

**Analysis of INSET Policy and Provision  
for  
Second Level Teachers in the Nineties**

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## Summary Page

In-service education for teachers (INSET) is necessary to support them in their careers and to achieve the goals of educational reform. This research explores and analyses the policy developed by the Department of Education on INSET and its implementation for teachers in second level schools in the nineties. Policy analysis requires that the changing societal context of the policy process be considered.

The research methodology included desk research and interview. The former involved the study and interpretation of published and unpublished primary and secondary sources. Informal interviews were conducted with people in key roles in the Department and in the Support Services. Based on the review of the literature a framework was devised of the best national and international practice for INSET, and the provision in Ireland during the nineties was analysed with reference to that framework.

The research findings describe and discuss the extensive policy process during the nineties. The process was participative and consultative, moving educational policy formation from the preserve of a small number of decision makers to a more inclusive broad partnership model.

The research findings show a wide range of models of INSET and a multiplicity of providers. Progression in the development of INSET models is also evident with the Support Service model staffed mainly by seconded teachers, designing and providing INSET both school based and out of school. There have been a number of models of extended courses, of third level courses and of joint initiatives between schools and third level colleges. Funding for INSET increased thirteen fold by 2000 from a very small base in 1990. Some of the structures recommended in the White Paper have been established, and these are described. While policy is articulated for INSET, there is still the need for strategic planning, guided by best practice, to ensure that INSET extends personal education and professional competence, through improved understanding of educational principles and techniques.

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# **Analysis of INSET Policy and Provision for Second Level Teachers in the Nineties**

## **Introduction**

### **The Changing Context for INSET**

It is widely recognised that in-service education for teachers is necessary to support them in their careers as effective teachers and to achieve the goals of educational reform (OECD, 1991,101). Teacher development and improved education provision in schools are interdependent (Fullan, 1991, 315). Hence, teacher development benefits not only the individual, but also the education system (ibid). It is in the best interest of the education system to provide well focused in-service education.

The last decade of the twentieth century in Ireland was a period of economic and social change and of major educational policy development. At an economic level the improved economic circumstances resulted from increased integration into the world economy, which brought greater economic growth and increased the impact of globalisation in the country (Nolan et al. 2000, 1). Opportunities and living standards improved but, inequality in terms of social mobility, educational opportunity and risk of poverty remained relatively high (ibid., 352). Changing family life and youth culture reflected changing attitudes and values. Greater awareness of poverty both locally and globally, and of educational disadvantage, increased pressure on the education system to respond by reforming the curriculum and improving both teaching methodologies and assessment.

The teacher was challenged to embrace a changed role with greater emphasis on the socialising and pastoral dimensions of schooling, and the introduction of new subjects and programmes (Coolahan, 1994, 147). Personal, social development and support for students with special needs were becoming more time consuming areas of work for teachers and school management in a society where the family as a social unit is under



great change and stress (Department of Education and Science, (DES) 1999, 48; Coolahan 2000a, 9). The changed role also involved improving partnership with the community which the school serves (Clark,1996, 132; Fullan 1999,45) particularly as part of the new programmes at senior cycle. Greater emphasis was placed on educating for more participatory citizenship (Coolahan, 1994, 148).

The teachers have a key role as mediators between the policy makers and the students. The approach of teachers to this role reflects their professionalism. They are challenged to respond to the social development needs of the students, while also aiming to facilitate students with a wide range of ability to achieve the highest academic standards. The introduction of educational reform, further challenged teachers to keep abreast of the many changes in policy, curriculum content, pedagogy and assessment. The reforms also necessitated the policy makers ensuring that teachers were adequately prepared for the educational reforms.

In the early nineties the extent of change created a sense of overload among teachers (Council of Teachers Unions, 1991, 10). The research sample surveyed, including members of the three teachers' unions, were unanimous in that 'workload' contributed most to high levels of stress (ibid.,10). This continued to be a problem in 2000 as two of the teachers' Unions urged the Minister to allocate resources to tackle the problem within the individual school context (Teachers' Union of Ireland, (TUI) 2000, 7).

Teachers responding to their changing role within an education system which was responding to complex societal changes, is the background to this research.

### **Overall Objectives of the Research**

This research thesis explores and analyses the policy developed by the Department of Education on in-service education and its implementation, for second level teachers, in the nineties. Analysis of the policy and provision involves exploring the changing societal context to which the educational system was responding (Ham and Hill 1993, 18). In this study the changing societal context of the late eighties and early nineties in Ireland, is explored against a framework of major societal changes. The educational policy process is outlined, highlighting the response to societal change. The ensuing policy outcomes for the school and the teacher are described. The many curricular, pedagogical and assessment reforms presented many challenges to the teaching

profession. The Department of Education and Science (DES) in the implementation of its policy has provided a variety of in-service education initiatives. The nature of these initiatives is described and analysed in the context of best practice nationally and internationally.

The research will further the understanding of the policy process on teacher in-service education and the response in the climate of immense change for the teaching profession in the nineties. The conclusions present some recommendations for improved practice in in-service education based on the findings of the research.

In the literature the terms in-career development, professional development and in-service education and training for teachers (INSET) are used interchangeably. In this thesis, the term INSET is most frequently used. The definition of in-service education in the thesis is that accepted by the Committee on In-service Education (CIE) (1984) as originally defined in the James Report, “comprehends the whole range of activities by which teachers can extend their personal education, develop their personal competence and improve their understanding of educational principles and techniques.” (CIE, 1984, 2). This definition encompasses personal development which contributes to ‘self knowledge’ as referred to by Hogan (1987, 40) and professional development which develops skills attitudes and knowledge of a teacher as defined by the OECD (1998, 18). The outcome of INSET impacts on the way teachers work and learn together to achieve instructional and organisational change (Fullan 1991).

### **The Research Methodology**

This research analyses the policy on INSET, in the context of societal change, its implementation in terms of the support structures established, and the nature of the INSET provision. The geographical focus of the research is the Republic of Ireland. The provision for second level teachers in mainstream is the focus of the research, the provision for programmes such as Youthreach, and the Post Leaving Certificate courses are excluded.

The research necessitated two main approaches, desk-research and interviews. The desk research involved the identification and tracking down of written and printed

documentation from a variety of sources. It involved the study of published and unpublished reports, books, papers, and other documentation relevant to the subject. Both primary and secondary sources were read and interpreted. Examples of the primary sources were the government publications on policy, guidelines for programmes for schools, reports from evaluations and from committees. These documents Bell (1993, 68) identified as inadvertent sources which he described as part of the everyday working of the education system, and were not produced deliberately for the attention of researchers. The greatest proportion of the documentation was in this category. Examples of the secondary sources consulted included some journals and books providing interpretations of the primary sources. It was necessary to select and prioritise the documentation in order to contain the work of the research. The desk study provided the theoretical framework containing a broader field of discourse for the analysis of policy and provision of INSET.

Interviews were conducted with a number of people who had key roles in the Department of Education and Science, and in the Support Services as follows:

- Maura Clancy, the Assistant Chief Inspector who was closely involved with the provision of in-service throughout the nineties;
- Paddy Bennis who is the Assistant Principal Officer in the In-Career Development Unit (ICDU) in the Department provided the relevant financial information;
- Gerry Jeffers, lecturer in the Education Department in Maynooth, who was the national co-ordinator of Transition Year until September 2000 discussed the structure of the Support Service and its evaluation;
- Stephen McCarthy, Education officer in the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA), former national co-ordinator of Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) until September 1999, discussed the implementation of CSPE;
- Aidan Clifford the Deputy Director of the Curriculum Development Unit of the City of Dublin Vocational Education Committee.

The informal interviews were conducted to elicit relevant background information and documentation from each of the interviewees on the setting within the broader

empirical field of second level education (Brown and Dowling,1998, 10). Each of the interviews was approximately one hour duration.

The literature search for relevant studies in the nineties produced five significant reports, each of which had addressed aspects of the topic in different years from the Irish perspective. The chief recommendations from these reports form the core of the theoretical framework for the research analysis.

The Eurydice Study (1990) was conducted on behalf of the Commission of the European Union on INSET in the twelve Member States. The NCCA employed the consultancy group CHL in 1991 to evaluate the existing INSET at primary and post primary, and to make recommendations on institutional arrangements and modes of delivery of INSET. The OECD (1991) Report on Irish education, paid particular attention to the policies on teacher education and INSET. Hanafin, Hyland et al (1995) employed by the ICDU presented a report of their findings on the models of in-career development<sup>1</sup>. The fifth report was based on the OECD Study (1998) identifying key issues in INSET at the time of the study among the eight participant countries of the study, including Ireland.

One of the aforementioned studies, the OECD (1991) included an in-depth consideration of the societal context in which the educational changes were occurring. The significance of this thesis is that it presents a review of significant societal changes at the end of the decade, looks at the role of the school system as one of the key mediators of social change, describes and interprets how the Irish education system responded to this change. This study is timely in that it can present an overview of the changes in the nineties, drawing on the range of these other studies as primary sources from 1990 to 1998 to inform the work.

The research process proved to be a continuous and productive process that had to be bound by the time available, in order to complete the report within the deadline.

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<sup>1</sup> The full report was not available, but a paper on the findings is published in Irish Educational Studies 1997.

Chapter 1 of the report maps “The Significance of Societal Change in Ireland in the Nineties” and consequent challenges to the education system in terms of key trends and issues that impacted on the education system. The framework used is based on the identification by Dalin and Rust (1996) of ten significant revolutions in attitudes and power relationships influencing change in society. The origins of a number of changes that were to occur in curricular, pedagogic and assessment procedures can be traced to a response to societal changes.

Chapter 2 focuses on the “Irish Educational Policy Response”, it examines how Irish society set about addressing educational policy in response to the many societal changes in the nineties, broadly outlined in Chapter 1, and in response to the many reports recommending change (OECD, 1991, 74). Key documents that outlined the approach to policy development, stages and processes in developing them are tracked, discussed and the main outcomes for the second level sector are explored. The approach to the provision in each of these areas is explored.

Chapter 3 outlines and analyses the “Development of Policy on INSET” in the light of the extensive programme of change for schools. It sketches the history of the approach from the time of the report from the Committee on In-service Education (1984) to the final policy articulation in the White Paper (1995). The increased funding for INSET provision is discussed. It is argued that the failure to implement recommendations from the CIE (1984) which was reiterated by the OECD (1991) meant that the teaching profession was ill-prepared for the wave of sweeping changes in the nineties.

Chapter 4 documents the “Structures for the Provision of INSET” funded by ICDO for the provision of INSET. It outlines the role of the structures and the extent to which they are addressing the needs as assessed in available evaluations.

Chapter 5 is an “Analysis of INSET” models. Based on a review of the relevant literature a framework is devised from established best practice nationally and internationally. The provision of INSET is analysed with reference to the framework and how it responds to the needs of the teacher in coping with widespread change within the system.

The final section of the thesis is conclusions drawn from the research findings.

# Chapter 1

## Significance of Societal Change in Ireland in the Nineties

### 1.0 Introduction

In the last decade of the twentieth century Ireland experienced rapid political, social, economic, demographic, occupational and cultural change. In 1991 the OECD reported (1991, 16) that the economy had made remarkable recovery with a trade deficit turned to a surplus, interest rates lowered, inflation reduced to the lowest level since the early 1960s. This progress in economic terms continued apace and was paralleled by enormous change in many other sectors of society, including education. Influences for economic, social and educational change came both from within the country and from external global pressures.

In this chapter major influences in societal change in the nineties and consequent challenges to the education system are explored. This is not intended as a definitive study of such change, but dimensions of key trends and issues that impacted on the education system are highlighted. The changes are explored against what Dalin and Rust (1996) identified as ten significant areas influencing societal change. It is argued with supporting evidence that these influences were experienced in Irish society, and that they presented new challenges to the education system.

### 1.1 Major Influences in Societal Change

Dalin and Rust (1996, 31) identified ten revolutions in attitudes, and power relationships that are having and will continue to have a major influences in changing societies. The rate of change, they suggested is more rapid now than in previous decades. The ten areas driving change are classified as follows:

1. Knowledge and information powered by the development of an electronics and global infrastructure;
2. World population increases;

3. Globalisation, meaning the removal of barriers in trade, business and communication creating global flows of goods, people, information, knowledge and images;
4. The social relationships revolution creating new ways of living in a pluralist society;
5. Economic growth featuring multi-national companies, creating new competition and a global economy;
6. Technological advances producing new products and services to solve increasing numbers of problems and concurrently creating new ones;
7. An ecological revolution creating new understandings of life on earth;
8. The aesthetics revolution transforming people's sense of history and bringing artistic and creative interests back into people's lives;
9. The political revolution raising fundamental questions about democracy and minority rights;
10. Values revolution as society becomes more pluralistic (ibid.,31).

While it is useful to interpret change through this classification, there is not a distinct boundary on each area, as each one interacts with and compounds change in other areas. For example, globalisation is greatly influenced and determined by the technological revolution. Nevertheless, these identified areas of societal change provide a useful framework to explore societal change in the last decades of the twentieth century in Ireland. Accordingly, challenges to the educational system are identified and discussed.

### **1.1.1 Advances in Knowledge and Information**

New understandings in the sciences and the consequent developments in the electronic industry have expanded the knowledge base intensely and rapidly. Dalin and Rust consider the current expansion in knowledge production as a paradigm shift, "... is equivalent to a shift from the Newtonian to a quantum physics scientific order." (ibid., 33) Information is disseminated more rapidly to those who have the technology to receive it, to the literate and skilled to use the knowledge. There is an increasing number and diversity of available media, wider access to networks, programmes and services, and abolition of frontiers between media (Balle, 1991).

In responding to rapidly changing information and knowledge it is necessary to equip students to think, ask questions, problem solve, and to use the knowledge to develop understanding and insight. Correspondingly, teachers need to be informed, and skilled in the use of modern technology and information to give access to a wealth of sources of culture and education. As the rate of change increases both teacher and pupil will be learning together. McCaughey (1997, 69) writes of Margaret Mead's tracing of a three stage movement in societal development from what she describes as "post-figurative" in which children learn primarily from their forebears; to 'co-figurative' where both children and adults learn from their peers; to 'pre-figurative' in which adults learn from their children. Teachers exhibit differing responses to these phases in the classroom, some seizing the learning opportunity, others feeling threatened by their knowledge deficit. What kind of pedagogy will facilitate learning in this environment? How can the teacher lead the pupil from knowledge acquisition to greater understanding and application of the knowledge to make sense of the world?

### **1.1.2. Increase in Global Population**

The continuing increase in the world's population Dalin and Rust argue is one of the most serious problems facing future generations (ibid.,35). Populations in the developed countries will show a relatively small increase over time. The rate of population increase in developing countries, although expected to represent 95% of all growth in the next three decades, is now less predictable in recent years because of the AIDS epidemic, with 70% of the total 36.1 million cases in sub-Saharan Africa (UNAIDS, 2001, website). Technological advances in medicine and the health systems will contribute to the decline of disease and consequently to population increase. Population growth in developing countries will influence politics and economics in the coming decades, and it is also likely to increase migrations of people resulting in greater cultural diversity worldwide.

