the mainstream has made it essential to look at the quality school from this angle. In the quality school, students with disabilities are able to find an accepting and welcoming environment; inclusive education based on professional knowledge is an important characteristic. Ainscow (1991) regards the quality school as having effective leadership and staff who are able to deal with all students and their needs, are optimistic that all the students can progress and develop their abilities toward successful achievement, have a willingness to support each other by meeting their needs, ensure that the curriculum meets all the students' needs, and frequently engage in effective school reviews of programs. Successful teachers challenge the students' abilities by setting good quality tasks, providing students with opportunities to choose their tasks, varying learning strategies, and providing facilities that contribute to student learning (Ainscow, 1991). Clark, Dyson and Millward (1995) indicate that an effective school reinforces students' performance, has a good work environment that meets disabled peoples' needs, and gives the opportunity for all the students to become involved and participate in school activities. The effective teacher in an effective school is willing to deal with all the students in terms of understanding their problems and providing a positive behaviour model for students (Clark et al., 1995). Thus, quality teaching can occur most easily in a quality school environment, where the interaction between the student and teacher is frequent and positive. Quality teaching occurs when the climate in the school and the classroom is welcoming, comfortable, safe and productive.

Relationship between the School and Community

Cooperation between home and school has been highlighted by some researchers. A quality school takes the initiative in community participation and strengthens the links between the school and its community, especially with regard to activities relating to student progress. Masters (2004) regards effective schools as those having high levels of parent community involvement, with parents being 'encouraged to take an active role in discussing, monitoring and supporting their children's learning' (p.1). Parental involvement extends to parents setting school goals and developing school policies.

Business and community leaders also need to be involved in the work of the school, the school goals being advanced by relationships with the local community.

McGaw, Banks and Kevin (1991) consider that parents can monitor their children's learning by encouraging them, checking their homework and listening to them read. Children learn more when they feel that their parents are involved in their learning and in the school. The school should regularly check the kinds of channels available for communicating with parents about aspects of decision-making and about their child's progress (McGaw et al., 1991). The contact between school and home can take several forms, including conferences, comments, visits, and workshops for staff and the parents (Stevens, 1987). Modern communications technology, such as telephones, e-mail, a regularly updated school website, and cheap bulk printing, can make contact between home and school easier (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). Parents also can be kept informed by school calendars, assignment schedules, and information about the school's programs (Bransford et al., 2000). There should be no mistaking that quality schools derive their strength from their communities and its agencies. These are where effective support must be obtained for the teaching-learning process and ultimately for achieving goals and missions. For example, the school can use local resources drawn from the community, while the local community can use the school's resources and become involved in its activities. The school staff can meet the parents and other interested community members and discuss issues relating to the education process (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1994). Therefore, the relationship between the school and the community positively influences the teaching-learning process and ultimately the quality of teaching.

Personnel: Qualifications, Characteristics, Experience, Training

The staff of a school tends to have a mixture of different qualifications, characteristics, experience, and training. The question is: to what extent do these elements influence quality teaching? Researchers have found quality teaching is influenced by the professional characteristics, content knowledge, interpersonal relationships, knowledge of individual differences, teaching experience, teacher certification, and enthusiasm of the staff (Zammit et al., 2007).

Professional Characteristics

For the classroom teacher, the debate has been shaped by different responses and different opinions and considerations. The personal and professional characteristics of a quality teacher will be discussed in the following section. Borich (2000) defined an effective teacher as:

> A good teacher was a good person- a role model who met the community ideal for a good citizen, good parent, and good employee. At that time [the past], teachers were judged primarily on their goodness as people and only secondarily on their behaviour in the classroom. They were expected to be honest, hardworking, generous, friendly, and considerate, and to demonstrate these qualities in their classrooms by being organized, disciplined, insightful, and committed. Practically speaking. this meant that to be effective, all a beginning teacher needed was King Solomon's wisdom, Sigmund Freud's insight, Albert Einstein's knowledge, and Florence Nightingale's dedication!. (pp.1-2)

As mentioned before, meta-analysis of the research into the influence of schools and teachers on students' achievements has been done by Marzano (2000). He found students' achievement is influenced by teachers who provide students with: an ability to compare and classify; skills about note taking, summarizing, and analysing information; feedback and reinforcement; homework and practice; and non-linguistic practices and presentations skills. Teacher skills also include concentrating on cooperative learning, encouraging the students to solve problems by testing theories and hypotheses in order to make the material easy to understand, and classroom management. In another study, Darling-Hammond (2000) examined characteristics relating to teacher quality that leads to increased students' achievement. These characteristics are: flexibility, creativity, adaptability, enthusiasm for learning, experience, demonstrated skills in asking students high level questions, verbal ability, knowledge of subject content, cooperation with colleagues, being good at time planning, and motivating behaviour. McInerney and McInerney (1994) listed the following characteristics for quality teachers as: constantly encouraging and appreciating their students individuality, having a good knowledge about his or her subject, demonstrating a loving and sensitive relationship with their students, teaching their students productively, sharing and involving the parents and having good skills dealing with the community, showing flexibility and treating the students similarly, organising and managing their classrooms properly, preparing their students for the future, having self-confidence, being inclusive with the community outside the school and having a sense of responsibility. Reynolds et al. (2003) stated that teaching effectiveness includes:

- *Professional characteristics,* including teachers' leadership qualities, their ability to relate to others, the r analytic and conceptual thinking skills, their professionalism and their planning and expectation setting abilities.
- *Teaching skills,* which included most of the traditional teacher effectiveness factors such as time on task. high expectations, effective planning, varied teaching, classroom and behavior management, and effective use of assessment and homework. (p.92)

Westwood (1995) argued, in his literature review about quality teachers that the quality teacher is supposed to be a good classroom manager, who focuses on academic skills, has good expectations of students, has enthusiasm, uses effective strategies to keep students on task, and uses a variety of teaching approaches. Also the quality teacher presents teaching material easily, is direct in teaching, explains and outlines instructions clearly, frequently observes what students are doing taking into account differences between the students, and re-teaches when it is needed, gives frequent feedback for all students and checks for understanding by using probing questions. According to Stanovich and Jordan (1998) quality teachers who are able to mon tor the classroom and the students' behaviour in their class also demonstrate the ability to use body language. They are able to manage the instruction time for the students and themselves and have good expectations for the lesson. In terms of academic ability, the quality teacher has the ability to review the previous day's lesson before starting a new lesson; this connects previous knowledge with the new material being taught. Quality teachers also ensure students understand what is being taught by using questions and monitoring students' progress frequently (Stanovich & Jordan, 1998).

The fifty-state, USA, survey by Darling-Hammond (2000) found that there was a significant relationship between teacher quality and students' achievement. In addition there was a strong relationship between students' achievement, and teacher preparation and qualifications, especially in reading and mathematics. Further, a teacher's experience, creativity, enthusiasm, questioning skills, knowledge of content, intelligence, time planning and cooperation with colleagues contributed to increasing student achievement. Dinham and his colleagues (2004a) conducted a case study that included 19 effective teachers of high achievement grade 12 students in NSW, Australia. They found there were eight categories which influenced a student's achievement: 'school background and students, subject faculty, personal qualities, relationships with students, professional development, resources and planning, classroom climate and teaching strategies' (p.149). Collective professional and personal characteristics can hinder or facilitate quality teaching

and learning. The nature of these characterises will be detailed in the following sections.

Teacher's Behaviour and Students' Achievement

Many researchers consider teachers' actions and behaviour to have a significant influence on students' achievement; it was four d that the teachers' behaviour has a significant link to students' achievement (Englert, 198?; Westwood, 1995). Englert (1983), in a study about teacher effectiveness, found that quality teachers had a high level of presentation and corrected student responses in a short time, also following the students error responses and informed the students of the correct response by giving suitable feedback. Shanoski and Hranitz (1993) indicated that the quality teacher shows enthusiasm in their teaching, takes care of students, and works cooperatively with parents. In terms of professional development, the quality teacher usually is interested in following education journals and books, and participating in conferences and workshops in their field. They are interested in participating on most committees in the school and in the community around the school; they know their students' needs and support individual differences, have high expectations of themselves and their students, encourage students to be optimistic about their own ability, are able to increase students' motivation, vary their teaching strategies, have good communication skills, love their students, and have knowledge about their subject and subject matter (Adas, 1980; Shanoski & Hranitz, 1993).

Hattie (2002) reported that quality teachers are professional in their teaching, with good content knowledge and teaching practices that benefit their students. They identify important issues and make appropriate decisions. By effectively monitoring classroom behaviour and learning quality teachers are better able to assess their students' understanding and problems in understanding, providing feedback at the same time. They can see the difficulties facing the students and build strategies and hypotheses and examine or test these by measuring students' outcomes. The quality teacher respects their students. They have responsibility over their students, motivate them, help build student self-concept and self-efficacy, have a positive influence on their students' outcomes and lead the students through challenging tasks (Hattie, 2002). Effective teachers according to Murphy, Delli and Edwards (2004), are patient, caring, and respect their students; they organise their classrooms, and as a result their students are enthusiastic. Other researchers considered that factors related to instruction (from that stage of introducing the subject to the assessment stage) are the most significant in students' achievement (Brophy & Good, 1986).

In conclusion, the behaviour of quality teachers contributes effectively in achieving quality teaching and their teaching behaviour leads to students' achievement.

Knowledge of Students and their Abilities

Ongoing research about effective teacher's characteristics of teachers teaching in an inclusive classroom stress the ability and skills to plan for the content coverage, and modifying teaching objectives by taking into account the individual differences between students (Adas, 1986; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2004; Westwood, 2003). Quality teachers have good strategies to maximize the academic time on task (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2004). They also have good presentation skills, including variety in the teaching process. This makes their presentation very clear and keeps the students active and engaged; the academic practices in the inclusive classroom are monitored with frequent questioning and giving immediate feedback (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2004; Westwood, 2003).