In most of Europe population is on the decline since 1960. Ireland continued to have a very high birth rate until 1980 (Fitzgerald, 2000, 39). The delayed fall in the birth rate has meant that in the mid eighties forty eight percent of the population were under twenty-five years of age (Clancy et al, 1986, 41). Demographic projections showed there would be a decline in pupil enrolments from 1996/1997 in second level schools (Coolahan, 1994, 34). The actual decline was 2% by 1999 (Department of Education



and Science (DES), not dated). The current regulation for compulsory school going until the age of sixteen increased numbers staying on in school.

The impact of demographic changes in education Ireland at second level will be particularly in the closure of some schools and the amalgamation of others, and in increased multi-culturalism in the schools.

### **1.1.3 Globalisation**

Many of the societal changes in recent times, Dalin and Rust (1996) argue are transnational in nature transcending national boundaries. Globalisation relates to many different aspects of life including communication, trade and business, war and peace and human rights.

Globalisation of trade and business is characterised by the growth of transnational companies that account for two thirds of the world's trade (British Government, 2000, 15). Advances in computer and information technology, and in the expanding knowledge base accelerated the process. Its effect is manifested in rapid change, in the transfer of goods and service and changes in the labour market. It raises concerns about the impact of globalisation on national culture, the environment, and inequality between countries and on the marginalised in every society.

Literature on globalisation can be characterised as addressing the issue from the modernist or the post modernist perspective (Kessler, 2000, 932). The modernists' perspective focused on the emergence of a single world economy with the more liberal viewpoint recognising interdependence as unifying benign and equalizing. The more radical modernists viewpoint Kessler suggests sees interdependence as preserving old forms of social inequality, hierarchy and exclusion. The postmodernist identifies the emergence of a single human community of new information and communication technologies. Postmodernists consider that human interdependence is enhanced by the advancement in computer technologies with less focus on the impact of politics and economics. The modernists approach is based in the disciplinary fields of sociology and political science. The postmodernists approach is based in the area of cultural studies and anthropology. Kessler argues that a hybrid which grafts the insights of the

postmodernists communications theorists onto the basic political economy framework is not sufficient to understand the significance of the globalisation process. He suggests that human interdependence evolving through globalisation demands a new perspective that focuses on the moral issues of human equality and universalism. He argues that globalisation becomes a philosophical issue where the unity of all people becomes a lived social reality with a new understanding of human interdependence. He questions whether human beings will capture from corporate led globalisation not just the vision of the unity of humankind but some stake in and some hold upon a part of its emerging infrastructure.

Globalisation of communication provides worldwide penetration of the electronic and print media, in the main owned by a small number of multinational companies, which diminishes considerably the significance of country and cultural boundaries. Exposure of individuals and societies to outside influences has enriched cultures and also encouraged a re-assertion of local cultural identity (British Government, 2000, 16). However, there is also the reality as described by Jameson, (1984) cited in Dalin and Rust of the modern media 'dumbing-down' society with "...a whole 'degraded' landscape of schlock and kitsch, of TV series and Readers' Digest culture, of advertising and motels, of the late show and the grade-B Hollywood film..." (Dalin and Rust, 1996, 55) The comodification of culture has made it more bland and homogenised. Concern has been expressed about the information providers controlling the information receivers. Young people, in particular are manipulated by the media. The challenge to the education system is to educate to critically evaluate the media, analyse it and creatively respond to it (Eraut, 1991, 12).

Ireland since 1960 has reoriented the education system to make it more responsive to the needs of the economy. Infrastructures were enhanced to support this expansion into global markets. In the provision of education infrastructures almost all of the third level institutions, which were developed in recent times, are in the technological sector, offering courses in Applied Science (Clancy et al 1986, 126). Drudy and Lynch (1993, 218) point out that the increasing emphasis in Colleges on technical know-how, the pursuit of management and profit, and the empirical verification and experimentation with natural phenomena as in the natural sciences. They argue for the scope to develop the socially critical consciousness that comes with the philosophical and social

scientific thinking to complement the technical mode of consciousness in the education system (ibid.).

In the climate of the early nineties the focus was on becoming citizens of Europe, (DES, 1992,3) the challenge now is focused on participatory global citizens, who are confident and comfortable with the emerging 'global village' mentality. This demands that people are well grounded in their own local culture and beliefs.

#### **1.1.4 The Social Relationship Revolution**

In the post modern era definitions of home and family are changing. The role of youth particularly with regard to its relationship with the older generations is changing. Parent-child relationships are based more on negotiation of roles, rather than responding out of culturally prescribed positions (Curtin, 1986, 169). The influence of the media industry and the emergence of a more multi-cultural society challenged existing social relationships (Dalin and Rust, 1996, 41).

The social institution of the family in Ireland is undergoing great change, and in many circumstances experiencing the stress of reconstructing new family structures, leading to increasing numbers of children experiencing difficult socio-domestic circumstances (Coolahan, 1995; Fagan 1997, 48). In the Irish Constitution the family is founded on marriage (Kennedy, 1989, 69). The role of the family is in bringing new members into society, caring for them, and socialising them according to the prevailing norms and values (Curtin op.cit., 155). Functionalism, the dominant theoretical perspective among sociologists of the family, emphasises the essential functions performed by the family for society, and sees the smaller nuclear family unit as best suited to the needs of modern industrial societies. An aspect of the feminist perspective stresses the unequal division of domestic labour between man and women and the possible negative consequences of this kind of relationship (ibid.). The division of labour in the family reflects gender expectations, where unpaid housework and child minding is generally that of the mother, and this cultural system differentiates men's from women's roles in adult life.

The preamble of the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child 1989, which Ireland signed up to in 1992 iterated the conviction of the importance of the family “as the fundamental group of society and the natural environment for the growth and well being of all its members and particularly children...”. (Berwick and Burns, 1991). It recognised the need for the family environment to provide an atmosphere of happiness, love and understanding for the “...harmonious development...” of the personality of the child (ibid.). The Rights of the Child are subsumed within the rights of the family in Article 41 and 42 of the Irish Constitution (Richardson, 1999, 189).

Within one generation from the 1950s to the 1980s the pattern of the traditional extended family dissolved and was replaced by the norm of the nuclear family (Kennedy, 1989, 9). In the fifteen year from 1981- 1996 the marriage rate in Ireland dropped by over one-quarter, (Fitzgerald, 1997, 91) indicating either a postponement or abandonment of the marriage structure. Marriage breakdown, is also on the increase (Kennedy op.cit., 31) while it may in some cases be a release from oppression and in some cases violence it may give rise to a sense of insecurity and loss of confidence for children. As marriages breakdown the rights of the child must be catered for within society, and in a way that protects their autonomy. It is obligatory under Article 12 of the Rights of the Child, (Department of Health and Children, 1999) that children are treated in terms of citizens with individual autonomy, with the right to participate in and to be consulted on decisions affecting their lives.

Increasingly, married women who are mothers are entering paid employment, which has implications for the provision of family care for children. In the twenty years to 1997 the number of women in paid employment grew by 71%, mainly due to the increased participation of married women in the workforce (Fitzgerald, 1999, 115). The challenge to the education system is to support parents in their childcare decisions in order to ensure that the child is well cared for and provided with quality early childhood education. Studies undertaken in Ireland (1993), UK (1992), and US (1980) (DES, 2000, 9) show that pre-school education contributes to improved academic performance, improved retention rates for primary and second level and in the case of one UK study showed higher participation in third level.

In summary, the family unit is smaller, and less dependent on the extended family. With improved employment opportunities, in many cases both parents are more likely to be in paid employment. The changing social relationship is also evident in that the incidence of marriage breakdown is increasing. Through the Irish Constitution and the UN Charter of Rights of the Child society is charged with the responsibility of supporting children, particularly those in crisis, and in providing education for all of them.

#### **1.1.5 Economic Growth**

Dalin and Rust (op.cit.) discussed two significant aspects of the economic growth worldwide, the shift from agriculture, to industry and service, and from national to global. Currently, the decline in employment in manufacturing worldwide parallels the decline in employment in agriculture. In Ireland, the service sector in areas such as education, research, media, healthcare and the food and catering industry has grown by 40% from 1980-1997 (O'Connell, 2000, 67). Technology has reduced the need for farming and industrial workers by 7%, (ibid) while also increasing productivity in both of these sectors. In contrast, innovations in technology have not so far reduced the number of employees in the service sector (ibid.). As the service sector expands it appears to employ more and more to maintain productivity.

The Single European Act (1987) paved the way for free movement of capital, freedom for people within the EU to live where they liked, freedom to be employed within any EU country, and service commodity exchange. The economic development strategy pursued by Ireland since the 1960s has been based on four pillars of policy as follows: to develop high technology industries, most of which were foreign owned; creating skilled labour force to supply the market; application of the high technology to existing local industry for example the food industry, and this was supported by improved infrastructure; creating a favourable industrial climate by the process of social partnership (Bradley, 2000, 25). The partnership approach also contributed to a more coherent policy process across all sectors.

Three further enabling factors for economic growth included the slow decline in the birth rate resulting in increased numbers of young people who entering the work force, the increasing numbers of Irish emigrants returning, as well as significant numbers of

skilled immigrants (Fitzgerald, 2000, 46). The third factor has been the increased spending on education which has provided a well educated workforce, and with increased number of young females remaining in education, there has been a corresponding increase in their remaining in paid employment when they have children, or of returning to it when the children grew up (Nolan et al, 2000, 340). Improving economic trends, however, did not improve labour market prospects for those with limited education (ibid.).

The challenge to the education system is to provide appropriate and effective education opportunities for the school going cohort. Engaging the less academically able and those from disadvantaged groups to achieve greater success by remaining in education for a longer period is necessary. Tackling the problem of early school leavers needs to provide attractive options for the student to remain in school, but also to support the parents in motivating the student to stay in school. Breen (1984, 143) argued for increased liaison between parents and the school in working class areas. Identification of early school leavers can be guided by primary attendance rates, but further development of predictive instruments is necessary for effective remedial action plans to be devised and implemented.

#### **1.1.6 Technological Revolution**

Technological developments in many different ways contribute to a more favourable climate for economic growth (Dalin and Rust, 1996, 50). Two areas of greatest scientific advance have been in biotechnology and telecommunication, the latter has been discussed above.

Biotechnology, which is the application of biological processes to the production of materials for use in food, medicine and industry has contributed to increased food supplies (Hull, 1991, 143). Hull also suggests that the future use of biotechnology in food production will be determined by: consumer pressures to move from processed food and additives; the rate at which biotechnology gains wider acceptance; and the degree to which developments can be protected to gain competitive advantage. There will also be the need for enforced effective regulatory procedures.

Educating discerning consumers and protecting consumer rights will be challenges in the years ahead. There will also be an on-going need for a skilled workforce in this area. Maintaining a role at the cutting edge of biotechnological advances will require a strong base in science education.

### **1.1.7 Ecological Revolution**

Concern for the environment is an ardent issue as increased globalisation of trade in cash crops and of business has had severe negative impact on the natural environment both locally and globally. The consumption patterns, arising from increased economic prosperity of the populations of the more developed countries are the major sources of environmental degradation (British Government, 2000, 16; Dalin and Rust, 1996, 53). Pollution of land air and soil, destruction of wildlife, changing climate, and reduction of the ozone layer are major ecological issues that need to be addressed by future generations.

Fostering concern for the environment is the subject of Article 29.1 (e) of the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child, and is included in aspects of the curriculum at second level, yet as Coolahan (1991, 57) points out, "... that the majority of students still never go outside the school as part of these projects and activities." He recommended that "outward bound events" for example the use of adventure centres, have great educational potential in the cultivation of personal wholeness.

The challenge to educators is to arouse interest in exploration, understanding and appreciation of the local, national and global environments.

### **1.1.8 Aesthetics Revolution**

The development of communication technology and improved communication systems on the one hand and of weaponry for war on the other hand characterises the "...dark ages of art...." of the twentieth century (Dalin and Rust, op. cit. 55). Providing supporting evidence from America on attendance at art events, they suggest that the world is now experiencing a renewal of interest in the arts (ibid.). Likewise, the Irish Arts Council also recorded an increase from 60% of the population attending arts events in 1981 to 83% in 1993. An attitudes survey showed the positive and high regard for the arts among the population, with 83% of those surveyed considering

contemporary arts as important as arts from the past (Arts Council in Department of the Arts Heritage Gaeltacht and the Islands 2000, iv).

In Ireland concern was expressed about the narrow definition of arts, which excluded dance, digital art, community art, traditional music, and aspects of contemporary art from during discussions on the new framework for the arts (Dorgan, 2001, 5). Increasingly art and design are more significant in corporate image and identity (Institute of Design in Ireland, 1999), and among the affluent in the reaction to the mass production in the consumer society (Dalín and Rust, 1996, 55). Modern Irish designers have developed niche markets in areas such as design for the music and entertainment industry, the food industry, and the multimedia industry. This looks set to continue in the twenty first century economy. Several documents highlighted the need for increased opportunities within the formal education sector to explore art (Arts Council, 1995, Institute of Design in Ireland 1999, Dorgan 2001).

The need for art to be an integral part of learning, the right to participation in the arts, (UN Convention of the Rights of the Child, Article 31) and the promotion of cultural diversity are challenges to be addressed in education.

### **1.1.9 Political Revolution**

In the developed world in recent decades there have been increasing numbers of liberation and self-determination movements involving ethnic groups, minority groups, and single issues groups. These groups demanded greater participation in decision making and that interests of minority groups be taken into account (Dalín and Rust, 1996, 56). This political movement is underpinned by the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights which upholds the view that all people are equal in dignity and worth.

In the early nineties in Ireland issues of equality and choice of opportunity, and access were challenges to the educational system. There was convincing evidence from contributions to the National Education Convention (1993) of the depth of concern about these issues (Coolahan, 1994). There was considerable discourse, described below, on the inequality experienced by the following groups: economically disadvantaged; minority religious, ethnic groups including Travellers; women; and people with disability.



On the issue of economic disadvantage, research showed that failure to obtain some second level qualification greatly increased the risk of poverty, current unemployment and long term un-employment during the years when one was available to work, and also contributed to low pay when employed (Breen, 1984, 128; Hannan, 1986, 9; Nolan et al 2000, 119). A number of studies (Breen 1984, 32) showed that working-class pupils including girls were likely to leave school considerably earlier than middle-class pupils, and thus reinforced educational disadvantage. The research also showed that the percentage of the pupils from lower socio-economic groups attending third level remained consistently low (Breen, *op.cit.*; Nolan et al 2000, 119). The education system, through its policy on funding of primary and third level education reinforced the disadvantage, where expenditure per head in 1990 on the latter was four times greater than at primary (DES, not dated).

Lack of political leadership was also evident in accommodating and valuing minority religious ethnic, political groups and refugees. Coolahan (1991, 56) highlighted the acute need for an adequate and appropriate response to address these issues “...more than the benign, paternalistic and rather complacent response which is sometimes in evidence.” His foreboding has come to pass as schools struggle with increased multiculturalism at the start of the new millennium.

Evidence from a study on equality in education by Lynch and Lodge (Lynch, 1999, 252) showed overall high levels of ignorance among the students about people who were different from themselves in terms of disability, race, religion or sexual orientation. Hostility towards Travellers among the student population was quite overt even though most of them had never attended schools with Travellers (*ibid.*).

In relation to gender issues, the developing feminist theory provided the critique in the early nineties, which helped to challenge situations where women were disadvantaged or devalued. Gender issues and education were the subject of research since the early eighties (Drudy and Lynch, 1993, 41). Issues emerged in relation to the curriculum at second level in terms of content and choice of subject, and access to education (Hannan et al 1983). Although more girls completed second level substantially fewer went the further education route, and those who did were likely to enter Arts, Commerce,

Nursing and Teaching. Roughly two out of three women in paid employment were in predominantly female occupations. The results of such socialisation were reflected in attitudes of girls in second level (ibid.). Compared to boys, girls had negative attitudes to Maths and Science, were significantly less competitive, and were more involved in household and home-making roles (Hannan 1986; Hannan et al 1983).

Research carried out in the early nineties by Drudy (in Drudy and Lynch 1993, 202) among second level teachers involved in intervention projects to incorporate sex equality in the curriculum highlighted three issues. Teachers while believing in gender equality had a low level of awareness of sex discrimination in education. Women teachers had a stronger belief in equality than men. There was significant benefit to raising awareness of sex discrimination in pre-service training for teachers.

The rights of people with disabilities to participate in education, and in mainstream education have been championed by people with disabilities, their carers and in some situations by their parents. Problems of people with intellectual or physical disability were similar in that they experienced social exclusion and poor educational opportunities, but, they were also very different in terms of care needs, mobility, employment opportunities and participation in social life (Quin and Redmond, 1999, 146). The wide range of ability and disability within the category of the 'disabled' was highlighted in a number of documents (ibid., Robins, 1992, 60). People with disability were entitled to education supported by the State, to allow them to share the same personal and intellectual growth as their peers, both under the Constitution and the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child ratified by Ireland in 1992.

In conclusion, the wave of protest against exclusion and disadvantage created a momentum for change to inclusiveness. The power of lobby groups became a political force for change in the nineties.

#### **1.1.10 Values Revolution**

Dalin and Rust (op.cit., 55) point to the breakdown of the conventional value system and the norms that defined society, in particular the practice of religion. Many institutions, which in the past contributed to stability and legitimacy, appear to have

lost authority, in particular the Churches. Increased secularisation is seen as an irreversible outcome of modernisation.

Nic Ghiolla Phadraig (1986) advanced three ways by which the impact of religion was weakened. Firstly, the differentiation of institutions and roles so that functions become more specialised, for example social assistance being provided by the State. Secondly the fragmentation and multiplication of religious organisations leads to scepticism and loss of credibility about claims to possession of the truth. Thirdly, rationalisation of modern society that tended to place greater emphasis on the scientific and what is pragmatic rather than on the traditional values based on authority. One indicator of religiosity is attendance at mass for Catholics. In the early seventies over 90% of the population of Ireland attended Mass weekly (ibid.,). Figures from the International Social Survey programme showed a decline in Mass attendance between the seventies and the nineties, but , "...church attendance among the Irish has not changed in the 1990s..."(Greeley and Ward, 2000, 583). The study also shows a significant increase in non-affiliation among younger people born after 1970 (ibid.). The youngest cohort in the study, eighteen to twenty-eight year olds, was found in many ways to be the most traditional in Ireland (ibid.).

In Ireland Church and State are informally linked through the education system particularly at primary and second level where the vast majority of schools are run by committees guided by parish clergy or by religious orders (Nic Ghiolla Phádraig, 1986, 140). The decline in numbers entering religious orders and the expansion of the education system will be a factor in weakening the influence of the Church authority traditionally held in education management.

## **1.2 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child**

Ireland ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1992, and consequently the State has a binding obligation under international law to ensure that the terms of the treaty are honoured. The Convention sets out the rights guaranteed to young people under 18 years of age in all areas of their lives, and outlines the obligations on parents, the family, the community and the state with regard to these rights. The Convention provided a framework to guide governments in providing

legislative and administrative structures within four broad areas of rights: survival, development, protection and participation. Two articles (28 and 29) address educational issues. Article 28 proclaims the right of the child to education: free at primary, free and diversified at second level, and higher level education based on the capacity to benefit from it. The need for vocational guidance, information for young people and measures to promote regular attendance at school is highlighted. It stressed the need for discipline codes consistent with the child's human dignity. International co-operation in matters relating to education is also encouraged with view to overcoming literacy and numeracy problems worldwide, with particular focus on the needs of developing countries. Article 29 defines education as "The development of the child's personality, talents, and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential". (Berwick and Burns, 1991, 109) Education directed in the context of respect for human rights, with the development of respect for the child's parents, and with respect for the cultural identity language and values and country of origin of the child is to be provided.

While the Irish education system offers a wide range of opportunities at each level of education, it is not offered on the basis of equal opportunity, as discussed above. Existing problems pertain to primary, second level, and access to third level, however, only those in second level are explored in this study. Coolahan (1991) proposed changes for compliance with Articles 28 and 29 as follows. Schools in designated disadvantaged areas required a reduced pupil-teacher ratio, and more sustained effort to address the needs of teenagers who feel alienated from the work of the school. Supports were needed to reduce the drop-out rate from the 1991 level of 10-15% of the cohort. Increased provision was needed for children with disability to attend school and to address their special education needs. A well deployed and expanded remedial teaching force to address literacy and numeracy problems was required. The restoration and further expansion of the guidance service was also necessary.

Article 29 which focused on the objectives of education, the first being the development of the full potential of the child, and the second the development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. O'Malley (1991, 26) suggested that Irish education is ... "greatly deficient..." in human rights teaching at all levels. He supported the teaching of human rights to educate everybody about their rights and

responsibilities. Article 29 stressed values and attitudes to be espoused in respect for family, cultural identity of the child and other cultures different to that of the child. It urged preparation of the child as a responsible, understanding and tolerant person, with respect also for the natural environment.

Coolahan (1991) pointed out the lack of democratic structures evident in our schools. Research by Lynch and Lodge (Lynch 1999, 249) showed that “The perceived misuse of power and authority by adults in schools was the equality theme which emerged most strongly from student essays and interviews”. Almost 50% of the 1,200 students involved in the study “called for more democracy and greater respect for students in the ways that schools are organised.” Students also pointed out that the power relations in families and other public institutions had changed through time and that the school system lagged behind.

Compliance with the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child required special attention to students with disability, supports for students at risk of early school leaving, and vocational guidance for all students. Education in the context of respect for human rights and respect for the cultural identity of the student, to achieve the development of the student to his/her fullest potential was espoused.

### **1.3 Conclusion**

By the 1990s Ireland was on course for profound transformation as evidenced from the foregoing. Improved economic circumstances opened the country further to international markets. The phenomenon of globalisation and the technological advances had a major impact on how people worked, learned, communicated and viewed the world.

It is clear that the accumulated impact of these extensive societal changes occurring contemporaneously necessitated an effective policy response from the Department of Education. Policy to redress existing inequalities in the areas of access, opportunity, in decision making, and more efficient use of resources.

Accordingly, there was a need to strike a balance between the goal of education and responding to the various pressures of societal change, while also offering the student quality education which provided the facility to discover the student's own identity to develop fully as a person cultivating the exercise of moral and civic virtues (Dunne, 1995, 75). This required a balancing in the tensions between traditional culture and new values, habits and attitudes so that the student is grounded in their own culture and appreciative of other cultures both within Irish society and outside it. Greater integration for the student between the worlds of the school and that outside it will contribute to a more favourable learning environment. Both the pedagogy and modes of assessment would be important in terms of motivating the student to develop to their fullest potential.

Responding to student entitlements and to socio-economic change required that the education system be reformed. The challenges of equipping students to problem-solve, to apply knowledge, to critically evaluate the media, to be active citizens and to consult them on the issues affecting their lives needed to be addressed. New approaches to teaching, learning, assessment, to planning and designing the curriculum were required. It was in this context that Irish society set about establishing educational reform through a participative policy process in the early nineties. This is the subject of the next chapter.

## **Chapter 2**

### **The Irish Educational Policy Response**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

To respond to the societal demands outlined in chapter 1 and the needs of students, the education system required curricular, pedagogic and assessment reform. Also in response to changing family life, changing youth culture and increasing social difficulties for some students greater emphasis was placed on the role of the school in pastoral care, socialising, and counselling in conjunction with the intellectual and cognitive development of the student. Consequently, teachers were drawn into a new role of both shaping and renewing the educational system as well as servicing the reformed system (CIE, 1984, 10). The rapidly changing education system required policy to guide the developments, financial, material resources and teachers committed to lifelong learning to implement it (*ibid.*, 46).

This chapter reviews the key policy documents and outlines the subsequent changes in curriculum policies, in educational legislation, in school organisation, and in the organisation of the teaching career.

#### **2.1 Review of Key Policy Documents in the Nineties**

##### **2.1.1 Introduction**

This section examines how Irish society set about addressing educational policy reform. Choosing key documents for the discussion necessitated omitting reference to many other documents that undoubtedly contributed to debate on the salient issues for the policy agenda, and may also have contributed to the revision of the final version of the government documents. However, this is unavoidable given the scope of this study. In mapping the approach to policy development, stages and processes in developing the key policy documents are identified and the main implications that eventuated from these processes within second level education are explored.

O’Buachalla (1998) identified four main components of the policy process, first the issues emerging on the agenda, second the policy formulation and authorisation, third implementation and fourth policy termination or change (O’Buachalla, 1988, 314). Three domains in the policy formulation and authorisation stage are defined as the process domain which relates to all aspects of instruction given by the teacher, the access domain relating to entry, participation and retention of students within the system and the structure domain being characterised by administration, management and funding (ibid.). Effective progression towards the third stage, policy implementation, requires that needs within each of the domains in the second stage be addressed. In Irish educational policy development, the first component of issues emerging on the policy agenda resulted from discussions and debate on the OECD Report (1991), The Green Paper, (1992) *Education for a Changing World*, and the process of and the Report on the National Education Convention (1994). The White Paper (1995) *Charting our Education Future* and the legislative framework formulate and authorise policy. The extent to which the fourth stage, implementation, is being achieved is referred to in this chapter and examined more critically in the following chapters.

The first document discussed is a comprehensive report on Irish education by the OECD (1991), which mapped the cultural and economic climate in the country at the time, the structures of the educational system, and the emerging issues and problems.

### **2.1.2 The OECD (1991) Report on Irish Education**

In the 1991 OECD *Review of the National Policies for Education in Ireland* recommendations for reform reiterated many of the proposals from Irish educators already articulated in official reports and documents, and submitted to the review committee (OECD,1991, 74). From extensive research of documents and other literature the OECD report concluded:

Perhaps the most pervasive concern is the need to modernise the school system by relating it in more direct ways to the cultural/socio-economic condition of the country in the present day and age, bearing in mind Ireland’s interdependence within the international order (OECD, 1991, 74).



The OECD review team stressed the need to change pedagogy from the traditional didactic mode to the active learning mode where "... initiative, independence of thought, practical skills, problem solving and cognitive strategies become central rather than marginal as they often are at present." (ibid.). The reviewers deemed the Department to be overstretched to administer the system and lacking in information and advice for strategic policy development. It recommended that an intermediary administrative tier be implemented to improve Departmental efficiency by increasing the available time on policy issues. It also pointed out that changes in regard to the overall education system would require the full support of the social partners, meaning "... the representatives of the employment sector and of parents and community groups." Involving the social partners would create a climate of greater understanding of some of the necessary curricular changes, for example in relation the need for cross-curriculum themes, such as health education, environmental education, and social and political education. The OECD examiners also expressed the view that the report was a contribution to the "...national dialogue on schooling, teaching and teacher education, a dialogue that was of international importance as well." (ibid.,113).

Three constraints on the system that were obstacles to change were identified as: the absence of a central authority with the necessary financial and administrative supports to formulate and implement reforms; the presence of powerful interest groups outside government, for example the Church bodies; the complexity and plurality of the system which encompassed so many different types of schools and colleges (ibid., 113).

The weakness of excluding education partners, parents, local community groups and the employment sector from the curriculum planning process needed to be addressed. Seeking agreement with the partners would ensure a critical mass supporting curriculum, pedagogic and assessment reform within the school community (ibid.). It would also provide the opportunity to explore the introduction of health education, social and political education, and other cross-curricular themes that are required to relate school work to the changing social realities (ibid.75).

### 2.1.3 The Green Paper, (1992) *Education For A Changing World*

The Green Paper, (GP) *Education for a Changing World* published in 1992, followed the OECD Report (1991). In the Foreword the Minister flagged the need for policy to respond to changing societal needs and to the goal of life-long learning. It stated:

... there is widespread consensus on the need for a radical reappraisal of traditional approaches to education policies, to take account of the complexities of modern living and the extension of the education to all and for a longer period of life (DE, 1992).

The first chapter a *Framework for Development*, addressed the three chief areas of policy, access, process and structure. Issues in relation to access to education for primary and second level students were extensively discussed in the chapters on *Equity and Access*, and in chapter four on the *Broadening of Education*. The process of teaching and teacher training was the focus in chapter six on *The Teaching Profession*, and other aspects of process are woven throughout each of the chapters. Chapters three, five and seven specifically related to structural issues, with some aspects of funding management and administration dealt with throughout a number of the chapters. Chapter three considered the European context of Irish educational development and chapter eleven some of the international aspirations towards internationally traded educational services.

Six key aims were identified in the light of the understanding of existing and emerging needs based on empirical evidence from many research documents, some of these documents are referred to in exploring the societal change in Chapter One. Briefly, the aims included;

- Greater equity in education for all citizens;
- Broadening Irish education to equip students more effectively for life, for work in an enterprise culture, and for citizenship of Europe;
- Making best use of education resources by radically devolving administration, introducing the best management practice and strengthening policy work;
- Training and development of teachers so as to equip them for a constantly changing environment;
- Creating a system of effective quality assurance;
- Ensuring greater openness and accountability throughout the system for all the partners (DE., 1992, 5).

Many of the aims signal a more progressive response from the Department indicating greater inclusiveness both in terms of catering for the diversity of students, and for involving parents in consultation and in the management of the education process. The broadening of education was to include greater emphasis on critical thinking skills, promoting a healthy lifestyle, technology and enterprise, and improved competence in European languages. The concept of a vocational dimension, educating for employment and for successful self-employment was introduced to cater for a wider range of pupils (DE.,1992,12). These changes were to be managed by teachers who were better trained, working in a more accountable and transparent system.

Aspects of the GP elicited considerable criticism because of the emphasis of the curricular focus on the development of entrepreneurial and technological skills, (Conference of Major Religious Superiors (CMRS), 1993: 8, Coolahan, 1994, 75) the inadequate attention to religious education (CMRS, 1993, 40; Dunne 1995, 61), and a neglect of the role of arts in the curriculum (Coolahan, 1994, 74). The discussions at the National Education Convention (NEC) were critical to achieving consensus on many of the curricular issues and thus setting the direction of future education policy.