Including students with disabilities into the regular classroom is a relatively new trend in education policy around the world. This trend raises significant considerations about the characteristics of teachers teaching in inclusive classrooms. Research in this area suggests the effective teacher's characteristics in the inclusive classroom as: efficient use of time, good relationships with students, providing positive feedback, having a high student success rate, and, in general, providing support for the students with and without disabilities (Larrivee, 1985). Larrivee (1985) studied a sample size of 118 teachers in inclusive primary classrooms, concentrating on the students with learning difficulties. She collected her data using four methods: direct classroom observation; teacher self-reporting, and interviews with both the teachers and the students. The 74 variables for this study were divided into seven categories. To collect the data Larrivee developed 14 instruments to assess all variables. She reported that students with special needs demonstrated a greater level of achievement in the mainstream classrooms when the teacher: used the time efficiently, had a good relationship with the students, gave the students positive feedback, established a high rate of success for learning tasks, and responded to all students positively. In contrast to the students who achieved highly, the students with the lowest achievement were in classrooms with a high degree of off-task actions or behaviour and time wasted in transition processes, and where the teachers criticized students' responses, and were poor at intervening with behavioural problems (Larrivee, 1985). The study results were summarized into four main categories:

- Classroom management.
- Positive feedback during the instruction.
- Creating appropriate conditions for instruction.
- General supportive environment.

'Individual differences' need to be considered for quality learning and the quality teacher is generally aware of individual differences among learners in their classroom. Students can be helped to learn by using their own experiences and their learning history to understand what is being taught (Borich, 2000). Also, a quality teacher can adapt their teaching methods so that they meet the individual learning needs of the students. Recognizing individual differences can provide perspective for the parents and other staff who are involved in helping the student (Borich, 2000). Stronge (2002) states students:

> ...want teachers who hold them in mutual respect and who are willing to talk about their own personal lives and experiences. Through appropriate self-disclosure, teachers become human in the eyes of students. Being available to students, and the depth of the teacher's understanding of students, legitimizes the teacher as a person when demonstrating genuine concern and empathy toward students. (p.15)

Shulman (1987, p.7) argues teaching must properly be understood to be more than the enhancement of understanding of course content and subject matter. An effective teacher has an understanding of the students they teach, their abilities, their language, their culture, their gender, their behaviour and motivation, their psychological characteristics, their experience, their socio-economic status and these things are the most challenging aspects of teaching (Shulman, 1987). For teachers, understanding students is essential because without understanding the students, teachers will find it hard to provide their students with content and skills. Understanding the students gives them motivation in terms of engagement and concentration in learning skills and knowledge, which ultimately, will influence the quality of teaching.

Interpersonal Relationship and Enthusiasm

The relationship between student and teacher is a fundamental issue (McInerney & McInerney, 1994). It secures comfort and trust between the teacher and student, which leads to quality teaching and learning. The teacher's role can go beyond the classroom by the teacher applying a variety of strategies to interact with the students beyond the classroom, such as attending sporting events, and concerts. Stronge (2002) feels effective teachers are able to challenge each student to succeed if they have social interaction with

their students, so increasing student self-esteem. This view is also expressed by McInerney & McInerney (1994) who regard effective teachers as encouraging 'self-worth' and 'self-esteem' in their students. The effective teacher 'maintains a friendly, patient and relaxed interaction with each [student] while still retaining firm control over behaviour' and shows 'genuine interest in children as "whole" people who have families or caregivers, pets hobbies or special talents, anxieties and insecurities, and come from a range of cultures and socioeconomic backgrounds' (McInerney & McInerney, 1994, p.579).

The relationship between students and the quality teacher has to be warm in order to create a comfortable climate and increase he teacher's motivation. If the relationship between students and the teacher is not trustful, the teacher's motivation and expectations will decrease as a result of that, and consequently the students' motivation, performance, and achievement will also decline (Minor Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, & James, 2002).

A quality teacher needs to be enthusiastic about what they do in the classroom. Such enthusiasm cannot exist without a positive attitude toward the teaching profession or students or the subject and other elements of quality teaching. Research shows a significant correlation between enthusiasm and students' performance. Minor et al. (2002) found in their study of pre-service teachers' educational beliefs and their perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers, that enthusiasm was strongly endorsed (23% compared with other characteristics). Stronge (2002) claims:

> The teacher's enthusiasm for teaching, learning, and for the subject matter has been shown to be an important part of effective teaching, both in supporting positive relationships with students and in encouraging student achievement... teachers can effectively motivate most students by encouraging them to be responsible for their own learning, maintaining an organized classroom environment, setting high standards, assigning appropriate challenges, and providing reinforcement and encouragement during tasks. These students see effective teachers as motivational leaders. (p.18)

Enthusiasm can be evident in many ways, such as through body language, the eyes, oral delivery, gestures, selecting specific words, and welcoming the ideas and feelings of students (Burden & Byrd, 2003). McInerney & McInerney (1994, p.558) state 'Enthusiasm is expressed in observable ways such as varied tones of voice, lively eyes which make frequent eye contact with students, use of gestures, and an energetic manner while moving around the room. Enthusiastic teachers show emotions of surprise, joy and excitement in facial expressions and in voice'. They went to say:

'No doubt, we all have experenced a teacher who droned on monotonously when explaining something (without humour or "colourful" examples), and who tended to stand or sit in the one place throughout a lesson looking at a small group of students only This teacher's classroom was a boring place and we didn't really look forward to being there, nor did we learn very much. (p.558)

Students learn more from lessons presented with enthusiasm than boring lessons which can frustrate learning (Burden & Byrc, 2003). The enthusiastic teacher motivates their students, which in turn positively influences the quality teaching-learning process (Killen, 2005).

Content Knowledge

Knowledge of the subject-matter and the course content are considered the most important characteristics of a quality teacher. A quality teacher has a good knowledge of teaching and learning; understanding the subject-matter with 'more than [a] formulaic or procedural understanding of the core ideas in a discipline and how these help to structure knowledge, how they relate to one another, and how they can be tested, evaluated, and extended' (Darling-Hammond, 1997, pp.294-295). Flexibility 'to address ideas as they come up in the course of learning' is essential (Darling-Hammond, 1997, p. 295).

Dunne and Wrangg (1994) state that '[t]he effective teacher needs a wide range of subject knowledge and a large repertoire of professional skills' (p.6). Therefore, the teacher needs to know 'not only the basic concepts and procedures of the discipline but also pedagogical content knowledge which includes ways of representing the subject to others through explanations, analogies, illustration, examples and demonstrations' (Webb and Vulliamy 1996, p. 60 quoted in Dean, 2000, p.32); and also understand the differences between the students in terms of the culture, language, family and community (Dunne & Wragg, 1994). They need to understand curriculum resources and technologies; in other words they must come to the classroom with a good knowledge about most of the things related to their field/s (Dunne & Wragg, 1994). Darling–Hammond (2000) in her literature review found there are positive relationships between teaching knowledge and learning and students' achievements. Moreover, Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and Games (2002), in their study of pre-service teachers' perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers, found that knowledge of the subject was a very important characteristic. According to Stronge (2002), students' performance and achievements have a positive relationship with their teachers' content knowledge. The school leadership, students, teachers and school board

members also expressed concerns about the importance of subject matter knowledge. Kaplan and Owings (2001) mention that the students of teachers who have college minors or majors in the field they teach to their students achieved better than did students of teachers without knowledge of the content. Ayres, Sawyer and Dinham (2004) also found that strong content knowledge is considered an important factor of successful teaching. Quality teaching is, therefore, significantly associated with content knowledge. To achieve quality teaching, it is essential that teachers have a sufficient knowledge of the content of the subject they are teaching.

Expectation and Beliefs

The teacher's expectations have a significant influence on the interactive process between students and their teachers; if the teachers expect success for their students, then students will work to achieve this (Brophy, 1998). Expectation derives from teachers' beliefs about their students' needs and abilities and the students' responses to being treated in certain ways. Teachers' attitudes towards, and thus expectations of, the abilities of individual students can vary greatly, potentially leading teachers to treat particular students differently, which may result, positively or negatively, in students establishing 'self-fulfilling prophecies' (Good & Brophy, 2000, p.109). Expectations held by the school's staff in general, or expressed in its context, can establish the tenor for the general expectations within which specific teacher-student interactions occur (Creemers, 1994). A quality teacher takes into account their students' abilities in the classroom and uses differentiated teaching strategies. Therefore, it is essential also to differentiate the curriculum to meet the students' abilities and their social backgrounds (Oakes, Gamoran, & Page, 1992).

Teachers' beliefs also play an important role in implementing elements of quality teaching. It is been argued that there is a significant relationship between belief and action (Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding, & Cuthbert, 1988; Green, 1971; Harvey, Prather, White, & Hoffmeister, 1968; Hollingsworth, 1989). Teachers' beliefs and their connections with what they do inside the classroom are important factors that can influence quality teaching especially when it is comes to students learning (Calderhead & Robson, 1991). These can also influence teachers' attitudes toward the whole educational process, including pre-service teacher education and/or in-service programs.

The situation is more significant when we talk about education reform and if teachers are required to change their thinking about approaches to teaching. Changing teachers' beliefs about particular approaches to teaching can be difficult. Some studies have shown that teachers' beliefs can be changed to comply with the requirements of education reform through effective professional development programs (Richardson, 1994). Therefore, it is essential for any country moving toward educational reform is to update their training programs. This can be done by involving teachers rather than ignoring their beliefs and thinking on teaching and learning because subsequently this will influence the implementation of any education reform program.