#### **2.1.4 The National Education Convention and its Report (1994)**

Throughout most of the twentieth century participation in the education policy process had been mainly the prerogative of the managerial bodies, which were representative of the majority religions in the country, the teacher unions representatives, and the government. It was also the case that these interest groups did not share equal power in formulating the agenda for policy debates (O’Buachalla, 1988, 390). This arrangement was broken by a major democratic event, which was unprecedented in Irish educational history, and which focused the discussions on the GP and emerging issues among the interested public, the NEC held in Dublin Castle in October 1993. Representatives from a wide range of educational bodies, the social partners and the Department of Education engaged in extensive multilateral discussion on key issues of educational policy for the Irish context. The Report stated:

It set to encourage participants to clarify viewpoints: to question, probe and analyse varying perspectives; to foster multi-lateral dialogue and improve mutual understanding between sectoral interests; to explore possibilities of new ways of doing things and to identify areas of actual

or potential agreement between different interest groups (Coolahan, 1994, 1).

The consultative process of two weeks duration was held in George's Hall in Dublin Castle, a venue of great historical significance. The Secretary General at the commencement of proceedings highlighted the historical context and significance of the work being initiated at the start of the proceedings (ibid., 220). The Convention was conducted by an independent Secretariat of academics, assisted by a small number of international consultants (ibid.).

The background document mapped the context of the Convention, and aspects of the changing Irish society that required improved policy and structures in education. Key areas of policy proposals in the GP and in the *Programme for A Partnership Government* 1993 were summarised (ibid., 143). Approximately, one thousand organisations nationwide made advance submissions in response to the GP, which reflected the interest in the issues, and the willingness of the people to engage in discussion. There were two weeks of public hearings at the Convention. In the second week in the Analysis of Issues sessions there were five groups who deliberated on and discussed the issues arising from the previous week, during fifteen sessions. A comprehensive report reflecting the views from the consultative process, analysis and interpretation of the emerging issues, distilled by the Secretariat, was published in January 1994. Providing the opportunity of the consultative process was seen as a positive indicator for future dialogue among the partners in education.

Specifically in relation to second level education and the development of teachers the following areas were explored and reported on: post-primary curricular issues; roles of principals and middle management; patrons, trustees, owners- relationships with boards of management; local education structures; education for special needs and education for Travellers; in-service teacher education; quality and effectiveness of schools; support services, administration, technical assistance; and post-primary school rationalisation. It is beyond the scope of this study to deal extensively with each of these areas. Issues, challenges and demands relating to second level schools were highlighted and the significance of the implications for the students, teachers and the management of schools. Chapters three and four of this thesis deal with policy issues

in relation to the provision of teacher INSET, and opportunities arising for the changing career of the teacher.

The OECD Report (1991) and the Report on the NEC (1994) were not government policy documents, but the former external body, in its comprehensive overview and timely analysis of Irish education provided the focus on problems in education, that was a catalyst for change. The Education Convention proved to be the process by which the GP which lacked a clear philosophical framework, and greatly emphasised education for an enterprise culture, was discussed, dismantled and restructured to include a clear educational philosophy, and a more enriched view of the arts in education.

#### **2.1.5 The White Paper, (1995) *Charting Our Education Future***

The comprehensive Report of the NEC (1994) provided the framework for the White Paper (WP), and consequently the long awaited policy document of the White Paper *Charting Our Education Future* did not spring many surprises on the public, least of all on those who participated in the Convention process.

The culmination of many years of research, debate, dialogue and consultation on the educational needs of a rapidly changing and evolving society, informed the second stage in the policy process of formulation and authorisation as described by O’Buachalla (1988, 314). Commitment to change and effective management of change are the challenges identified for charting the future of education in Ireland. (DE, 1995) The policy directions are set to strategically guide this change. Targets were set for educational development, in a spirit of respect for the rights and responsibilities of the partners in education.

The WP (1995) was structured around a philosophical framework, an organisational framework, and a legal framework. Within the philosophical framework the provision of education at primary, second level, and at further and higher education was outlined. The approach to the career of teaching was holistic, supporting what has been described by Coolahan (1998, 443) as the “3 I’s” policy where initial education, induction, and in-service education is considered as a continuum. The importance of partnership with parents was well developed within the philosophical framework. The

organisational framework, outlined policy in relation to the governance and management of schools, the role of the inspectorate and the Department and the proposal for establishing Education Boards. The legislative framework presented the approach to legislation and an outline of the legislative provisions in relation to: governance; organisational structure; national bodies; university legislation; rules for schools; and provision in relation to the Teaching Council. Finally, part six of the WP explored the international dimension of Irish education in the context of partnership with education initiatives in Europe and in the wider world.

The cohesive structure of the WP whereby policy for the existing structures for example primary, second level, further and higher education, was clearly defined, and was underpinned with the philosophical framework, presented the challenges of change in a manageable way, and thus inspired confidence among the education partners. The consultative process of the NEC, which challenged and altered perspectives, distilled the salient policy issues from the GP and the subsequent report significantly contributed to a more informed and better defined direction for policy in the WP.

The key policy issues relating to the curriculum, school organisation and management at second level, and the resultant legislative framework are discussed below. The changes, which were to be pervasive occurred at the level of subject syllabus, programme options, assessment procedures, pedagogy, school organisational structure, and in the relationship with the stakeholders and the Department.

## **2.2 Changes in Curriculum Policies**

The school curriculum encompasses the full range of learning opportunities provided for the students (NCCA, 1999, 5). Aspects of the individual developed in education include "...the aesthetic, creative, cultural, emotional, intellectual, moral, physical, political, religious, social and spiritual dimensions, for personal and family life, for living in the community and for leisure." (DES, 2000a, 3). The education system has the responsibility to facilitate development in each of these areas for students, and in so doing to value each one equally (DE, 1995, 43).

The WP (1995) defined specific and implicit elements of the curriculum. The specific elements were the concepts, skills, areas of knowledge and attitudes which students

learn as part of their school/classroom work. The implicit elements were captured in the ethos and school culture (ibid., 18). The understanding of ethos represented in the WP, is that which "...encompasses collective attitudes, beliefs, values, traditions, aspirations and goals".(ibid., 9). The rights of the parents to involvement in their children's moral and spiritual development were strongly upheld in the policy document.

Implementing the five principles underpinning educational policy, pluralism, equality, partnership, quality and accountability in the curriculum planning, in teaching and learning methodologies, in the school development planning and in the nature of relationships within the school and with the local community will contribute significantly to shaping school ethos and culture (Coolahan, 2000,116).

A curriculum, which offers the breadth of a wide range of educational experiences, with balance among the diverse aspects of the subjects offered, and a coherence that encourages students to make connections between the learning from each subject area, is the foundation of curriculum principles at second level. (DE, 1995, 45)

The following section discusses the implementation of changes in curriculum policy, including both implicit and explicit elements as defined above, and assessment changes at junior and senior cycles. The final section discusses more generally changes relating to school structure, management and teaching career arising from policy in the WP (1995). Table 1 page 42 is a compilation of curriculum initiatives in the nineties.

## **2.2.1 Curriculum Policy Change at Junior Cycle**

### **2.2.1.1 The Junior Certificate Course**

The introduction in 1989 of the Junior Certificate (JC) programme marked the beginning of a decade of extensive curriculum changes for second level schools. Its introduction provided greater equality of access to certification, by eliminating the dual system of the Day Vocational Certificate examination in the Vocational schools and the Intermediate Certificate in secondary schools (Breatnach, 1997, 1). The overall approach to the framework for the JC was to facilitate continuity between primary and second level, and to provide a tool for planning and analysis.

The concept of “areas of experience” formed the framework for the JC programme presented by Curriculum and Examinations Board established in 1984. For example the area of experience titled ‘Language and Literature’ encompassed Irish, English and other languages (Crooks, 1990). Rather than viewing the eight ‘areas of experience’ as distinct subjects to be taught separately, they were identified by distinct bodies of knowledge, by their association with different skills, and by the different types of aesthetic and emotional responses and particular sets of attitudes and values (NCCA, 1999,11). Effective teaching of the areas of experience required a range of approaches to teaching and learning (ibid.).

A variety of modes of assessment – terminal written examinations, orals, aural, practicals, project work and assignments- were proposed to accommodate the differing abilities and strengths of students. Each subject was offered at two levels, Ordinary and Higher, and in the case of Maths, Irish and English a third level, Foundation level, was introduced (ibid., 30). It was proposed that for the first time teachers be involved in school based assessment for the Junior Certificate Examination (ibid.,).

To date, the level of school based assessment is minimal, with subjects being certified by means of terminal written examinations and by two aural tests in Irish and Modern Languages held in conjunction with the written paper (ibid., 32). Some teachers, objected to school based assessment for certified examinations on the grounds that it could interfere with the relationship of supporter/advocate between teachers and their students. The NCCA assert that with increased reliance on the written examination it is likely that teaching will continue to concentrate on the verbal and logico-mathematical approach to teaching (ibid., 33). This may also have the effect that students who are weak in verbal and logico-mathematical abilities may find school demotivating, and consequently leave school early (ibid., 34). In this circumstance, the JC programme fails to meet its stated objectives, while also failing students who might have achieved more successfully in the previous Day Certificate examination.

Student centred active learning methodologies were proposed for the JC including group work, role play, active research with the use of primary sources and information technology, field-work, and problem solving were emphasised. The changed methodology emphasised values of creativity, inquiring and experimental procedures



(Callan, 1997,25). The implementation of a curriculum which required access to a variety of source material both inside and outside the school, Callan pointed out, also needed an accommodating school structure in terms of timetabling, and the physical environment (ibid.)

Short courses in two new subjects areas were introduced to achieve the objectives in relation to understanding the concept of citizenship, and awareness of personal safety, emotional health and well being. These subjects are discussed below.

#### **2.2.1.2 Social, Personal and Health Education**

In responding to two areas of social change identified in chapter 1, social relationships and values the programme on Social Personal and Health Education (SPHE) were introduced to the JC. The programme, aspects of which were piloted for a number of years was designated as core provision in 2000.

The chapter in the WP (1995) devoted to policy on promoting Social, Personal and Health Education in schools stressed that the climate of the school and of the classroom, teaching methods employed, the school's approach to personal difficulties experienced by the students, and the educational and other values transmitted by the school were critical to achieving the objectives of SPHE (DE, 1995, 161).

The programme for SPHE is based on a holistic vision of education and health which contributes to the personal well-being of the students and the development of positive inter-personal relationships (DES, 2000a, 3). It encourages the young person to participate more fully in school life and in the variety of learning situations it offers. Being aware of the relationship between lifestyle, environment, health and well-being the student will be conscious of the challenges to opting for personal and family choices that promote health, and will be facilitated in learning the skills to do so (DE, 1995, 61).

The policy proposes that the board of management, parents, teachers and students, through the Students' Council all need to play a role in the development of a policy on behaviour within the school (ibid.). One period per week should be allocated to SPHE

employing experiential methodologies to facilitate participation and discussion (DES, 2000a, 6).

An element of SPHE, is a programme on Relationship and Sexual Education (RSE) that was introduced in 1997. It provided the opportunity for students to learn about the social and personal dimensions of society, the issue of sexuality in personal and social life, and the skills for critical evaluation of the wide range of information, opinion, attitudes and values by which adolescents are challenged. Evaluation of the RSE Course showed strong support among parents and teachers for the principles of the programme (Morgan, 2000, 11).

Self-assessment in SPHE and RSE is encouraged to guide students in recognising the processes of their own learning, and to record progress and personal achievement. Evaluation of the programme by all involved was also recommended.

#### **2.2.1.3 Civic, Social and Political Education**

The Civic, Social and Political Education (CSPE) Course for JC, introduced to all schools in 1997, explored and studied citizenship at all levels- personal, local, national, and global- in the context of contemporary social and political issues. The course is based on education about human rights and social responsibilities, and is now part of the core curriculum mandatory for all second level schools. The course was introduced as a pilot project, where exemplar class materials and different modes of assessment were piloted. The DE guidelines recommended that the course be allocated one class per week or its equivalent, seventy hours over the three year period of the Junior Cycle (NCCA, 1993, 26).

The course covers four areas of study: the individual and citizenship; the community; the State – Ireland; Ireland and the wider world. The course exemplar materials promote active learning methodologies, including participatory and experiential learning, co-operative learning and cross-curricular work. Students are requested to undertake an action project in which they show their active participation in a topic explored in class. A report on this action project is presented as part of the Junior Certification assessment, along with the written examination (Hammond and McCarthy, 1996).

#### **2.2.1.4 The Junior Certificate School Programme**

This programme, based on a piloted programme developed over twenty years, was implemented nationally to eligible schools in 1996, to address the problem of early students leaving.

The programme supports students, identified as potential early school leavers, towards achieving the Junior Certificate. It aims to make the experience of school more positive, relevant and accessible to those students. Students study at least two subjects in the Junior Certificate examination, usually English and Mathematics at foundation level, and other subjects as appropriate. Teachers are encouraged to use active learning methodologies and a cross-curricular approach maintaining a balance between skills focus and content focus. The teaching team involved in the programme have allocated time for team meetings (Cassidy, 1997, 156)

A student profile of learning goals achieved is maintained as a positive record of the student's achievement, which in turn motivates the student. Presenting the positive report to parents can improve the parent teacher relationship and consequently the parents' support for the student in school (O'Gorman, 1998, 38). Certification from the JC examination and the school-assessed school profile are presented to the student on the completion of the course (NCCA, 1999a, 9).

#### **2.2.2 Curriculum Policy Change at Senior Cycle**

The policy aim of senior cycle in the WP (1995) encouraged the facilitation of students continuing in full-time education on completion of the JC (DE, 1995, 50). Completing second level education with certification enhanced employment opportunities, as discussed in Chapter 1. In expanding the senior cycle provision the DE had the dual aim of catering for the diversity of student needs, and preparing students for the transition from school to adult and working life, (NCCA, 1995, 2) including further education. (DE, 1995, 52) This complex transition to work presented challenges in relation to social, personal and cultural issues, as well as the responsibility of the 'job'. Informed discussion and exploration with peers in the classroom, guided by the teacher, can help ease the transition.

The strengths of both the academic strands and the vocational opportunities offered in the traditional LC were recognised by the OECD (OECD 1991, 75). Problems highlighted included the exam system biased in its assessment towards further and higher education, and the vocational subjects which aimed to enhance manual and practical skills showed a gender divide where girls opted for secretarial, clerical and domestic subjects and the boys for technical, scientific and trade subjects (ibid., 75).

Significant changes to the approach to senior cycle were presented in the WP (1995). The Transition Year (TY) was mainstreamed and the Leaving Certificate courses were expanded providing three separate orientations, the Established Leaving Certificate, the Leaving Certificate Applied (LCA) and the Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme (LCVP). The scope of educational provision at senior cycle was broadened and greater emphasis was placed on the vocational orientation of all subjects (DE, 1995, 51)

#### **2.2.2.1 The Transition Year Programme**

When TY was introduced as an optional programme in 1994/1995 it bridged the highly structured JC programme and the much broader in depth LC programme that demanded greater responsibility from the student for his/her own learning. The TY aims, “ To promote the personal, social, educational and vocational development of pupils and to prepare them for their role as autonomous participative and responsible members of society.” (DE, 1993, 4). Work experience and the development of general, technical and academic skills provided the opportunity for a broad education, which would better enable students to proceed to vocational training or to further academic study.

The policy recommended that each school develops the curriculum content by engaging in discussion with all the staff, parents, work providers and the wider community of educational partners, informed by TY guidelines (ibid., 5). The final programme should be approved by the school management, staff and by the Board of Management (ibid.).

A wide range of teaching methodologies was recommended, to be determined by the range of abilities and the needs of the particular group, and cognisant of the multiple intelligences of the students. Learning outcomes were to be negotiated with the students (ibid., 8). Availing of a range of opportunities outside the school environment such as

study visits and community service was recommended to enhance teaching and learning.

Assessment methods are to reflect the variety of teaching/learning approaches and the programme itself is to be evaluated internally on a regular basis (DE, 1993, 14). The approach to assessment is to be diagnostic and formative with emphasis on student participation in the assessment procedures, through self ratings based on agreed set targets. It recommended that the school policy on assessment and certification be clearly outlined in the school programme. Presenting the student with a profile of achievements on completion of the year was also recommended.

The evaluation of TY conducted by the DE (1995) found a consensus that the programme was a very worthwhile initiative, providing pupils with the "...space and time to grow in maturity and develop in self confidence." (DE, 1995a, 1).

#### **2.2.2.2 The Leaving Certificate Applied Programme**

The WP (1995) stressed that the LCA programme allowed for an extension of the teaching and learning methodologies of the TY, and increased the links to vocational training (DE, 1995, 52). It prepared students for transition from the school to working life (NCCA,1995, 2).

Central to the ethos of the programme was that the talents of all pupils are recognised and that they be given the opportunity to develop "...in terms of responsibility, self esteem and self knowledge"(ibid.). It was introduced into schools on a pilot basis in September 1995, since then it has been developed, and currently 300 schools offer it.

The two year programme contains three main elements, vocational preparation, vocational education and general education. Like TY a variety of teaching styles is promoted, to actively involve the students in locating and using relevant information, promoting communication and other generic skills, to achieve the objectives of inspiring initiative, independence, self confidence and a spirit of co-operation. The use of learning and teaching opportunities outside of the school is also emphasised.

A distinguishing feature of the LCA is the modular structure that lends itself to discrete assessment on completion of a module. Over the two year course student achievements and performance are recorded by: module completion; credits for nine tasks; external examination in five areas: English and communication; vocational specialisms; mathematical applications; languages; and social education (ibid., 8). This allows for early school leavers will also having credits of achievement. The final certification is based on the credits accumulated over four sessions in the two years, and the final examinations. Students may also receive a Record of Experience on completion of the course. The final assessment may be used for entry to further education, but not directly to university.

The evaluation of the LCA verified the positive impact which it is having in meeting needs of students not being previously catered for (DES, 2000b, 10). It finds strong evidence that the aims and objectives of the programme are being achieved. In general, it concluded that the provision of the programme has enriched the education provision for many young people in schools.

#### **2.2.2.3 The Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme**

The LCVP was introduced in 1989 to vocational schools, to enhance students' skills in technical and vocational areas in the Leaving Certificate course. The traditional uptake patterns of the technical and vocational subjects were that a high proportion of males opted for the programme. This gender bias and other issues of inequality were addressed when the programme was restructured and the new version was introduced to schools in 1994/1995. Currently, the course is offered in 500 schools. It is designed to, "... combine the academic strengths of the Established Leaving Certificate with a new and dynamic focus on enterprise, the world of work, information technology and languages." (Fitzmaurice et al 2000, 5) The WP (1995) emphasised the central focus of the programme as fostering "... a spirit of innovation and initiative in young people by developing vocational technological, community and interpersonal skills within the same programme" (DE 1995, 53).

Seven subjects chosen by the students include a number from the LC course, two from the vocational subjects grouping, a continental language, and the three link modules. The link modules involve enterprise education, preparation for work and work

experience, and provide links across the curriculum and between learning in school and out of school (Fitzmaurice et al. 2000, 10). Networking with business people and with those working in local community organisations enhances the vocational relevance of the course.

Active learning methodologies, and cross curricular learning and teaching are recommended. The Link Modules, for many practitioners are the defining curricular feature of the LCVP, (NCCA, 1999a, 7), possibly because the modules enable students to apply and evaluate the knowledge and skills they have learnt in other areas of the course, which is core to experiential learning.

The students are assessed as for the established LC examination except for the Link Modules that are assessed by the National Council for Vocational Awards. The latter is of two parts, a final examination, and a portfolio of course work. This assessment is recognised for points towards entry to university and the Institutes of Technology.

The evaluation carried on behalf of the DE (Granville 1998) found the programme was well received by students, parents, teachers and school management. Students' skills were being enhanced in the areas of information technology and enterprise education, and they were perceived to have developed self-confidence, and resourcefulness from engagement with the programme (Fitzmaurice et al 2000, 51).

#### **2.2.2. 4. Changes in the Subject Syllabi of the Established Leaving Certificate**

In responding to societal changes, to the WP (1995) and to the need for continuity with the JC, most of the syllabi for the established LC subjects were reviewed in the nineties, with a view to improving the quality of educational opportunities offered to students (DE, 1995, 52; NCCA, 2000, 4).

The introduction of the new syllabi to schools commenced in 1995, with Accounting, Irish, Maths, Modern Languages: French; German; Italian; Spanish. In 1997, new syllabi for Business and Music were introduced, and in 1999 for English, Chemistry and Physics. It is expected that six new syllabi will be introduced in the new academic year in 2001, and by 2004 all the Leaving Certificate subjects will have been revised, and possibly three new subjects Japanese, CSPE, and Communications Technology

introduced (NCCA, 1999b, Appendix 1). The process of introducing the changed syllabi spans ten years. While the content of the subject being taught has changed the pedagogy is determined by the mode of assessment which has remained more or less the same with the emphasis on 'paper and pencil tests' (NCCA, 1999, 33). The aims and goals of the LC do not correspond with the modes and techniques of assessment, and it is likely that assessment will continue to be a key issue in educational debate in the years ahead (Hyland, 1998, xviii).

The need for a more substantial review of the established LC programme was suggested by a number of organisations (NCCA, 2000, 8; Hyland, 1999, 155; CORI, 1998,21). The relationship between the options at senior cycle and how they could be blended to provide better choice for the students, possibly through modular structures, needs to be addressed. The Points Commission (1999) agreed that the LC should recognise a wider range of skills, intelligences and achievements than currently (Hyland, 1999, 154).

Allied to those changes outlined above was the process of computerisation which was not included as a subject area, but many schools provided time to teach basic computer skills. This involved having trained staff as well as procuring the resources. Then having acquired some very expensive equipment coping with the problem of obsolescence in the nineties.

The cumulative curriculum changes proposed for second level during the nineties were massive. Represented in Table 1 is the chronology of the main initiatives, which portrays to some extent the swirl of change with which school management and teachers coped.



**Table 1 Chronology Of the Main Curricular Initiatives in 1990s**

<i>Academic year</i>	<i>Curricular Initiative</i>
1989	Junior Certificate Programme LCVP in Vocational schools
1993	CSPE Pilot
1994	TY Nationally LCVP Nationally- for both programmes the number of participating schools increased each year.
1995	LCA initiated- number of participating schools increased each year  New syllabus in Leaving Certificate Accountancy, Irish, Maths, French, German, Italian and Spanish
1996	SPHE Pilot to go mainstream 2000 Junior Certificate School Programme nationally in eligible schools
1997	RSE CSPE mainstreamed New syllabi in Leaving Certificate Business Studies and Music IT 2000 strategy.
1998	
1999	New syllabi in Leaving Cert English, Chemistry and Physics

### **2.3 Change in The Legislative Framework of Education**

As evidenced from the many changes to curriculum policy at second level outlined above the education system was responding in a strategic way to the changing society at the end of the twentieth century, and the consequent changing role of the school. The need to have official decisions on policy underpinned by legislation to eliminate discretion has been iterated by many writers (Coolahan, 1994, 131, Clancy, 1999, 81, Farry, 1996, 152). The traditional administrative document within the Department was the administrative circular letter, and inadequacies of that system were pointed out in the GP (DE, 1991, 32). Legislation contributed to the structural domain necessary in policy formulation (O’Buachalla, 1988, 34).

From a total of seven education Bills introduced to the Dail in the nineties (Walsh, 1999,189) three were directly related to second level education, and by 2001 each of

these has been enacted, The Education Act (1998), The Education (Welfare) Act (2000) and the Teaching Council Act (2001). The significance of each for the second level school is discussed below.

### **2.3.1 The Education Act, 1998**

Throughout the policy process a number of concerns were expressed about aspects of State control through legislation, such as, how the Education Act would provide for the rights of parents under the Constitution, versus the subsidiary role of the State in the provision of education, and the rights of owners of schools in the promotion of the ethos of their schools (Coolahan, 1994, 131). The WP articulated the policy on legislation as follows:

- Constitutional rights and duties of parents and the State;
- Property rights and the rights of religious denominations to manage their affairs;
- The legal principles of estoppel, legitimate expectation and proportionality;
- Equality principles and the interests of the common good (Farry, 1996, 152).

The new Minister appointed in 1997 made a number of changes, he replaced plans for regional education boards with executive bodies, introduced regulations on conducting state examinations and incorporated a ban on the receipt of examination results for compilation of league tables (*ibid.*, 204). The final stages of the Bill were passed in the Oireachtas in December 1998 without contention or much media attention (Pollak, 1998).

The Education Act (1998) provided statutory rights for the inspectorate, boards of management, the principal and teachers in schools, The NCCA, parents' associations, students' councils, education centres and corporate bodies to provide services related to education. It regulated school provision, the curriculum, and other structural issues relating to the provision of education for primary, post-primary adult and continuing education and vocational education and training (Government of Ireland, 1998, 5). The Education Act copperfastened the policy principles of accountability, partnership, quality, equality, and pluralism.

### **2.3.2 The Education (Welfare) Act, 2000**

One approach to addressing some of the issues relating to educational disadvantage and early school leaving, as discussed in chapter 1 above, has been the introduction of the legislation of the Education (Welfare) Act 2000. Under this legislation co-ordinated supports and strategies were proposed to encourage and support young people to remain in education up to the age of sixteen, or on the completion of three years of post-primary education, whichever is the later (Government of Ireland, 2000).

A National Educational Welfare Board (NEWB) is being established to develop, co-ordinate and implement school attendance policy, to ensure that every child of school going age is provided with an appropriate educational opportunity. Education welfare officers will work with schools, teachers, parents and community groups to support regular school attendance. An early school leavers register will be established with the NEWB with view to assisting them in availing of training opportunities. Regulation for employers in relation to the employment of early school leavers has been outlined. Students participating in education outside of recognised schools will be registered and the adequacy of the provision will be monitored (*ibid.* ).

Schools are obliged to inform the educational welfare officer of problems arising in relation to attendance. A code of behaviour and discipline procedures will be available within the school. Parents are required to communicate with the school principal in cases where the son/daughter is absent.

### **2.3.3 The Teaching Council Act, 2001**

The OECD Report (1991) recommended that a specialised unit was required to address the issues of teacher selection, teacher training, induction, in-service education and accreditation (OECD, 1991, 107). A proposal for a Teaching Council (TC) emanated from the early seventies (Coolahan, 1981, 230), was endorsed by the many policy processes (Coolahan, 1994, 81) leading to the WP (1995), in which it was enunciated as a principle.

The Steering Committee on the TC (1998) recommended that the Council would subsume the existing Secondary Teachers' Registration Council, establish a register, determine the qualifications and standards for practice, advise the Minister for

Education and Science, establish probation, induction, and in-service education procedures, undertake relevant research, and generally represent the views of the teaching profession on educational matters (DES, 1998, 13).

The WP (1995) acknowledged the difficulties inherent in aiming to balance the rights of the individual with those of the common good as would be the case in the compulsory registration of serving and future teachers, the imposition of fees and the introduction of disciplinary procedures. The process of partnership and consultation at the Steering Committee stage assuaged these concerns by outlining the partnership approach which would safeguard professional standards (ibid., 9).

The legislation based on the recommendations of the Steering Committee was signed into law in April 2001 for a Teaching Council consisting of thirty seven members with representatives from the teaching profession, the teacher training colleges, school management, parents, the employers' union, the Congress of Trade Unions, and Ministerial appointees.

## **2.4 Change in School Organisational Framework**

Significant changes proposed in the school organisational framework potentially act both as a catalyst and a guide for managing and implementing change in the second level system. Many of the proposed changes have huge impact on the re-shaping of the second level school and as a result, on the requirements of teaching. Changes include the school development planning, whole school evaluation, boards of management structures and changes in the career paths and posts of responsibilities for teachers. Each of these is outlined below.

### **2.4.1 School Development Planning**

As outlined in the previous chapter societal changes have increased expectations of the role and function of the school in society. Schools in response to reforms are consistently managing and coping with innovations. By being proactive in their approach, schools can manage change more effectively, thus enhancing the quality of the education experience provided (DES, 1999a, 8). School development planning (SDP) is a tool to assist in change management.

The process of school development planning, ideally should involve the principal, teaching staff, and all the stakeholders in the school community (DE, 1995, 157; DES, 1999a,12). The cyclical process of review, design, implementation, and evaluation, is best when informed by the mission, vision and aims of the school (DES, 1999a, 13).

The review takes stock of the continued appropriateness of current aims and objectives and analyses the educational provision. It may be carried out at different stages in the school planning process. The review is best when informed by an earlier process of evaluation, which in turn leads to the design of an overall plan to address priorities for the school. Wide consultation in the review stage will ensure realistic assessment of the school's development needs and increases ownership and motivation among the partners in the process (ibid., 46).

The school plan is a product of the process, which is a reference document to guide the activities of the school, and is a tool for monitoring and evaluation. It contains the statement of the aims and objectives of the school and addresses the following issues:

- Total curriculum;
- Organisation of resources;
- Policies on administrative and organisational issues;
- Provision for professional support and development of staff and school management personnel;
- Strategies for implementing regulations and statutory obligations;
- Mechanisms for reviewing progress and taking corrective action (ibid., 36).

#### **2.4.2 Whole School Evaluation**

Whole school evaluation, a process of external evaluation by the Department, provides an opportunity to look critically and analytically at education provision in the school. The Department consider is a means of providing “objective, dependable, high quality data on the education system”. (DES, 1999, 7). The process is based on a partnership approach between the inspectors staff, school management, and the board of management. Supporting evidence from the school self-review, the school

development plan and any other procedures for quality assurance that operate within the school contribute to the evaluation process (ibid., 12).