Teaching Experience and Qualification

Experienced teachers have a positive influence on students' achievement. Stronge (2002) reported that experienced teachers show better planning skills, apply a range of teaching strategies, understand their students' needs and interests, have better organising skills and these affect their students' academic performance. Experienced teachers have abilities in dealing with urgent issues in the classroom; they are also able to understand the differences between the students' abilities and monitor the classroom effectively. However, some researchers consider quality teaching as a matter of 'expertise rather than experience' (Killen, 2005 p.33) In general, experience and expertise are fundamental elements to achieve quality teaching and they work simultaneously.

Certification and licensure have important roles in terms of quality teachers' professionalism. In her study, Darling-Hammond (2000) found that the most significant predictor of student achievement in reading and mathematics was the proportion of teachers in a state who have full certification and a major in the field they teach, and the strongest consistently negative predictor of student achievement was the proportion of new teachers who are uncertified. Certified teachers have a greater impact on gains in student learning than uncertified teachers, especially in small populations and rural settings. The teachers who work in the field in which they are certified enable their students to achieve more than the teachers working out-of-field (Stronge, 2002). However, it can be argued that formal qualifications do not ensure quality teaching. Whitehurst (2002), for example, says 'the bulk of evidence … is that here are no differential gains across classes taught by teachers with a Masters' degree or other advanced degree in education compared to classes taught by teachers who lack such degrees' (p.14). Whatever the case, a large body of

research agreed that teaching experience and qualifications can influence quality teaching and learning in different ways.

Infrastructure, Resources, Funding

It is clear that physical facilities, such as resources, funds, and infrastructure play a major role in facilitating the teaching-learning process It is unfair to compare countries such as Australia or the United State of America with, for example, Nepal or Jordan in terms of education funding and infrastructure. School infrastructure is based on school funding or budget and the school fund or budget is provided by the government, especially for public schools. The process is linked to government policy and how much the policymakers consider education needs and demands (Karmel, 2000). Classroom and class size are obvious examples of school infrastructure. Class size can influence not only the quality teaching process but also the teachers themselves and so ultimately student outcomes (Biddle & Berliner, 2002; Finn, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Nye, Hedges, & Konstantopoulos, 1999). Scarcity of funding generally impacts on the infrastructure of the school and the classroom which will ultimately, influence the quality teaching process. The levels of funding depend on the financial capacity or ability of every country. It is not surprising to find the school infrastructure in Jordan, for example, does not meet international standards. In such circumstances, the most important responsibility lies on the teacher, and how they manage themselves in such situations.

The Influence of Classroom Practices

One of the most important hubs in the teaching-learning process is what occurs in the classroom, the interaction between teacher and student. This is specified as *constructivism* in teaching and learning. The elements of these actions in the classroom will be discussed in the following sections.

Planning

Entering the classroom with planned and prepared lessons and knowing the topic area content are fundamental issues in the teaching-learning process. But again, there is disagreement over the specifics of this process, especially among expert teachers since they appear to know what they are going to teach and have developed this knowledge

incrementally and in a possibly ur reflective manner. Organising and planning lesson content allows teachers to

- pay attention to what is to be earned;
- understand the relationship between the information being presented and what [children] already know; understand how [children] learn;
- control the rate and quality of learning; and
- be aware that learning has taken place'. (Ashman & Conway, 1993, p.50)

There is a debate about the effectiveness of planning for teaching. Some researchers regard it as an important factor in the teaching-learning process, since it allows observers to understand the process of transition from official curriculum documents to student learning. Groundwater-Smith, Ewing and Cornu (2003) state:

> Teaching and learning experiences need to be based on students' needs, interests and abilities in the light of current national, state and territory and school policy documents ... how these plans will be implemented needs to be considered, along with how the learning outcomes will be assessed, recorded and communicated to students, parents and others in the school community. (p.185)

Panasuk, Stone and Todd (2002) point out that 'scrupulous' planning is essential in improving the teaching of mathematics; it 'is a basic requirement for successful teaching' (p.809). Elsewhere the situation is different. Maxwell and Ninnes (2000a) debate the controversial aspects of planning the curriculum in schools. Their point is that schools may have a subject-teacher system, where the teacher teaches the subject vertically through year groups, or may have a year-level teacher system, where the teacher teaches all subjects horizontally, as in most primary schools. Dissonance may occur when students progress from primary to secondary school, where they will face different methods of teaching specific skills in mathematics or other subject areas (Maxwell & Ninnes, 2000a). Another dilemma that is debated considers the contents of the plan and the reflective benefits on students' learning. Planning is straightforward if 'the overall objective is to get all the students to learn the same thing' (Maxwell & Ninnes, 2000a, p.19). Teachers, however, need to take into account the different needs, backgrounds, and learning styles of their students as well as other factors, such as gender and ethnicity. Maxwell & Ninnes (2000a, p.19) feel plans should be relevant and include students' social needs and demands, as well as academic needs. Further, external and internal factors can influence teachers' planning. According to Groundwater-Smith et al (2003, p. 186) external factors include:

- Community values
- level of community involvement in the school
- parental expectations and level of involvement
- social diversity and background of the students
- funding and resources
- syllabus and whole-school programs and policies
- current affairs-global, national, local events
- political climate
- class size
- time
- seasons and the weather
- students' extracurricular activities.

The internal factors can be: teachers' knowledge of their own their abilities in teaching particular area of curriculum (Groundwater-Smith et al 2003), their abilities in making the right decisions about particular aspects of curriculum and what is suit their students' needs (Groundwater-Smith et al 2003) and considering the other stakeholders who involve in building curriculum (Groundwater-Smith et al 2003).

Despite the debates, it is clear that planning plays an important role in the teaching process. For planning to be recognised in that role, teachers need to have certain characteristics: to be well prepared, to include sufficient knowledge about students' learning, to take into account the mixt of abilities in the classroom, to highlight the failures and successes in the teaching-learning process, and to take into account the available resources (Groundwater-Smith et al., 2003).

Some researchers propose that planning may need to be sensitive to an extremely fine-grained analysis of the teaching-learning situation as suggested in the Rumbold Report, which identifies three conditions for young children to learn effectively (Rodger, 1994). These conditions are: 'Careful planning and development of the child's experiences, with sensitive and appropriate intervention by the educator, will help nurture an eagerness to learn...' (DES 1990, p. 38 quoted in Rodger, 1994, p.14). Rodger (1994) elaborated on these observations, suggesting that these three conditions can also be essential conditions for planning a quality curriculum for young children (p. 14). Whatever the agreements or disagreements, planning will remain the anchor for teachers who wish to organise and present their actions in the classroom precisely and clearly and have recourse to some justification for their pedagogical actions.

Implementation of Teaching and Learning

Implementing what teachers plan and prepare is a fundamental issue in the teaching-learning process. It needs knowledge and skills because, while it may be easy to construct a plan, the vital question is to what extent the plan can be applied successfully and effectively. In the teaching-learning process, we have teachers with their personal and professional characteristics and students with their backgrounds and diversity. Therefore, such complexity creates a challenge not simply for teachers to plan effectively, but for teachers to reach their goals successfully and productively. In light of this, it is worthwhile to define the term 'teaching' before discussing observable classroom practices. Anderson and Burns (1989) define teaching as 'an interpersonal, interactive activity, typically involving verbal communication, which is undertaken for the purpose of helping one or more students learn or change the ways in which they can or will behave' (p.8). In this section, the qualities of teacher practices will be discussed flowing from and in line with the preceding discussion on the general characteristics of the quality teacher.

Teaching and learning process is an interactive process which occurs between the teacher and students to help students to construct and acquire knew knowledge and apply this knowledge in their real life (Alton-Lee, 2003). Some practices relate to the students' actions and some to the teacher's actions, while the rest relate to the interaction between the teacher and the students in the classroom. However, since the teaching-learning process is (or should be) a cohesive and coherent process, the practices referred to below will not be discussed separately but treated as collective or inclusive strategies.

Teaching Presentation and Teacher's Task Orientation

There is ongoing debate about the nature of teaching. Students tend to do better at any intellectual assessment when taught by teachers who understand how their students learn, how they learn to think, and how the teachers focus on teaching thinking skills (Newmann, 1991). The current debate within education systems is over the call for teaching to focus more on student reception than teacher transmission, which is teaching that encourages students to use their minds rather than treating them as passive receivers. This is then about creating a method for teaching that allows students to use their intellectual abilities to reach a high standard. To achieve acceptance for this view/concept, educators need to show the 'new approaches to pedagogy are grounded in high intellectual standards' (Newmann et al., 1996, p.282) and adherence to these standards enhances students' achievement.

In this teaching-learning process, we have students as thinkers and teachers as facilitators. The process of interaction has to take into account students having 'prior knowledge' and a 'social context of values', from which students will have formed a way of thinking about the world and through which they will apply the information they have been 'taught' by teacher-managers (Newmann et al., 1996, p.285).

A quality teacher uses the students' prior knowledge, giving the students the opportunity to be thinkers and for them to gain a deep understanding of the information they have been taught. Students acquire multiple ways to express the information they have learned. Teachers are meant to encourage and facilitate student learning, while simultaneously establishing a good relationship between the students and the teacher in order to reach the aim of intellectual quality (Newmann et al., 1996).