The pilot project conducted in 1998 involved seventeen secondary schools focusing on three aspects of the school, the quality of learning and teaching, of school planning and of school management (ibid. 13). The process involved a pre-evaluation meeting, school and classroom visits, post-evaluation meetings and the presentation of the final report of the evaluation. The evaluation criteria to guide the process were designed by the inspectorate.

The participants in the pilot phase were supportive of the process. Four factors would have improved the process: access to quantitative information on the school and the local community; increased participation of parents; consultation with students; and the inclusion of pastoral care work in the evaluation criteria. To sustain the benefits of the process supports need to be available for implementing recommendations (ibid., 49).

The evaluation assisted in the identification of the school's performance and in the assessment of needs. Ownership of the process by the school's education partners could enhance the commitment to the school improvement process. Inspectorate involvement validated the process, while also sustaining an overview of the strengths and weaknesses of the education system as a whole (ibid., 50). Implementation of the process will require approval by the teachers through the Teachers' Unions.

### **2.4.3 Boards of Management**

Prior to the nineties the majority of secondary schools, although predominantly state funded were privately owned, mainly by religious bodies, and also managed by them (Coolahan, 1994, 23; O'Buachalla, 1988, 391). As such, the owners were major contributors to the provision of education. This changed with the decline in religious vocations, and the increasing numbers of requests for new forms of schooling from minority groups as outlined in chapter 1. Contributions to the discussion of these issues at the NEC (Coolahan, 1994, 23) informed and guided policy.

The policy approach considered carefully the sensitivities of the religious owners of schools who contributed enormously to education in Ireland, (Coolahan, 1994, 23) and

who considered the religious ethos as core to the philosophy of the schools. Policy incorporating safeguards for the promotion of a distinctive ethos and set of values for individual schools was recognised as a concern for the majority of parents and educators (DE, 1995, 146). Thus, the approach to policy is clearly defined as responding to "...the diversity of school types, ownership and management structures..." (ibid., 145). This is balanced with the consideration of "...reflecting the plurality of Irish society, including the rights and needs of minority groups." (ibid.) The approach is rooted in the philosophical principles of partnership and accountability.

The framework for the policy clarified the responsibilities of the "...patrons/trustees/owners/governors to maintain and promote a distinctive ethos in their schools and to ensure practical means to discharge this responsibility" (DE, 1995, 146). The Board of Management has the responsibility for "...the management and provision of education in schools" (ibid.). The school principal and staff are charged with the responsibility of achieving the objectives of the school (ibid.).

The Board of Management has a statutory obligation of ensuring that the needs of students in their care are addressed, that the quality of education provided meets the Department guidelines and that procedures are in place to ensure accountability to all the partners. Staff development needs should be identified and addressed (ibid., 147).

The Board of Management is the legal employer of teachers, except in the case of existing arrangements such as with the Vocational Education Committees (VECs). The Board is responsible for the appointment of teachers in accordance with the selection procedures laid down by the DE. They will have the authority to terminate teachers' contracts in accordance with prescribed rules and the relevant statutory requirements.

#### **2.4.4 Special Education Needs and Psychological Services**

Although the rights of children to education is enshrined in the Irish Constitution 1937, and Ireland ratified the 1989 UN Convention of the Rights of the Child, there are children who are denied their rights because of lack of policy, and commitment.

The policy objective was, "...to ensure a continuum of provision for special educational needs...." (DE, 1995, 24). This involved considering degrees of

integration, ranging from occasional help within the ordinary school to full-time education in a special school or unit. Providing flexibility of provision, which required an appropriate curriculum, support staff and INSET for the teaching staff in the school.

The Schools Psychological Service has been expanded to The National Educational Psychological Service (NEPS) as an executive agency of the DES. Its function is to assist teachers in assessing students with learning difficulties, and at national level in policy development for students with special needs. A system of teaching support, and special needs assistants for special needs students in mainstream has been resourced by the Department (DES, 1998a, 39). The NCCA developed guidelines for curriculum development for students with mild, moderate, severe, and profound learning disabilities, drawing on best practice, nationally and internationally, facilitating linkages with the mainstream curricula, while also taking account of resource implications (NCCA, 1999c, 24). These guidelines enable parents, teachers, and other professionals working with students in his/her educational career to have a common understanding of the aims and purposes of the educational experience (ibid., 43).

The purpose of the Education Act (1998) is “to make provision for the education of every person in the state including any person with a disability or who has other special educational needs...” (Government of Ireland, 1998, 5). Sections of the Act relate to issues of equality of access, as the right of children including those with a disability, and of adults and particularly those adults who could not avail of education in schools in their youth, to educational opportunities appropriate to their needs and abilities (ibid., 32).

Providing choice for people with special education needs in a climate of integration where feasible will require commitment to resourcing schools with appropriately trained teaching staff, support staff, and equipment. Given the poor level of resourcing until recently it will necessitate prioritisation to make up the shortfall (Coolahan, 1994, 124).



#### **2.4.5 Home School Community Liaison Scheme**

Educational disadvantage was defined in the Education Act (1998) is "... the impediment to education arising from social or economic disadvantage which prevents students from deriving appropriate benefit from education in schools." (Government of Ireland, 1998, 32) A preventative strategy was proposed in the WP (1995) in the form of support proposed for parent-school collaboration (DE, 1995, 141).

In the early nineties the Home School Community Liaison Scheme was established in 55 primary schools, in designated areas of urban disadvantage. The scheme was extended to 13 second level schools in 1991 which served the students who already had the service at primary school. The success of the project led to its broader implementation with 85 second level schools involved in 1999.

The scheme employs a national coordinator who supports the development of the scheme. A full-time co-ordinator at local level liaises with the school or a number of schools, the home and the local community. The scheme aimed to enable greater participation of students in school, particularly those at risk of dropping out of school. There was particular emphasis on supporting and encouraging parents to enhance their son/daughter's educational progress. Courses are provided to build the confidence of parents, and to assist them in understanding the process of schooling.

In-service training is provided for teachers who are appointed to the scheme. Principals are also offered information meetings, for induction and to information updates on changes in the scheme.

#### **2.5 Changes in the Organisation of the Teaching Career**

The WP (1995) eventuated in the need to implement major reforms within the schools. The extent and effectiveness of the reforms would be determined mainly by the competence and commitment of the school management structure and the teaching staff. Improved conditions of service and where necessary salary levels, will improve the morale of teachers (OECD, 1989, 72). It is also suggested that where poor promotion prospects exist, other ways of providing for professional satisfaction is

through INSET and an improved career structure. Issues relating to the implementation of the policy on INSET are explored in chapters 3, 4 and 5.

Policy issues to improve the teaching career structure were addressed in the context of achieving the key policy targets of the WP. Some of the targets have been discussed above such as school development planning, whole school evaluation, curriculum change, and the legislative framework. The following were also identified as key developments in achieving the policy targets:

- Restructuring of posts of responsibilities, including appointment procedures;
- Targeted deployment of resources to areas of greatest need;
- Greater teacher mobility and flexibility in the development of teachers, in the context, for example, of demographic changes curricular needs and changing patterns of school size;
- Extension of the Teachers' Conciliation and Arbitration Scheme to include the conditions of service of teachers;
- Schemes of early retirement, job sharing and career breaks;
- Comprehensive welfare service for teachers (DE, 1995, 133).

Greater flexibility has been evident in the secondment of some teachers for the provision of INSET on the introduction of new programmes and syllabi to schools. Agreement was reached with the Unions on the extension of the Teachers' Conciliation and Arbitration Scheme to include the conditions of service of teachers, the inclusion of other grades of teachers as well as wholetime teachers, and an independent chairperson for the process (TUI News, 1999,1). The national wage agreements, *Programme for Competitiveness and Work*, 1996 and *Partnership 2000* provided the agreed framework for improved pay and conditions for teachers in the nineties (Healy, 1996, 22-29).

### **2.5.1 Appointment of Posts of Responsibility**

In recognition of the need for improved school leadership to manage the breadth of change in the system improved career structures and increased pay for post holders was proposed in the National Programme for Competitiveness and Work. (Healy, 1996, 9). The title for vice-principal was changed to deputy principal, the A-post holders to

Assistant Principal and B-post holders to Special Duties teacher, with corresponding increase in responsibility and pay. Additional Assistant Principals and Special Duties Posts were made available based on the number of approved teacher posts in the school (ibid.,31).

### **2.5.2 A Teacher Welfare Service**

The White Paper (1995) proposed the establishment of a welfare service to support teachers experiencing professional difficulties. A model of a welfare/support service was commenced in 1998 and was piloted for two years. Ten employee Assistance Officers, who are seconded teachers were employed in the project on a regional basis (ICDU, 2000).

## **2.6 Conclusion**

This chapter outlined the progression in the educational policy process in the early nineties to the publication of the White Paper (1995). The significance of consultation and public debate, and in particular the role of the NEC (1993) in changing perspectives was stressed. The change in emphasis from the GP to the WP where a philosophical framework provided the principles for educational change reflecting the climate of societal change, was discussed.

Implementing the policy placed many demands on the system and on the teaching profession in particular. At senior cycle three new programmes were introduced, each recommending improved methodology, and new forms of assessment, and a vocational orientation of the programme. At junior cycle the new JC Examination was introduced, and two new subjects were added to the curriculum. Greater emphasis was placed on active learning methodologies, and in some subject areas new forms of assessment were introduced. New initiatives were introduced to support students from disadvantaged backgrounds to stay in school longer. Retention rates were improved. Organisational changes were introduced for improved school management, including boards of management, school development planning and whole school evaluation. The National Educational Psychological Service was established to provide for students with special needs, and to support teachers working with these students in mainstream.

As an incentive, changes were introduced to the teaching career offering restructuring of posts of responsibility, and greater flexibility on career breaks and secondment. A comprehensive welfare system for teachers experiencing personal difficulties was also introduced. The necessity for teacher development to support curriculum development was acknowledged. There was need for teachers to update their knowledge, and skills in their subject areas and in education theory and practice as human knowledge and understanding in these areas advanced. There was also the need for teachers to explore their changing role in the context of societal change, and the corresponding educational reform. Policy on INSET was articulated in the White Paper (1995), in the next chapter that policy is outlined and analysed.



## **Chapter 3**

### **Development of Policy on INSET**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

Changes in the different societal spheres as outlined in Chapter 1 may be seen positively as providing new opportunities and creative challenges, or negatively as threatening and upsetting for teachers. Each school is likely to be struggling with varying degrees of both perspectives, and also aiming to reflect societal changes in the work of the school, so that it does not become irrelevant to the lives of the students. Responding to a changing environment, both in society and within the curriculum as outlined in chapter 2 needs to be supported by new insights, skills and pedagogy within the teaching profession, to provide each student with the educational opportunity to which s/he is entitled.

This chapter outlines the policy development processes in relation to INSET; from the time of the Report of the CIE (1984) to the White Paper 1995. Policy outcomes are identified, and analysed in subsequent chapters.

There are a number of commonalities in the documents that are accepted as norms for the context of the discussion, such as the appreciation of the professional, caring and committed service of teachers to Irish society. There is general agreement that the case for in-service education has been well accepted and that teacher education should be seen as a continuum of initial training, induction and in-service training. Within the Department there is a need for a structural and financial framework to oversee the provision of in-service education. In planning there needs to be a balance between the needs of the system and the individual needs of the teacher. Support should be provided for the individual teachers to develop themselves as persons capable of adapting to the changing circumstances, while also improving their professional competencies in the area of skills and pedagogy. This requires a commitment from the teacher to lifelong learning .

### **3.1 The Committee on In-service Education (1984)**

A Committee on In-service Education was established in 1980 in response to teacher dissatisfaction with INSET (Coolahan, 1989, 52). The Committee constituted representatives from the Department of Education, the Teachers' Unions, the Joint Managerial Board for Secondary Schools, Teacher Training Colleges, and the Association of Primary Teaching Sisters, and in its deliberations were informed by seventy three submissions from interested parties (CIE, 1984, 1). Its function was, "To identify priority areas of in-service training for teachers and to make recommendations to the Department". (ibid.). The definition of in-service education accepted by the Committee was that defined in the James Report, and quoted in the introduction to this thesis (page two), was broad including both professional and personal development.

The Report (1984) presented the background to INSET in Ireland, the value of and need for in-service education, the issues in relation to catering for the personal and professional needs of teachers, the administration of INSET, the need for incentives and enablements, and the resourcing of INSET provision.

The Report commented on the paradoxical situation whereby in previous decades the provision of in-service education declined rather than grew, whilst the need increased in almost every area of teaching. The most urgent task identified was the establishment of a structure to provide a comprehensive system of INSET. It proposed the establishment of a National Council, supported by local councils for INSET.

The Committee considered that Teachers' Centres established in the seventies had a pivotal role to play both as a venue for courses and meetings and as a resource centre with facilities for education work and for the exhibition of work from schools and textbooks from publishers (ibid., 3-8).

The Committee wrote of the "sweeping changes" of the personal, social, cultural and economic contexts of schools. They addressed the issues of the exponential growth in knowledge in the human sciences, the changing role of the teacher in shaping and renewing the education system, and the increase in teaching related stress. They

considered that, “In-service training has become a right and a necessity for all teachers”. (ibid., 11)

The changing social context, the Committee stressed, affects both teachers and students. Teachers will be required to be flexible in their attitudes and to re-assess long held values in order to accommodate new attitudes among students to school authority, culture etc. Aspects of in-service education should facilitate teachers in personal growth in understanding values and to “...cope with the conflicting values which emerge in a rapidly changing society.” (ibid., 20). Teachers through INSET can contribute to curriculum review and evaluation which should be constantly occurring. Attempts at curriculum change in the past have been unsuccessful because there was not adequate inservice education for teachers involved (ibid., 22).

The Committee recommended a number of areas of prioritisation of INSET over the following years for continued effectiveness in responding to the changing needs of society. They were as follows:

- A continual review of teaching methodology, including the use of educational technology;
- Continuous assessment by the teacher within school;
- School administration and management;
- Teaching students with special education needs;
- Personal and professional renewal of teachers;
- University courses to develop well-informed and creative persons at all levels within the system (ibid., 49-51).

It was clearly outlined that sufficient funds should be made available to enable a National Council for In-service Education to be established and to function effectively to respond to local and national needs for INSET. The Report proposed that the Department of Education admit “...the principle that in-service education cannot be effected merely by means of activities organised outside school time.” (ibid., 32)

However, there was lack of political action on the report because it was not seen as a priority in a time of economic problems (Coolahan, 1988). This inaction showed

considerable short sightedness on behalf of the Department that appointed the Committee. It also reflected the lack of direction and strategic planning in the Department of Education which proceeded to produce extensive education policy, for which successful implementation of changed curriculum, pedagogy and assessment would require a cohesive programme of INSET. Neither the structures nor policy for in-service education were in place, which resulted in each curriculum innovation devising its own INSET model without due cognisance of good practice already established, particularly from the Irish Humanities programme and ISCIP.<sup>2</sup>

### **3.2 OECD Review Related to the Teaching Profession (1991)**

Subsequently, the Government invited the OECD to review Irish education with particular reference to teacher education and the teaching profession. The Report published in 1991 stressed the need for an integrated and cohesive approach to initial teacher training, induction and in-service.

We believe that the best returns from further investment in education will come from the careful planning and construction of a nationwide induction and in-service system using the concept of a teaching career as the foundation. (OECD, 1991, 98).

The Report also concluded that there were eminently qualified personnel available to provide INSET, but the required structures were lacking partly due to financial constraints, and also because of the need for detailed policy planning on how best to establish the necessary structures (*ibid.*, 98). The OECD concurred with many of the submissions made to it supporting the idea for a national agency as they considered it necessary for the system transformation which they had outlined (*ibid.*, 107). The submissions also sought long term targets for continuing education and training for teachers to span the length of the teaching career over four decades in total. A national policy framework was recommended to provide for a variety of forms of INSET to address the varying needs of all teachers, and also include an appropriate evaluation component (*ibid.*, 107).

The OECD recommended that the inspectorate not have a direct role in organising and delivering INSET. Their role in improving the quality of administration and teaching in schools could be better served by continuing to be a source of information and advice

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<sup>2</sup> These were two programmes conducted by the CDU at Shannon and Dublin in the seventies.



for teachers and principals "...about the nature and content of the curriculum and other requirements placed on the schools by the Department." (OECD, 1991, 106)

In the main, the OECD report concurred with the recommendations from the CIE (1984) except for the recommendation that each teacher have one term of INSET every five to ten years, and that it be made available on a voluntary and participative basis, the OECD found this a very rigid approach to cope with the emerging training needs. The two principles of career-long education and training and the need for structures to co-ordinate and plan the provision were upheld. The OECD emphasised the constraints of lack of policy in the system (ibid., 98).

### **3.3 The Green Paper: Education for a Changing World (1992)**

As discussed in the previous chapter the Government published its *Green Paper* in June 1992. In relation to teaching it reported that research had shown that the complex and demanding job of teaching "...requires high quality initial training and preparation supported by in-career development to meet continually changing demands" (DE, 1992, 163). The rationale for INSET is that it will improve the quality of teaching by improving teachers' professional competence, and it will update their knowledge and skills in response to the changing needs of education provision. INSET would also contribute to enhancing teachers' motivation and to assisting them in responding to the changing role of the school in the community (ibid., 166). Many of the issues for discussion mirror those highlighted in the Report from the CIE (1984), as discussed above.

The GP proposed a greatly expanded provision with a variety of modes of INSET, but the details on this provision are scant. The proposals to strengthen in-service education seem to be guided by the recommendations from the CIE (ibid., 166). It is also proposed that conditions of service for teachers be considered in conjunction with salary, and that the conciliation and arbitration scheme be extended to include this.

The GP points out that a specialist unit would be established in the Department of Education to co-ordinate and guide the work of the Department in relation to in-service education (ibid., 167). The unit would liaise with a subcommittee of the National

Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA), and with other relevant interested bodies concerned with funding for the provision of in-service training. The inspectorate would have an overall monitoring role in the unit. The emphasis was on support for teachers within their own school identifying their development needs (ibid., 166). This would be matched with training on policy and curricular initiatives which would be part-funded from the EC Structural Fund programme which commenced in 1994.

The specialist unit proposed was a diminutive structure of that recommended by the CIE (1984), as it was claimed that available resources should be spent on training rather than on enlarged administrative structures. The remit of the unit was weakened by the lack of representation from the relevant sectors and lack of independence from the Department. The Unit which was established is discussed further in section 3.8.

### **3.4 The Report on the National Education Convention (1994)**

The Report of the National Education Convention (1994) discussed many of the wide-ranging aspects of the teaching profession, supporting many proposals from the GP, and also highlighted other pertinent issues. Wide support was recorded for the policy proposal in the GP which viewed the teaching career as a continuum (Coolahan, 1994, 85). A guiding principle and approach for the discussions on the teaching profession was, "The quality, morale and status of the teaching profession are of central importance to the achievement of desired reforms in the decades ahead" (ibid., 85).

In the view of this researcher this approach was very significant and timely, because it acknowledged the personal and psychological aspects of the teaching profession. Morale is a concept related to the motivation of the group for the work. It is governed by many variables including, the nature of the job, job satisfaction, the working environment, working conditions, salary, security, internal and external pressures etc (Riches 1997, 92). Placing the concepts of morale and status to the forefront, alongside quality was timely when many teachers were experiencing high levels of stress due to 'workload, being undervalued and having insufficient resources with which to work' (Council of Teachers' Unions, 1991, 10). The approach recognised that improving the system involved the Department creating the conditions for improved morale as well as teachers improving their performance.

Other important recommendations arising from the discussions were the need to evaluate existing INSET to guide future policy, the provision of a variety of forms including school based INSET, a co-ordinating agency to prioritise provision, the use of new technologies for distance education, and improved incentives and rewards for teachers attending INSET.

Recommendations were also made on improving the teaching career, the need for support staff was stressed (ibid. 85). It was proposed that early intervention mechanisms for under-performing teachers were needed, as well as incentives to retain skilled teachers in the classroom. The system of secondment for curricular planning was recommended as a good model to be explored further. The inclusion of conditions of service of teachers in the conciliation and arbitration scheme for teachers as proposed in the Green Paper was supported.

The focusing of the discussion on the issues pertinent to INSET laid good foundations for the policy document.

### **3.5 The White Paper; Charting Our Education Future (1995)**

The White Paper (WP) (1995) derived its policy from the blending and development of the well researched and widely supported recommendations from the reports cited above. The approach to policy on INSET was to provide a wide range of measures and a variety of providers, through decentralised structures, encouraging a high level of participation in the process (DE, 1995, 128).

The structural domain of the policy provided for an In-career Development Unit within the Department to centrally co-ordinate the provision with the education boards and the Education Centres to address local needs.

The Paper stated that a strategic framework would guide all the work of the Department on INSET. Following best management practice it would set objectives, identify target groups, establish a mechanism for identifying training needs, provide guidelines on best practice, and promote research and evaluation (ibid., 129).

The WP set out the following as priorities for INSET :

- Management for principals and middle management;
- School based training on school development planning;
- Major curricular changes in the junior and senior cycles;
- The creative and performing arts;
- Teaching of scientific and technological subjects;
- Oral emphasis in the Irish language and continental languages;
- Identification of students with learning difficulties and special needs;
- Training of boards of management and parent associations (ibid., 130).

To combat sexual stereotyping within the education system modules on gender equality were to be an important feature of all courses. The methodology for INSET would aim to promote collegiality and co-operation among staffs.

This researcher considers that the WP comprehensively addressed the rationale, the approach to strategy, the priorities, the organisational structures and the evaluation and monitoring of INSET. It developed the policy directions on the conditions of service of teachers and sets targets for achieving these. A significant strength of the document was that it was informed by the public debate among the key partners in education, possibly with the exception of the school going cohort. Having the policy, however, is a stage in the policy process the next crucial stage is implementation, which at first required an operational programme for each of the policy objectives. This involves many different actors at various stages determining the extent to which implementation occurs. It is beyond the scope of this study to analyse each of the objectives, but aspects of the implementation of INSET are analysed in chapters 4 and 5.

### **3.6 Legislation Affecting INSET**

The legislative framework discussed in chapter 2 also provided for the rights of teachers to in-service education, and the responsibility of the Department, and other bodies in this regard. The following section outlines where these responsibilities lie.

### **3.6.1 The Education Act, (1998)**

The Education Act (1998) legislated for in-service education support in five sections, in the function of the Minister for Education and Science, schools, the inspectorate, the principal, and the NCCA.

A function of the Minister is to provide funding for support services and Education Centres (Government of Ireland, 1998, 11). The school is required to make resources available for staff development needs in general (ibid., 13). A number of functions of the inspectorate relate indirectly to INSET but in particular the inspector is required to "...advise teachers and boards of management in respect of the performance of their duties, and, in particular assist teachers in employing improved methods of teaching and conducting classes..."(ibid., 16). The principal, is required, with the support of the staff and board of management, to provide a school environment which promotes professional development of the teachers (ibid., 24). The NCCA was appointed to advise the Minister in relation to INSET (ibid., 36). There are many other functions of the NCCA in relation to curriculum planning, design, evaluation and research that also directly involve teachers, and as such will contribute towards their professional development.

### **3.6.2 The Teaching Council Act (2001)**

Included in the aim of the Teaching Council Act 2001 was the promotion of teaching and the promotion of the professional development of teachers. The Council is required to conduct research into "...the continuing education and professional development of teachers....and promote awareness among the public and the teaching profession of the benefits of continuing education and training..." (Government of Ireland, 2001, 27). The Council will be required to review and accredit in-service courses, and to perform other functions relating to in-service education as advised by the Minister (ibid., 27).

Seventeen years after the publication of the Report of the CIE legislation been enacted to provide for the development and implementation of a comprehensive policy on in-service education.

### **3.7 The In-career Development Unit**

The establishment of the ICDU in the Department in 1994, and the substantial development of the Education Centres have catered for the structural domain of the policy for in-career development for second level teachers. Funding from the European Social Funding under the Trainers of Trainers measure of the European Union Resources Development Programme from 1994-1999, contributed 75 percent of the total costs (Bennis, 2001).

The central role of the inspectorate in the delivery of in-service education was not sustainable as the system expanded and the rate of change increased (OECD, 1991; DE 1992). The role delegated to the ICDU was to co-ordinate, develop, manage and evaluate the national programme of in-career development (ibid.).

The vision for the Unit outlined in 1994 was to "...ensure that a coherent framework for in-career development is established in the Irish educational system. The motivating force for this is the entitlement of all Irish children and adults to education of the highest quality."(Clancy, 1994). The Unit aimed at being proactive in the provision of in-service education. It had to respond to needs arising out of issues of policy, system needs, and to the professional development needs of teachers. These needs are not mutually exclusive (ibid.). Having good communication within the Unit, between the Unit and other sections of the Department, with interested parties outside the Unit and with the general public was considered necessary if the Unit was to operate effectively (ibid.).

At the time of its foundation the priority areas included curriculum changes, school management, training of trainers, special education needs, educational disadvantage, Vocational Training Opportunities Scheme, Youthreach, and Post Leaving Certificate Courses. It was considered that a variety of responses to these needs would be necessary, ranging from long-term courses leading to certification, short refresher courses, to the establishment of support networks. A range of methodologies would also be necessary to meet these needs, which would be determined by the particular group of teachers, and consistent with good practice (ibid.,). The Unit established the criteria for the evaluation of the provision, the methodologies to be employed, and the

purpose for which the evaluation would be used. The variety of provision and the evaluations to date are analysed in chapter Four.

The Unit recognised the constraints of working with schools in terms of time for in-service, closure of schools, and substitution. It was acknowledged that in the past almost all in-service was conducted outside school hours, either after school or during school holidays. It was agreed that a situation where in-service education depended on the goodwill of teachers only was not sustainable. A balance was needed between courses held during school time and after school to address the needs of the individual and the system (Clancy, 2001).

The Department agree that the provision of trained substitutes for teachers attending INSET must be facilitated. At present substitution is allowed where it is essential, in the case of national programmes of in-service education, on application to the ICDU (ICDU, 2000). The current system is unsatisfactory for schools, teachers and the Department, where school management is pressurised by parents because class contact time is being lost. Teachers are unhappy with losing class time, though valuing the INSET opportunity, but not compensated for work outside of the normal class preparation and delivery. One suggestion arising during discussions is to pay teachers for attending in-service education (Clancy, 2001). This could have many advantages for the system, if it encouraged more teachers to attend INSET, and if a greater variety of in-service education opportunities were offered, leading to positive outcomes for the students.

The ICDU funds courses organised to cater for the needs of the system, with a proportion of the budget to be allocated for individual schools or associations. Education Centres receive a block grant for activities organised in response to local needs.

Based on the interviews with Department staff for this research work it is clear that the policy in the White Paper for the Unit has not been fully implemented, in that the primary and the post-primary advisory committees have not been established. The proposed policy development committee is being developed as part of the business plan in the Strategic Management Initiative (Bennis, 2001). Since the decentralisation

through education boards has not been achieved, as the education boards have not been established, the ICDU remains centralised in its approach. Decentralisation through education boards would have greatly relieved the workload of introducing new programmes and syllabi nationwide. The current situation where the support service is based in the Education Centres and their responsibility in addressing local needs is discussed below.

### **3.8 Education Centres**

The first Education Centres, formerly known as Teachers' Centres were established in 1972 when a new Primary School Curriculum had been introduced (Coolahan, 1989, 52) and an expansion of syllabus and in-service education provision at second level had taken place (ICDU, 2000). The Centres were managed by Teachers, and the main functions of them was to provide INSET, education resources and to provide a venue for meetings for teachers.

Since the establishment of the ICDU, Education Centres have been given a more central role in the delivery of training programmes organised to respond to the system needs. It is envisaged that the Centres will play an expanded role by providing development programmes for teachers, parents and boards of management within the context of the organisation and management of schools at local level (ICDU, 2000). There are twenty full-time centres operational and ten part-time ones. The map of Ireland (page 67) shows the distribution of the centres. There was a capital programme under the EU Regional Development Fund, of £10million in place from 1994-2000 to complete buildings for new centres, seven are already completed (ibid.). The part-time centre in Bandon is due to be replaced by a fulltime centre in Dunmanway in Autumn 2001 (Bennis, 2001).