Teaching approaches have been developed or explored progressively by researchers through history. Effective teaching approaches have been the general focus of 'teacher effectiveness' and 'school effectiveness' (Killen, 2005, p.6) and the phrase has been developed and understood over time in terms of the relationship between teaching and learning. It is been described as 'good teaching', 'effective teaching' and recently 'authentic pedagogy' and 'quality teaching' (Killen, 2005, p.6). Newmann and Associates (1996) define authentic pedagogy or authentic academic achievement through three criteria: 'construction of knowledge', 'disciplined inquiry' and 'value beyond school' (p.33). Construction of knowledge means that 'learners are required to use or manipulate knowledge by using cognitive processes such as analysis, interpretation, synthesis, and evaluation, rather than just [to] remember and produce knowledge in the forms in which others have expressed it' (Killen, 2005 p.8). Disciplined inquiry means that 'teachers help students to focus on gaining in-depth understanding of limited topics, rather than superficial acquaintance with many topics. Students are encouraged to use sophisticated forms of communication to learn and to express their understanding' (Killen, 2005, p.8). Value beyond school means 'learners are required to produce performances, discourse and products that have personal, aesthetic, or [have] social significance beyond just demonstration of success to a teacher' (Killen, 2005, p.9).

Newmann, Marks and Garmoron (1996) studied 24 schools intensively, observing mathematics and social studies teachers. They found that across elementary, middle and

high schools there was a strong relationship between authentic pedagogy and authentic academic performance. As well, the achievement effects of authentic pedagogy could be distributed fairly among students from different social backgrounds. Furthermore, authentic pedagogy could decrease the existing inequality in achievement in mathematics and science between students from different socio-economic groups (Lee, Smith, & Croninger, 1997).

But how are such effects quantified to assess a pedagogical procedure that challenges the effectiveness of teaching towards reductive quantifiable tests? Newmann, Bryk and Nagaok (2001) assumed that the standardized test in Chicago gave a shallow picture of students' intellectual performance. They, therefore, categorised Years 3, 6 and 8 students' work on tasks in writing and mathematics under specific dimensions: higher-order thinking, deep knowledge, deep understanding and substantive communication. They found that the students scored poorly on these dimensions, mainly because of the types of tasks provided and work expected. Nevertheless, there was a direct relationship between teaching higher levels of intellectual quality and the authentic work demonstrated by students.

In the same field, Newmann et al. (2001) found, in a study investigating Years 3, 6 and 8 classes, that there was a strong relationship between the quality of the teachers' tasks and the students' achievement. Students' work in reading and mathematics, when presented as authentic tasks, meant they did better at the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) than students taught at a lower level of authentic tasks. They were guided in their research into authentic teaching by the three main criteria: 'construction of knowledge', 'disciplined inquiry', and 'value beyond school' (p.14). They also claimed that 'knowledge becomes most powerful when students can use information to gain deeper understanding of specific problems (p.15). Further, 'participation in authentic intellectual activity helps to motivate and sustain students in the hard work that learning requires' (p.30).

With teacher and student interaction, Smith, Lee and Newmann (2001) found that interactive instruction plays the main role in students' learning and has a strong relationship with the intellectual quality elements they defined in reading and mathematics. 'Interactive instruction' means that 'the teacher's role is primarily one of guide or coach. Teachers using this form of instruction create situations in which students encounter knowledge in ways that provoke them to ask questions, develop strategies for solving

problems, and communicate with one another' (Smith et al., 2001, p.12). According to the Smith, Lee and Newmann, such methods in teaching enable students to engage in the learning process giving them an opportunity to think deeply and actively about the subject matter. Avery (1999) similarly states:

> Teachers may focus on critical thinking and inquiry in their classrooms, but if they give low-level, basic skills tests, their students do not have the opportunity to demonstrate more authentic work. Conversely, teachers may design excellent authentic assessments, but if their daily instruction focuses on rote memorization and close-ended questions, many of their students are unlikely to produce authentic work. (p.372)

To encourage students to demonstrate their abilities by constructing knowledge or using challenging tasks is both productive and increases students' performance, not only for those performing at average levels, but also for those with disabilities. King, Schroeder and Chawszczewski (2001) found that students with disabilities taught by teachers using a high level of authentic pedagogy performed at the same levels as students without disabilities whom receiving a lower level of authentic pedagogy. This is a controversial finding because students with some disabilities may have more limited intellectual ability when compared with students without disabilities, so teaching for deep understanding may need extra time and more effective and special strategies. Nevertheless, the results of the research means that disabled students may perform or progress significantly when authentic pedagogy is employed. However, it should be emphasised, the achievements were no better than for students without disabilities. In other words, authentic pedagogy is proposed as a general teaching strategy, not one specifically directed towards students with special needs.

To further address issues around students with low prior achievement and displaying work with low intellectual quality, Newmann et al. (2001) re-examined students' work from previous studies, especially from students who had low prior achievement. They compared classrooms displaying high intellectual quality with those displaying low intellectual quality. They found that both high and low achievers benefited significantly from high intellectual quality teaching. This means that authentic intellectual tasks are useful and productive not only for special groups of students, but also for all student groups and abilities in the classroom.

One of the key procedures of authentic pedagogy and associated tasks, if they are to be defined as quality teaching, is requiring that received knowledge be presented as

problematic. 'Presenting knowledge as problematic involves an understanding of knowledge not as a fixed body of information, but rather as being constructed, and hence subject to political, social and cultural influences and implications' (University of Queensland, 2001, p.5).

This requirement has implications for teacher-student interactions and language use. It is clear that the interaction process between teachers and students needs basic communication skills, relying fundamentally on all uses of language: writing, reading, speaking and listening. For students to receive appropriately authentic teaching of the dilemmas associated with received knowledge, language use must move to centre stage. The University of Queensland (2001) report states that 'students should be taught a vocabulary for talking about language, that is, a comprehensive and consistent metalanguage, to make instructional practices and assessment expectations explicit, and to enable students to 'name', deconstruct and critique forms of spoken language' (University of Queensland, 2001, p.7). Such a method gives students the ability to vocalise and investigate dilemmas both within and outside the classroom.

The social interaction between teachers and students, and students with each other, in the instruction process is conceived in authentic pedagogy as giving the teacher the role of scaffolder. This scaffolding is the cornerstone of Vygotsky's theory, which is mainly devoted to building 'zone of proximal development' (Driscoll, 2005, p.254). 'Each zone stretches from the student's current level of competence to a level requiring greater understanding, which he can shortly reach with the help of other people and learning aids' (Darling-Hammond, 1997, p.130). In this process, the quality teacher guides their students by presenting the lesson or the subject in a clear and meaningful manner, using words that allow students to talk and to express their internal thinking, which also help them to develop their conceptual learning (Darling-Hammond, 1997). In this sense Meier (1995) stated that 'teaching is mostly listening and learning is mostly telling' (p.xi).

One of the most significant developments in the teaching-learning process in the last century was the influence of the concept of constructivism. According to this theory, quality teaching occurs when the teachers 'structure learning environments and activities to help learners construct understanding rather than just absorb knowledge' (Killen, 2005, p.7). As mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, the learning process is influenced by different factors. According to constructivists, these factors can be: 'the student's prior

knowledge...; the social context of values, expectations, rewards, and sanctions in which the information is initially communicated and later expressed by the student; and the student's self-monitoring in the process of learning. In short, the students are constantly working to make sense of what they encounter' (Newmann et al., 1996, p.285). To facilitate such learning processes, teachers are supposed to take into account the students' prior knowledge. As long as the students have different ways of thinking, the teachers should give them an opportunity for higher-order thinking rather than converging the body of information in a superficial way. Teachers should give students various opportunities, to express themselves, such as by writing or conversation. The teacher is considered to be a 'coach, facilitator, guide, or mentor in a "cognitive apprenticeship" who inspires and nudges the student to do the active work of learning', and, teachers and students are supposed to 'exemplify norms of collaboration, trust, and high expectations for intellectual accomplishment' (Newmann et al., 1996, pp.285-286). Killen (1998) feels that teachers need to perform the following steps to be cognitively clear and thus scaffold learning. The effective teacher:

- needs to tell the students what the teacher wants them to know or achieve by the end of the lesson

- presents the lesson step–by-step and with good organization

- presents the lesson at an acceptable pace

- explains every point about which the students may be unclear and asks the students about anything not understood

- explains by using suitable examples and emphasises the main points

- reviews or summarises the lesson and gives the meaning for new words

- gives the students time to understand new information and to answer any question

- ensures the students' understanding by asking questions and finally summing up the main points in the lesson.

Constructivist-based lessons have been described as lessons that 'are designed and sequenced to encourage learners to use their own experiences to actively construct meaning that makes sense to them rather than to acquire understanding through exposure to a format organized by the teacher' (Steffe and Gale, 1995 cited in Borich 2000, p.201).

Classroom Management and Organization

Classroom management means 'the actions and strategies teachers use to solve the problem of order in classrooms' (Doyle, 986, p.397). Burden and Byrd (2003) feel that '[c]lassroom management involves teacher actions to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation' (p.235). An effective teacher, therefore, will be able to manage any new situation and solve a variety of problems. If the problem arises from students' behaviour or other problems in the classroom, then the effective teacher uses the time in a beneficial way in order to keep the students engaged in learning; as a result students will not find the time for inappropriate behaviour.

Burden and Byrd (2003) mention seven areas of responsibility for classroom management: teachers are supposed to find specific ways to manage their classroom in terms of discipline; quality teachers are meant to give attention to objects in the classroom and order the physical environment; they need to create a secure atmosphere for learning by managing students' behaviour; they need to create a cooperative, responsible classroom by establishing a good relationships with the students using creative ways to motivate learning and reinforce acceptable behaviour; quality teachers need to use every available strategy to facilitate the lesson; teachers have the responsibility for preparing students emotionally before starting the lesson; and quality teachers manage and activate their relationship with parents, colleagues, and other people involved in the teaching and learning process. Most of all, management is strongly underpinned by organization. Stronge (2002) states '[t]he teacher who is organized in terms of routines, behaviors, and materials typically is better prepared for class and sets an example of organization for students that supports their organization for learning' (p.28). It is been regarded that organization contributes to effective teaching 'by freeing up as much as an extra hour per week from administrative or lost time that can be used as instructional time' (Stronge, 2002, p.28). In a study, Warren (2000) found that quality teachers are able to accommodate individual needs of their students, are able to create a motivating learning environment, are flexible in their teaching and classroom organization strategies, and are dedicated to maintaining accessible learning resources. An effective teacher is then an effective manager. This manager is able to deal with any problems in their classroom, even if the problem arises from the students' behaviour, arise between students, between students and teacher, between teacher and parents, or from the nature of the lesson and/or teaching strategies.

Engagement

The other important factor for authentic pedagogy is the nature of student engagement. Engagement has been defined as: students making a 'psychological investment in and effort directed toward learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge, skills, or crafts that academic work is intended to promote' (Newmann, 1992, p.12). Furthermore, it has been argued that engagement in the learning process means that a maximum amount of time is spent by students on the learning task. Borich (2000) suggests some strategies for keeping students engaged in the learning process, such as establishing rules by which students can regulate their activities and their behaviour themselves rather than constantly relying on the teacher, using resources that help the teacher keep the students engaged most the time, and making the teaching-learning process more enjoyable. However, it is essential to indicate that not all kinds of engagement can be productive. For example, some students who are low achievers may engage physically or emotionally or behaviourally but not intellectually in the teaching-learning process. Authentic productive engagement leads to an acceptable level of achievement and benefits for students in real life and produces quality work displaying intellectual application (Newmann, 1992).

Engagement, like any other human action, can be influenced by context. Such influence can be internal or external to the student. The internal factors include students' subject-specific interests, which may be engaged and extended by teachers presenting material in a particular way (Newmann, 1989). Another internal factor is the degree of dependence of students on others' work rather than their own. This can be overcome by giving them the opportunity to produce individual knowledge (Newmann, 1989). External factors, such as social support from teachers, parents, peers and the community outside the school, can show that engagement is valued and that academic achievement is worthwhile (Newmann, 1989).

Student engagement can be reinforced by a suitable environment of social and cultural support in the classroom. The three main indicators of cultural support are teachers paying attention to the students, students building friendships in the classroom regardless of the diversity of their backgrounds, and students respecting each other (Adas, 1986; Alton-Lee, 2003; Marks, Doane, & Secada, 996). At the classroom level, the three key social supports are building an atmosphere of cooperation between students in their intellectual

work, cooperation between students and the teacher in intellectual tasks, and the teacher having an expectation that all students work productively (Marks et al., 1996).

Insofar as the teaching-learning process is construed as an interactive process occurring between teachers and students, then every component of the school-community has to be engaged in this process. Most importantly, the teacher is required to be involved and engaged fully with their students through 'planning and developing lessons and the curriculum, and teaching through describing, explaining, helping, listening, reflecting, encouraging, and evaluating' (Louis & Smith, 1992, p.120).

Students' Self Regulation, Direction, Knowledge and Instructional Variety

Students displaying self-regulation would mean that the teacher spends the least time possible in regulating students' behaviour. Giving students opportunities to regulate their behaviour provides them with a sense of responsibility for their behaviour, rather than letting all responsibility rest with the teacher. Some scholars believe that students have both the ability and willingness to control their behaviour and that the teacher's role is to have students gain satisfaction from regulating their behaviour when performing their learning tasks (Glasser, 1986; Meichenbaum & Biemiller, 1998). Therefore, the teacher's role is to make the tasks interesting, enjoyable and engaging so they meet students' internal demands. But there are also external demands influencing self-regulation. Some students, for example, work hard because they want be a remarkable individual in the community or because they want to keep their parents pleased with their achievement. Nevertheless, these external factors probably become internalised to some degree and may therefore be considered internal psychological factors.

Learning by the students can occur independently. Students can direct their learning at both external and internal levels. Learning can be regulated by external and internal factors, but when students feel they have some control over those factors they may associate this sense of control with their achievement (Zimmerman, 1989). McCaslin and Good state that 'a curriculum that seeks to promote problem solving and meaningful learning must be aligned with an authoritative management system that increasingly allows students to operate as self-regulated and risk-taking learners' (McCaslin & Good, 1992, p. 4 quoted in Groundwater-Smith et al., 1998, p.233). Quality teachers can enhance student self-

regulation by getting students to reflect about the learning process by varying their teaching methods, using different kinds of questions, using different ways to present information, using different teaching materials and tools, and using different types of reinforcement (Killen, 1998). Killen (1998) regards teaching methods that produce successful achievement motivate students by increasing self-esteem and promoting positive attitudes to school, and this 'success encourages further engagement in learning' (p.10). The traditional role of the teacher has been to dominate and determine students' activities in the classroom so that the teacher would be considered the only person who could decide which activities were engaged and when and how students would function in the classroom. This mode of teaching remained a common way of teaching, as mentioned by most teaching studies (Goodlad, 1984). Growing opposition to this meant that a new perspective came to dominate teaching studies: that the students as learners should have the responsibility to determine their own learning (Biggs, 1991). The quality teacher has to question themselves constantly about the time spent on directed learning, as against asking questions and encouraging students to think independently (Borich, 1999). One of the aims of the educational process is to connect the students' background knowledge with new knowledge or information (Bruner, 1960). From a cognitive point of view, quality teaching and learning occurs when the teacher uses and highlights students' background knowledge as a basis for teaching new knowledge. This is called 'scaffolding' (Rosenshine & Meister, 1992, p.26). In providing a framework for improving classroom practice, Tierney and Pearson (1994) state:

> Readers should be encouraged to actively engage their background knowledge prior to, during and after reading. They should be given opportunities to appreciate and evaluate the adequacy of their own perspective and other interpretations, to monitor their own progress through a text, and to discriminate new learnings from old knowledge. (p.496)

An important element in terms of teacher-students interaction is cultural knowledge. This element emphasises the extent to 'which non-dominant cultural knowledges are valued in the classroom' (University of Queensland, 2001, p.23). A quality teacher in a diverse classroom presents knowledge as problematic, teaching students that there are different cultures in the world, including cultures of gender, ethnicity, race, sexuality, disability, language and religion (University of Queensland, 2001). But more 'pragmatic' cultures also need to be understood, such as '...schooling needs, ... interests, ... economic needs, ... politics' (Nakata, 1995, p.49). Students from different groups have different

perceptions, views and experiences. These elements should be taken into account by the teacher and the curriculum in order to give different groups opportunities to contribute to and access decision-making processes at the school level or in the other levels of the education system (Connell, 1993). Making the students' cultural knowledge accessible to, and understood by, teachers necessitates cooperation between the home and the school, whereby the teachers can meet the parents frequently and discuss issues relating to the students' cultural background (Delgado-Gaitan, 1996). This interaction will ultimately be a positive influence on the process of quality teaching.

In any teaching-learning process the knowledge across subject areas should be integrated to make learning meaningful for students. A quality teacher makes sure that whatever they teach is integrated into a bigger picture and helps students to connect what they learn with other subject areas or aspects of their lives (Beane, 1993, 1995). This curriculum integration allows students 'to integrate learning experiences into their schemes of meaning so as to broaden and deepen their understanding of themselves and their world' (Beane, 1995, p.616) and allows them to use the knowledge in the 'context of problems, interests, issues, and concerns at hand' (p.616). In summary, the quality teacher helps students to achieve specific skills, provides them with relevant knowledge, and helps them to work towards planned purposes (Killen, 1998).

Including all students in the mainstream classroom, regardless of their abilities and socio-cultural backgrounds and giving them an opportunity to participate in classroom activities, is an important factor or element in the quality teaching process (Jorgensen, 1998; Thomas, Walker, & Webb, 1998). Classrooms that include an obvious diversity of disability, race, gender, sexuality, and/or ethnicity (Malin, 1995; Smyth, Hattam, & Lawson, 1998) are reported to have a positive influence on students' academic and social outcomes (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939).

Connectedness runs in concert with inclusiveness, focusing on how the students' knowledge acquired in the classroom is connected to the world beyond the classroom and with the utility of this knowledge for the students in their present and future pursuits. Such teaching strategies have been emphasised in Dewey's and Bruner's work (Bruner, 1960; Dewey, 1916). Smith, Lee and Newmann (2001) also found that interactive teaching

methods that include connectedness, along with other intellectual factors, have a significant correlation with learning in mathematics and reading.

All this can be seen as dealing with a long-running concern with the way teachers present their subjects; that this has to be more attractive to hold students' attention, especially when dealing with the core knowledge and skills of the subject. In some cases a quality teacher has to teach their subject as a narrative, that is, in a story-telling mode. In the teaching context, the teacher shares both their own and their students' stories about learning, taking note of events, contexts, actions or experiences related to the focus of the topic being taught at any point. Such a technique enhances learning and increases the understanding of ideas, concepts and/or situations as an unfolding story (Hymes, 1996; Luke, 1988). Egan (1988; 1997) argues that teaching through story telling is an important strategy for learning and can be effective in both the sciences and humanities, but it means not simply selecting curriculum content for narrative form, but also developing an interactive and participative relationship in the classroom in developing the narrative. Narrative can play the central role in teaching specific groups of non-mainstream learners. For example, indigenous children are thought to learn better through story telling, especially when the narratives have connections to their communities and their moral and oral traditions (Christie, 1985). Therefore, to make teaching more interesting and enjoyable, quality teachers need to teach knowledge and skills simply and effectively, and approach this as a contextualised form of story telling that connects closely with and is familiar to students' daily lives and experiences. Also the quality teacher works as facilitator and guide for their students and encourages them to regulate and direct their learning and actions.

Evaluation

Evaluation or assessment has an important role in the teaching-learning process. Teachers in the classroom need to evaluate or assess what they have been doing and planning and whether their planning has been successful. Evaluation gives 'information and insight' about the students and the lessons presented. Administrative matters, such as 'staffing and school organization' also need to be equally assessed and evaluated. This resultant information can lead to 'adjusting and modifying, accepting or rejecting' plans and organization (Groundwater-Smith & Nicoll 1980, p.1). Assessment or evaluation can be

qualitative or quantitative, but its importance is twofold. Firstly, it gives students' parents information about their children' progress, and secondly it gives the teachers good feedback about themselves, about their teaching methods and the extent of the effectiveness of their teaching strateg es (Pollard & Tann, 1993).

An effective school monitors and evaluates both the inputs and the outputs of the teaching-learning process, allowing judgements about the usefulness and applicability of teaching methods. Monitoring and evaluation are regarded as the main determinants in a school's effectiveness and improvement. In schools that have high standards, teaching and learning are frequently evaluated by focusing on the students' progress and needs. Many kinds of assessments and scales are used in education to give feedback to the teachers, administrators, principal, and the parents, that is, to all those who are involved and concerned about the students' learning and performance. Walker and Murphy state that effective schools have 'frequent in-class monitoring [around curricular objectives]...tied to immediate direct feedback to students ... [preventing] students from falling behind' (Walker & Murphy, 1986, p.81). The students are shown that what they learn is important and staff can use the tests for 'instructional and curricular planning' (p.81). Accountability is enhanced when staff, students and parents are integrated into the assessment procedures. There is no doubt about the important role of assessment or evaluation in the teaching-learning process. But there is debate and the controversy is about what sort of assessment.

The considerable debate about assessment developed from the work of Nemmann and others; they called for 'authentic assessment' (Killen, 2005; King et al., 2001, p.1; Newmann et al., 2001). Authentic assessment requires deep knowledge rather than using superficial assessment, such as 'true false, multiple choice, or short answers' (King et al., 2001, p.3). Newmann and Associate s. (1996), in their research on mathematics and social studies teaching, called for assessment tasks from teachers to determine students' understanding and mastering of the subjects being taught. They asked for the assessment tasks to be written work and 'teachers provided tasks that asked students to write opinion essays, explain solutions to mathematics problems, synthesize research data, draw maps and mathematical diagrams, and complete short-answer tests' (Newmann & Associates, 1996, p.28).

In conclusion, evaluation is important not just for students but also for teachers and parents and for the education authorities. Whichever method teachers use for evaluation, it will contribute and reflect positively on the quality of the teaching-learning process.

The NSW Quality Teaching Model and the Relevant Literature

The NSWQT Model is in its third incarnation, produced from a series of reforms incorporated at different stages. The recent form of this model arose from significant cooperation between the NSW Department of Education and Training and Dr James Ladwig and Professor Jennifer Gore from the University of Newcastle (NSW Department of Education, 2003).

The roots of the NSWQT Model were published in 1996 by Fred Newmann and his associates. Their Wisconsin-based research project studied the relationship between what they called 'authentic pedagogy' and student performance. That research arose from reform efforts seeking to increase student performance (Newmann et al., 1996, p.280). The research team created three main categories (or dimensions) for defining student performance for what they declared was authentic pedagogy. These were: the construction of knowledge; disciplined inquiry; and value beyond the school. They recognised that different factors could enhance authentic pedagogy and its associated learning (and this process was conceived as 'quality teaching'). Their underpinning theoretical perspective for this understanding was constructivism, from which they defined criteria for tracking what they called 'authentic academic achievement' (Newmann et al., 1996).

The formative stage providing the basis for what later became the NSWQT Model occurred in Queensland between 1998 and 2000. During this time an extensive observational study of classroom practices was conducted in Queensland schools, the 'Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (QSRLS)', co-directed by James Ladwig of the University of Newcastle and Bob Lingard of the University of Queensland. Their study drew heavily on Newmann's research (Education Queensland, 2001; NSW Department of Education and Training, 2003c; University of Queensland, 2001). Over three years, the Queensland researchers made detailed observations and statistical analyses of 975 classroom lessons in government schools. The study sought to investigate possible correlations between classroom-based management practices and enhanced student social and academic outcomes (Education Queensland, 2001; University of Queensland, 2001).

The resultant model consisted of four dimensions encompassing 20 elements of what these researchers also called 'authentic pedagogy' (Education Queensland, 2001). The study found that the following main factors can influence productive pedagogy and subsequently students' performance: pedagogical practices, assessment practices, teacher attitudes and beliefs, the nature of the professional learning community, the quality of leadership practices, professional development, and system alignment and system support (Education Queensland, 2001). These findings are consistent with the reviewed literature in the preceding sections in this chapter.

In 2003, the model was re-contextualized and reshaped by Dr James Ladwig and Professor Jennifer Gore from the University of Newcastle, in consultation with, and on behalf of, the NSW Department of Education and Training (NSW Department of Education, 2003). This became the NSWQT Model and it was designed to help the NSW Department of Education and Training reach the *National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-first Century*, also known as the *Adelaide Declaration* (1999) (NSW Department of Education and Training, 2003c). In its final form, the NSWQT Model consisted of three dimensions of teaching and learning comprising eighteen elements. The model was developed to be used as a framework for teachers to assess and evaluate, in a collegial manner, their professional practices and needs and to feed this into a professional development program for school improvement in NSW public schools (NSW Department of Education and Training, 2003a).

The model pointedly describes quality teaching as pedagogical practice that consists of eighteen observable elements clustered around three main dimensions. These broad dimensions were termed **intellectual quality, quality learning environment**, and **significance**. A close analysis of the dimensions and their elements found in the NSWQT Model reveals that they were derived from a variety of theoretical perspectives in education. For instance, the dimension of intellectual quality was built on the model of Bloom's taxonomy in teaching and learning (Bloom, 1956), while the element of higher order thinking owes much to Newmann's studies in the social studies teaching and learning context (Newmann, 1991; Newmann & Associates, 1996) and other researchers' work Anyon (1981); Berlak & Berlak (1981); Bernstein (1971a, 1971b, 1973); Castells (2000); Cazden (1992); Connell (1993); Cope & Kalantzis (1995); Darling-Hammond & Youngs (2002); Freebody, Ludwig, & Gunn (1995); Newman, Griffin, & Cole (1990); Westage &

Edwards (1986). The elements of this dimension will be discussed in more detail in chapter five.

The dimension of quality learning environment and its elements reflect ideas and concerns of the research by Anderson & Burrs (1989); Anderson (1994); Barr & Dreeben (1983); Beane (1993); Bernstein (1971a, 1971b, 1990); Biggs (1991); Bredekamp & Rosegrant (1995); Brophy & Good (1986); Cope & Kalantzis (1995); Darling-Hammond (1997); Darling-Hammond & Youngs (2002) Dewey (1916); Doyle (1992); Ginott (1971); Glasser (1986, 1990); Groundwater-Smith et al. (1998); Hooks (1994); Lemke (1990); Newmann (1989); Newmann & Associates (1996); Oakes et al. (1992); Thomas et al. (1998); Willms (2000). In general, it can be said that their research about quality learning environments showed the need for positive, comfortable, fair-minded, and productive interactions between teachers and students, both in the classroom and in the school-community more generally. The elements of this dimension will be discussed in more detail in chapter five.

The dimension of significance has deep roots in the way pedagogy for 'meaningful' learning has been conceptualised: that pedagogy should connect with what students have learnt from 'real life'. It also has been connected to the idea that students construct new knowledge on the basis of, and in connection with, their existing knowledge. This then means that such pedagogy needs to take into consideration the social and cultural diversity at teaching and learning sites. This concept originates in constructivist theory, which asks teachers to elicit students' prior knowledge and experiences to aid the construction of new knowledge on this basis and to connect this knowledge with the students' lives outside the classroom. The elements of this dimension are found collectively in the literature of Bruner (1960, 1966); Christie (1985); Cope & Kalantzis (1995); Darling-Hammond (1997); Dewey (1956); Egan (1988, 1997); Hymes (1996); Luke (1988); Newmann & Associates (1996); Thomas et al. (1998) and others mentioned previously. The elements of this dimension will be explained in more detail in chapter five.

Unfortunately, there have been few theoretical and practical studies of the NSWQT Model since it was developed. One study was conducted by McConaghy (2002) in New South Wales rural schools for a project called 'Productive Partnerships for Teaching Quality' (p.1). The aim of the project was to identify the contextual factors that can influence quality teaching and learning in rural schools in NSW. More precisely, the project sought to explore the extent to which different contexts can influence quality teaching and

learning and the relationship between teachers' academic and professional preparation and students' outcomes in rural schools (McConaghy, 2002).

In her theoretical framework, McConaghy compared three versions of the quality teaching model and connected those with the framework created for the Productive Partnerships for Teaching Quality project. This was done to compensate for the perceived limitations and problems of the previous versions of the quality teaching model. Although McConaghy acknowledged the contributions of the Wisconsin project and the Queensland research, she was more concerned with the applicability of the model to NSW rural schools (McConaghy, 2002).

This concern is quite reasonable when researching the transfer of a model of quality teaching to a different context. The crucial factor for McConaghy was that the original Wisconsin Authentic Pedagogy Model was created in and was potentially biased towards its urban context (McConaghy, 2002) She went to say,

> We consider that models of schooling reform need to pay more attention to teacher subjectivities, socio-spatial dynamics; the time of teaching; and the teaching of difficult knowledges. We also consider it necessary to rethink school-community dynamics and the place of quality teacher education in models that specify conditions for quality student attainment in rural schools. (p.9)

McConaghy's analysis revealed that the original model did not include the community in the 'circle' of teaching and learning and did not consider the social and political contexts of the teaching and learning sites in which the research was conducted. It neglected the background factor of the academic and professional preparation of the teachers in the study (McConaghy, 2002). Ultimately, however, to have a reasonably comprehensive model for assessing teaching and learning practices to act as a platform for research is better than having no paradigm at all. As Ladwig (2005) states, 'we should be very upfront and say that you cannot improve pedagogy without having some model of pedagogy as your guide, or your goal' (p.71).

Moreover, the usefulness of the model arises in part from the situation that the model in its first Newmannesque manifestation was part of a sophisticated remedial strategy to be used to reinvigorate and reconstruct American national pedagogies to enable students' to enter a new era prepared with intellectual and social skills developed through an 'authentic' process (Ladwig, 2004; Newmann, 1989; Newmann & Associates, 1996; Newmann et al., 1996). From this, the model was further developed, re-contextualized, and its limitations

74

and other issues addressed in the form of the Productive Pedagogy Framework, using data collected by Gore et al. from the model's application in the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (Education Queensland, 2001; Gore, 2001; Hays, Lingard, & Mills, 2000; Lingard, 2000; Lingard, Mills, & Hayes, 2000; NSW Department of Education and Training, 2003c; University of Queensland, 2001). Therefore, the model was 'domesticated... [and] reinvigora[ted]' (McConaghy, 2006, p.332) in the Queensland context through the longitudinal study.

Similarly, in NSW the model was 'domesticated' through the practical and theoretical reviews undertaken by academics from the University of Newcastle and professionals in the NSW Department of Education and Training (NSW Department of Education and Training, 2003c). Researchers drawn from different disciplines studied the model's practical application. Formosa and Dixon (2004) conducted a study aimed at exploring the degree of congruence between the model and the day-to-day teaching practices utilised with children with moderate intellectual disabilities. Using qualitative methods in data collection and analysis, they examined the activities of one teacher located in a support unit in a primary school on the South Coast of NSW. The data were collected over four months. On the one hand, the study found that there was a little congruence between the dimensions of intellectual quality and significance and their 12 elements and the realities of teaching children with moderate intellectual disabilities. On other hand, it was found the dimension of quality learning environment and its elements had significant congruence with the realities of the day-to-day teaching practices noted.

In environmental education, Loughland (2006) conducted a PhD study to investigate 'the relationship between students' understanding of the environment and the pedagogy of environmental education' (p.11). The study used the model 'as a theoretical framework of analysis in order to examine the data from the perspective of student performance in relation to current understandings of what constitutes good pedagogy practice' (p.v). Hence, the model used in this study as an instrument to measure classroom practices and indicate the model's reliability, validity and effectiveness for this type of research.

Johnson and Cupitt (2004) conducted a mathematics study funded by the premier program in NSW that assists schools which have a high percentage of students from a low socio-economic-status background. This program is called the 'NSW Priority Schools Funding Program (PSFP)' (p.2). The study involved teachers in four primary schools. The

researchers found that the NSWQT Model connected well with their collaborative research approach. Furthermore, the model and its elements created a common language for working with mathematical processes. They incorporated many elements from the model to support PFSP mathematics teachers.

In socio-cultural research, the model has been recommended as an effective framework for best practice for boys' education in terms of its recognition of the need to understand social diversity and differences and their impact in real life (Keddie, 2005). In Keddie's (2005) framework, she suggests that using the model's conceptualisation of productive pedagogy can be beneficial for building the relationship between teachers and students, to empower students' understanding of gender and masculinity, and to open their horizons to diversity and varying gender roles. She argues that teachers should implement the model's elements as productive themes to teach boys the deep meaning and significance of gender and masculinity within a context of social justice, rather than deal with these themes in a traditional way. Keddie feels that such clear understandings eventually will be reflected productively in social and academic outcomes.

Researchers from the University of Newcastle and their colleagues at the New South Wales Department of Education and Training recently began a four-year longitudinal study of the links between teachers' professional development, pedagogy, and student achievement. This project is called SIPA: Systematic Implications of Pedagogy and Achievement in NSW Public Schools (Ladwig & Gore, 2005, p.26). The research aims to analyse the efficacy of the NSWQT Model. The grades participating in the project are upper primary, from Years 3 to 6; a transitional cohort, from Years 5 to 8, and a lower secondary cohort, from Years 7 to 10 (Ladwig & Gore, 2005, p.29). Data are collected through classroom observation, measures of learning, and assessment tasks for students. The sample consists of 3000 students and 36 000 samples of students' work. Furthermore, 1000 teachers from 40 schools will be interviewed (Ladwig & Gore, 2005, p.29). This study is, probably, the largest and most comprehensive study conducted since the latest version of the model was developed.

Therefore, the model has been and continues to be elaborated by scholars and practitioners from different disciplines in an ongoing research partnership process that includes other education-system stakeholders. It has been examined at both school and classroom sites where the model has been taken seriously by participants. However, the model has not

been tested outside the borders of Australia or America in terms of testing its applicability in a school and social culture that can be seen in some ways to be quite different from the cultures of these developed industrialised societies. This is the main aim of the current study.

Since the main aim of this study is to examine the applicability of the NSWQT Model, it is necessarily to acknowledge and discuss the cultural sensitivity associated with any education reform particularly in the case of Jordan. The reason for that is to establish a kind of recognition of the cultural differences before any attempt of comparing, applying or implementing different models of quality teaching cross culturally. These issues are discussed bellow.

Education Reform and Cultural Sensitivity

Globalisation and its accompanying processes are changing the ideas that have informed the new movement in education systems around the world. The most significant process of globalisation is the opening of borders allowing political, economic, social and educational ideas to move more freely between countries. Education authorities in countries such as Jordan and Australia have recognised that globalisation is a force for change and that education systems need to be reformed to take into account the new internationalising phenomenon.

The effects of globalisation, however, are disputed. Some commentators have felt that globalisation provides an opportunity for 'fresh blood' and significant reform for whole education systems (Alshurfat, 2003) but others have felt that globalisation is not a force for unmitigated good if education systems rapidly feel its full impact. Thus, there are still some issues to be considered in reforms encouraged under the rubric of 'globalisation'.

This is not the place to discuss in great detail the political and economic arguments for introducing education reforms raised by governments under the sway of globalisation. Two issues set in train by globalisation will be discussed below: that a particular process of education reform appears to be encouraged by globalisation, and the issue of cultural compatibility of education reforms when transferred from one global site to another.

It has been argued that, whether in the era of globalisation or previously, many attempts at education reform have failed (Alshurfat, 2003). Different researchers attribute this failure to different causes. Beeby (1966) suggests that ambiguity in achieving educational goals can arise from teacher resistance, f teachers consider themselves to have been 'de-prioritized' as stakeholders when changes are made by authorities without consultation. Teachers in most cases refuse to abide by changes when they feel marginalised by those who initiate them (Brady, 1987; Morrish, 1976). They sometimes feel threatened by changes because they believe that these will jeopardize their traditional way of teaching and related 'professionalism'. The more teachers are attached to tradition and the more they perceive change to be disruptive of that tradition, the more they react against subsequent acceptance of implemented changes (Smylie, 1991).

While interest groups such as politicians, teachers, administrators and parents have their own attitudes toward and perspectives on, reform (Alshurfat, 2003; Fullan, 1993), the chief responsibility for explaining reform in democratic societies lies with leading politicians who need to convince these groups of the benefits of change rather than blaming them for failure. At the same time that politicians lead reform, such top-down reform creates dilemmas and hurdles for educational change. Such reform processes can create feelings among lesser participants of neglect, of being rendered voiceless and of having their concerns dismissed *because* they are teachers (Hargreaves, 1994). Therefore, the teacher's role in education reform is vital and only they can bring about all the aspects intended by reforms, especially in crucial areas such as curriculum planning and implementation (Alshurfat, 2003; Clark, 1995). Another possible reason for the failure of education reform is the lack of understanding by authorities of the uniqueness and sensitivity of particular cultures. Masemann defines culture as:

> ... all the aspects of life, including the mental, social, linguistic, and physical forms of culture. It refers to ideas people have, the relationships they have with others in their families and with larger social institutions, the languages they speak, and the symbolic forms they share, such as written language or art/music forms. t refers to their relationship with their physical surroundings as well as the technology that is used in any society. (Masemann, 1999, p.116)

This definition proposes that each culture in its geographic place has its unique attributes. The way people think and act differs from group to group not only across cultures but also within that culture. Education is immersed in particular cultures and it should not be assumed that something called 'education' in all its aspects exists separately from

particular cultures. Investigating any aspect of education without acknowledging the cultural context of that 'education' can jeopardise the usefulness of such investigations (Masemann, 1999). Examples of cultural conflict in education need not simply be between different 'national' cultures. Masemann finds such conflict arising from incompatibility across a broad swathe of groupings, 'from the growing numbers of home schoolers who resist state domination of education systems, from religious and linguistic minorities, from feminists, from philosophical alternative schools, and from aboriginal and indigenous minorities worldwide' (Masemann, 1999, p.130). The aspects of cross-cultural perspectives of education probably appeared in the work of cognitive psychologists who tried to examine the applicability of different psychological theories to different cultures (Dasen, 1974; Dasen & Heron, 1981; Irvine & Berry, 1988; Keats & Keats, 1988; Pick, 1980). From these studies, it can be concluded that the way in which people think, perceive, and interpret the world around them is influenced by physical and social structures (McInerney & McInerney, 1994) and this can be found clearly in the education context. In recent years, education reform programs initiated by industrialised countries have been exported to less-developed countries. Keeping in mind the above-mentioned researchers' perspectives, it could be assumed that these reform programs may be difficult to establish in different cultures and that they would only work effectively in the same or similar cultures.

Some developing countries that have borrowed reform programs have found the results not up to expectations. The case of Jordan's education reforms and their context are examined in more detail in chapters two and five. The content of these reforms shifted pedagogy from being teacher-centred to student-centred. This trend in education emanated from the rediscovery in the 1970s of the educational philosophies of 'Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Steiner, Montessori, and Dewey' (Masemann, 1999), such eclecticism being seen as legitimate in an era of postmodernism. These philosophers, however, all developed their thinking about education from specific (and sometimes large) communities with particular cultures. Therefore, caution is required when trying to implement educational changes resting on these philosophers' paradigms of pedagogy. It would appear that the best way to implement changes derived from one culture into another is to first intimately compare elements of the foreign approach with what already exists in the target culture. When this is done thoroughly and systematically, then it may be possible to select the appropriate elements from the foreign reform program for implementation in the new context. This study sought to do just that: to examine the extent of applicability of a model of quality pedagogy derived from a different culture to a new target cultural context.

Theoretical Framework and the Research Questions

From the literature review, it can be concluded that the quality teaching process is complex and has multiple aspects. Many questions can be asked, such as, 'Where does quality teaching occur?', 'What factors influence quality teaching?', 'When does quality teaching occur?', 'How does quality teaching occur?', and 'Who is involved in the quality teaching process?' A summary in lieu of answers to these questions was provided in the literature review and serves to illustrate that assessing the nature of quality teaching precisely is far from simple. This is not least because of the difficulty of judging the exact nature of the relationship between teaching and learning conditions, the motivations and contributions of stakeholders, and the influence of the broader context. Nevertheless, a few general comments can be made about some consensual and contextual aspects that appear among the multifarious descriptions of, and prescriptions for, quality teaching, especially their broad agreement on what may be termed a constructivist interpretation of the basis for quality teaching.

Quality teaching takes place fundamentally within the interaction between teachers and students. While many people may be peripherally involved in producing or supporting quality teaching, nevertheless, the main stakeholders are teachers and principals. Quality teaching occurs when favourable conditions and contexts allow the fullest interactive expression of these stakeholders' interests. Following from this, a constructivist interpretation would state that quality teaching occurs as a result of the productive interaction between teachers and students.

In moving from broad theory to the practice of modern education systems, such as in Australia and Jordan, it is clear that the quality of teaching is influenced strongly by three layers of authority: the politics of education, the school context, and teaching practices. The current investigation focuses on four sites to assess the impact of this layering of authority: the Jordanian MOE's description of quality teaching, the New South Wales Department of Education and Training's model of quality teaching, the school stakeholders' perspectives of quality teaching, and the teaching and learning practices.

The Jordanian MOE's conception of quality teaching will be explored through official documents and comments. Exploring these stakeholders' conceptions of quality teaching is very important. These prepare for and then develop a teaching process, a learning process, a teaching and learning process (as teacher-student interaction), and a governance process

(in the official documents). To set some basis for comparison, the NSWQT Model of quality teaching and the Jordanian MEO's conceptions will be analysed as official documents and used in the comparison of practices. School stakeholders' perception of quality teaching will be determined from interviews and used in comparison with the perceptions of the MOE and NSWQT Model. All of that will be used also in comparison with classroom practices.

It can be assumed that stakeholders with a sufficient understanding of what counts as quality teaching could be a main part of the quality teaching and learning process. Therefore, an assessment was made of the consistency in the understanding of quality teaching among the participants in the investigation. In the current investigation of quality teaching in Jordan, there are two authorities central to the preparation and propagation of a consistent understanding of quality teaching: the MOE as a legislative and policy body, and principals and teachers as implementers. It would be expected that both of these authorities should have a common understanding of quality teaching; otherwise the discrepancy may undermine attempts to implement a certain conception of quality teaching. It becomes inevitable to ask the following questions: How does the Jordanian MOE describe quality teaching? How do school stakeholders describe quality teaching?

In order to explore the practical application of the expressed notions of quality teaching, it was essential to observe the participants' actions within the teaching-learning process. Any inconsistencies or disparities between notions and practices of quality teaching may then point towards the need to consider a common and joint understanding of quality teaching. Therefore, the following questions have evolved: What are the students' actions in the classroom? What are the teachers' actions in the classroom? What are the interactions between the teachers and the students? Since it is expected that there may be at least some disparity between conceptions and practices of quality teaching in these Jordanian classrooms, then another officially-endorsed model can be used as part of the comparison and, indeed, the Jordanian situation can be used reflexively to assess the applicability of the new model's conception of quality teaching. The NSWQT Model of quality teaching will be used in this way, both as an alternative guide for assessing quality teaching and to be scrutinised itself as an adequate model for assessing a teaching and learning and the contextual situation that may not fully conform to its hypothesized or presumed teaching-learning relationships. Consequently, the following questions have emerged: How is quality teaching defined in the model? Can elements of the NSWQT Model's conceptions

of quality teaching be identified in the Jordanian teachers' actions? Can elements of the NSWQT Model's conceptions of quality learning be identified in the Jordanian students' actions? Can the operations of the NSWQT Model be identified in the interactions between these teachers and students?

In conclusion, the current investigation deals with a potential controversy by examining closely the relationship between the Jordanian MOE's conception of quality teaching and the classroom practices that may flow from this and by assessing these classroom practices from the perspective of the NSWQT Model. This investigation will assess the extent of the applicability of the NSWQT Model in terms of its applicability to produce quality teaching in the way valued by the Jordanian Ministry's conception and the classroom practices of quality teaching. The purpose of this investigation is to answer the main research question: To what extent can the NSW Department of Education and Training's model of quality teaching be applied in the context of Jordanian primary schools? As it was explained in the literature, quality teaching can be discussed and understood in its context. As shown in Figure 3.1 and discussed in this chapter, this context consists of three main clustered dimensions: education policy, school context and teaching and learning practices. The conceptual map that guided this study is shown in Figure 3.1.
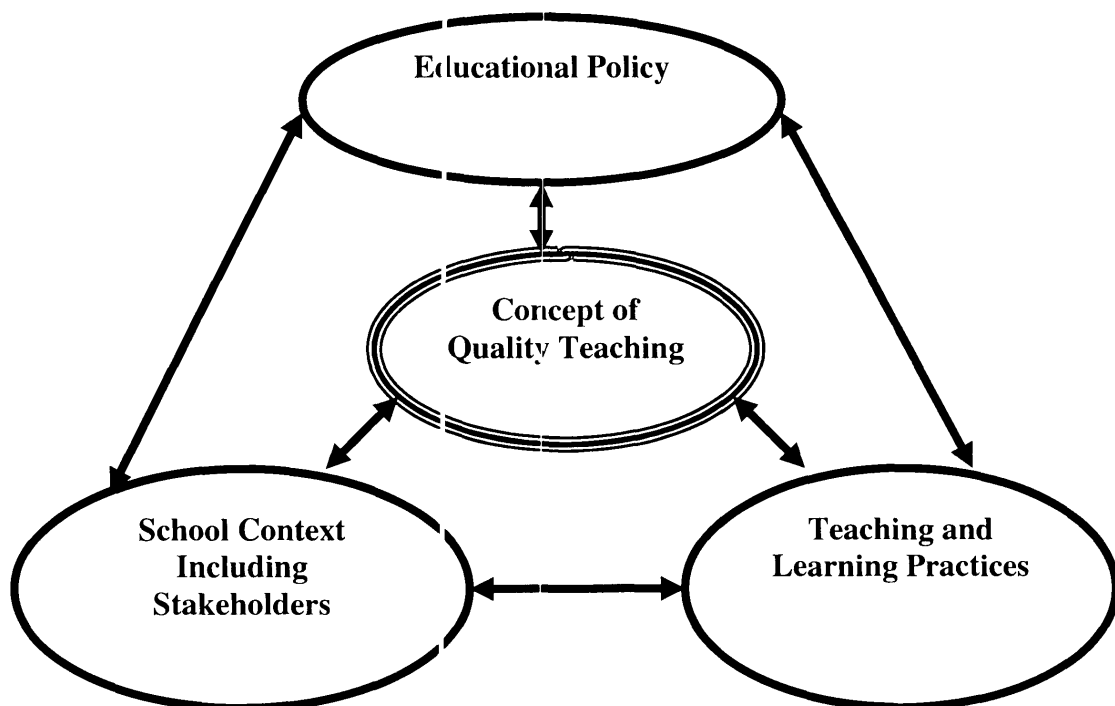

Figure 3.1: The Conceptual Map for the Study

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the literature review provides a context for the current investigation. It shows that the concept of quality teaching has different meanings in different contexts. Researchers have noted that the concept of quality teaching is illusive and complex, with the discussion and the practices of quality teaching and learning revolving around context. The concept and practices of quality teaching can be only discussed, and can only function, within a specific context. This context, as the literature suggests, has three main sub-contexts: education policy, the school, and the classroom teaching and learning practices. The literature describes and deals with elements of quality teaching and learning superficially and within a limited cultural context, with scarce information about the applicability of quality teaching models in different cultural contexts.

Connecting educational policy and practices is essential in any education reform. As the education system in Jordan moves toward a new era in education reform, it still confronts unsolved educational issues. One of these issues is the quality teaching and learning policy and practices. This study seeks to help the MOE by describing the current situation in terms of the concept of quality teaching at the policy and practices level and to present a model of quality teaching after that model's applicability is/has been tested in to the Jordanian context.

This chapter started with the definition of the concept of quality teaching and then moved to discuss the context of quality teaching and learning. The framework extracted from the discussion of this context in the literature has been organised around three main clustered dimensions (explained above). Furthermore, a brief overview of education reform and cultural differences has been presented, with literature relating to the NSWQT Model highlighted. Finally the theoretical framework which led this study has been presented. The next chapter presents the methodology design that guided this study.