The Centres operate under guidelines determined by the Department. A Management Committee elected annually by local teachers directs the work of Centres. An annual report is produced. Each full time Centre has a full time Director who is a seconded teacher. Annual grants are paid by the ICDU towards the provision of services, for the salary of the Director, the honorarium for the Part-time Director, for administrative assistance and for rent if necessary. Centres may also receive additional grants for the provision of local courses and for national in-service activities. Centres are actively

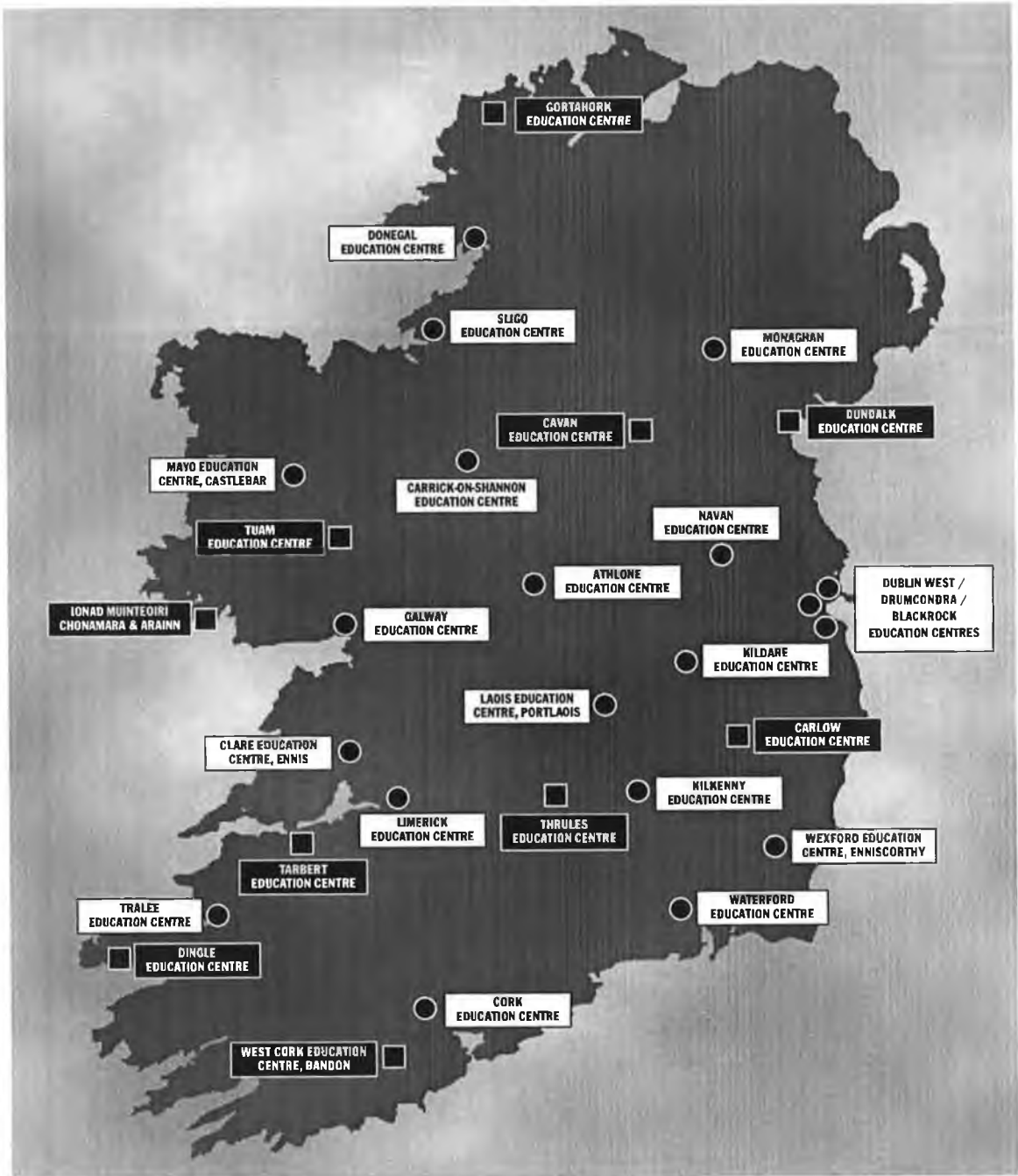


encouraged to generate funds for themselves through selling resources, sponsorship and other projects (ibid.). A review of the number location and function of the centres is currently being conducted by the Centre for Management, Organisation and Development in the Department of Finance. The report to be published in Autumn 2001 will make recommendations on the current provision of Education Centres (ICDU 2000).

The range of activities organised by Centres varies and is influenced by a number of factors such as resources, and the support from local teachers. Some Centres have been involved in national initiatives; this is discussed in more detail in chapter 5. In general, Centres are involved in providing courses and activities at various levels in response to system and local needs. The accessibility of the Centres for some teachers is an issue that needs to be addressed, for example one of the largest schools in the country, Carndonagh in Co. Donegal is over 100km miles from the nearest full-time Centre.

# Distribution of Education Centres

MAP 1



● FULL-TIME EDUCATION CENTRES (20)

(DES, 2001, 18-20)

■ PART-TIME EDUCATION CENTRES (10)

### **3.9 Conclusion**

The Report of the CIE (1984) presented the rationale, aims and objectives of INSET. It recommended that a most urgent task was the establishment of a structure to provide a comprehensive system of INSET, with adequate funding. Further research by the OECD (1991) reiterated the recommendations and advised that they should be implemented in the context of an overarching education policy. The policy outlined in the WP presented the rationale, set priorities and recommended organisational structures and modes of monitoring and evaluation of INSET. There was a consistency on the many aspects of INSET between recommendations from the CIE (1984) and the policy in the White Paper(1995).

Implementation of the recommendations has lacked direction and co-ordination during the nineties. The WP proposed that education boards would be involved in devising a comprehensive programme of INSET in the local area. This policy was not implemented. The role of co-ordination has remained with the ICDU. The advisory committees to support the Unit have not been established. Progression on some of the structures for the ICDU has been slow. There has been only limited linkage between the ICDU and the third level colleges on their role in the provision of INSET. There has been improved funding for the Education Centres to enhance the facilities available, and many of them are also partners in the provision of INSET for national programmes.

Strategic planning with all the relevant partners for a comprehensive programme of INSET has not taken place, partly because of the workload involved in delivering INSET for the national programmes/syllabi being introduced. The OECD, discussed in chapter 2 of this thesis, also identified this situation of work overload in 1991 as a problem. More recently, the Cromien Report (2000), an internal Department document<sup>3</sup> reviewing the role of the Department, pointed to the need for the Department to focus on the core issue of policy development, and to allocate responsibility for INSET to a separate agency (Oliver, 2000).

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<sup>3</sup> A copy of the document was not available to the researcher.

The Education Act 1998 and the Teaching Council Act 2001 have provided the necessary under-pining which should enable a more strategic approach to address local needs to be adapted. The nature of the providers and the characteristics of this provision is the subject of the following chapters.

The OECD (1989, 82) recommended that improving conditions of service and where necessary salary levels can improve the morale of teachers. The Report suggested that providing professional satisfaction by means of opportunities for professional development within an improved career structure could compensate for the poor promotion prospects generally found in teaching.

From the many discussions summarised above on INSET there is a consensus that a national policy on in-career development is necessary in order to sustain the motivation competence and professionalism of teachers. It is also agreed that in-service education be seen as a continuum building on the foundations of initial teacher training, and induction (ICE, 1984; OECD,1991; DE 1995; Coolahan 1994).

The ICDU structure as it exists is responding to immediate demands of the system, but is not proactive in communicating with the teaching profession to encourage greater participation in INSET. However, many initiatives have been established during the nineties that have shown evolution in the thinking on INSET during the decade, these are discussed and analysed in the next two chapters.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Structures for the Provision of INSET**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

A number of the documents cited above concur that the case for good quality in-service education for teachers is well made, and that implementation of the educational policy of the White Paper (1995) requires appropriate structures and the most effective modes of delivery (Coolahan, 1994, 87; Hyland and Hanafin, 1997, 144).

This chapter explores the range of providers and the main forms of provision of INSET. As such, it is a descriptive chapter, drawing together the various strands of the INSET story of the last decade. Unless stated otherwise they are funded by the In-career Development Unit through the European Union's Operational Programme for Human Resource Development (Bennis, 2001).

#### **4.1 Support Structures for Teachers of the Junior Certificate Cycle**

##### **4.1.1 The Junior Certificate Schools Programme**

The Junior Certificate Schools Programme (JCSP) Support Team is located in the Curriculum Development Unit of the City of Dublin Vocational Education Committee, where it is jointly managed by the Unit, Trinity College and the DES. The team employs one full-time co-ordinator and a part-time development officer (JCSP, 1996).

An information service is provided for schools interested in joining the programme, but participation has to be restricted due to the limited number of staff to provide INSET. National and regional meetings for JCSP school co-ordinators are held to discuss implementation issues. INSET is provided on a range of topics to whole school staffs and to teams of teachers within schools. It is based on the principle that good teaching practice should include a feedback mechanism to the student. The Support Team provides guidance on issues related to teaching, when requested, thus providing the teacher and pupil with 'education for success' (Cassidy, 1997, 158). Issues covered in INSET were assessment, methodologies on team building, facilitation, cross-curricular

work, and approaches to teaching students with literacy and numeracy difficulties. Other generic topics included curriculum development, computer skills for JCSPE, and thinking skills. Joint courses were organised with national bodies, providing out of school learning opportunities, such as, the Abbey Theatre and the Irish Museum of Modern Art. The Support Team produced appropriate resources to support the implementation of the programme.

The development of home-school links to actively involve parents in their childrens' education and to support the transition from primary school to second level, was an important part of the work of the Support Team. Active parental involvement increases the possibility of the child remaining in school (Cassidy, 1997, 159).

#### **4.1.2 Civic, Social and Political Education**

The CSPE Support Service established in 1993 was located in Dublin West Education Centre. A Co-ordinator and six Regional Trainers, seconded teachers, were employed on a full-time basis. They were assisted by a core group of teachers (25 in 1996) released for a maximum of eight days to provide in-service training (Hammond and McCarthy, 1996).

The Support Service was appointed to introduce CSPE to all schools and in particular to CSPE teachers. The introduction of CSPE is unique to the second level sector because of a lack of a teaching cohort with a degree qualification in the subject, or who considered they had adequate academic background in the subject. The INSET focused on the design of a CSPE programme for a school, implementing Action Projects with the students, and discussion on cross-curricular opportunities within the school (ibid.).

During the pilot phase 1993-1996 a range of models of in-career development were offered. INSET consisted of national, regional, local and school focused courses. Suitable resource materials were identified by the Support Service, and recommended to schools. Exemplar materials were produced, and the Support Service aimed to support schools in the generation of their own resource materials. A Pilot Project Newsletter was published, one each term for two years, which was a vehicle for exchanging views, experiences and information between schools (ibid.).

In 1997, when CSPE was introduced nationally the provision was reviewed and the preferred option was for cluster group INSET, supported by school based INSET where requested (ibid.). A postgraduate qualification in CSPE offering a Higher Diploma at university level was also deemed necessary. From the academic year 1997, the course was offered in two of the National Universities of Ireland, Cork and Maynooth. The DES provided fee support for teachers registering on these courses.

#### **4.1.3 Social Personal and Health Education**

The National Support Service Centre for the introduction and implementation of SPHE established in 2000 is based in the Marino Institute of Education. It was developed in partnership between DES, the Department of Health and Children and the Health Boards. A national Co-ordinator and ten Regional Development Officers were appointed. Their function is to introduce SPHE in a health promoting schools context and to support elements of SPHE already being implemented in the schools, for example RSE and the substance abuse prevention programmes (Lahiffe, 2000).

The RSE programme of school support has been underway since 1996, and INSET was provided to teachers for the implementation of the programme. INSET was both school-based and out of school in cluster meetings.

#### **4.2 Support Structures for Teachers of the Senior Cycle**

Support Services were established for the introduction of the new programmes, TY, LCA and the LCVP to assist schools in developing strategies for the new aspects of these programmes which can be generically classified as:

- Preparing students for the world of work;
- Employing the community as a teaching and learning resource;
- Developing school- local employment links;
- Designing and planning the curriculum;
- Developing cross-curricular dimensions of the programme;
- Enhancing teaching and learning in subject areas;
- Assessment of students and evaluation of the programme.

(Fitzmaurice, et al, 2000,13; DES, 1993; NCCA, 1995)

The specific function and location of each of the services is detailed below.

#### **4.2.1 Transition Year Support Service**

The Support Service for TY evolved from the Transition Year (TY) Co-ordinators Network founded in 1988. In 1993 an 'Action Group' of five experienced teachers, representing a balance of school types, was appointed to work with a team of Department inspectors to develop the TY In-Career Development programme. Based on a 'training of trainers' model the action team trained sixty three teachers who were appointed as Regional (1993) Co-ordinators to work with schools in their regions. The Regional Co-ordinators were released periodically from their schools and trained on a specific issue on which they conducted training in the schools within their region (Lewis and McMahon, 1996). A requirement for schools offering TY in 1994/1995 was participation of the school in "... programmes of staff development/in-service education which will be locally and regionally based." (DE, 1993).

The Support Service under DE guidance, based in the Blackrock Education Centre, supports schools in the following ways:

- Visiting schools to developing TY programmes;
- Stimulating networking between schools;
- Meeting with parents and students;
- Workshops for co-ordinators and subject teachers;
- Networking with social agencies;
- Organising minicompany trade fairs
- Print and electronic communication to schools providing news updates, resources and promotional material (TY Support Team, 1998).

In 1998 the Support Service was re-named the Transition Year Curriculum Support Service with a new emphasis on curriculum planning. From the national introduction of the Programme in 1994 the central importance of a well written programme was emphasised, but it was not until the school year 99/2000 a guidelines leaflet was published by the Department in association with the Support team titled "Writing the TY Programme" (not dated). The guidelines stressed the importance of including in the content of the school programme the aims, objectives, assessment policy, evaluation



process, outline for subject modules, and organisational details. This was partly in response to evaluation findings showing that teachers need support in relation to the development of policy, content and assessment procedures for TY (Lewis and McMahon, 1996, viii).

Many of the benefits of the TY programme for the students referred to earlier, (chapter 2) could be enhanced with improved programme implementation by the teachers. Greater participation was recommended for the students in assessment, and by both the students and education partners in the evaluation of the course. The evaluations also pointed out that there was limited involvement of parents and the wider community in the planning, delivery and assessment of the programme (ibid.; DE, 1995a, 3).

Financially, each school is supported through receipt of £50 capitation grant per participating student, and an additional Special Duties Post for seventy or more students.

#### **4.2.2 Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme Support Service**

The LCVP Support Service established in 1994 was based in Dublin, but more recently moved to the Navan Education Centre. Currently a full-time National Co-ordinator, five full-time Regional Development Officers and a secretary staff the Service. They provide school based and regional cluster based training for teachers on programme content, active teaching methodologies, and in new technologies (LCVP, 2000).

The induction process for new schools involved whole-day induction meetings for principals, and key staff members, and later during the course of the first year of introduction regional cluster meetings for the co-ordinators and teachers of the programme.

The continuing support offered by the Service included further school based INSET responding to the expressed needs of the school. With view to moving towards more sustainable professional involvement in INSET, Local Networks of teachers and co-ordinators have been developed. These cluster groups meet to discuss their own INSET needs and support each other in the process, guided by one of the Regional Development Officers. Other areas of support are resource production and improving

links and partnerships with the local business and voluntary sector to develop the vocational aspects of the programme.

In addition to the training supports grants are also provided to schools on a once off basis:

- £13,000 for the purchase of computer and communication equipment needed for the implementation of the LCVP or of the LCA;
- £4,000 for the purchase of equipment related to the teaching of the LCVP subject groupings, if the school has not already received this grant in 1989;
- £1,000 for start up consumable resources;
- 0.25 teacher allowance for each group of twenty participating students (Fitzmaurice et al, 2000, 18).

#### **4.2.3 Leaving Certificate Applied Support Service**

The LCA Support Service established in 1995 is based in the Curriculum Development Unit of the City of Dublin Vocational Educational Committee and in the Curriculum Development Centre in St. Patrick's Comprehensive School in Shannon, Co. Clare. There are eight full-time staff and thirty teachers who provide in-career development to LCA teachers, on a part-time basis (DES, 2000b, 18).

The induction process for new schools included a visit to the school by a member of the Support Team for a meeting early in the calendar year with the principal and co-ordinator, and another with the parents. In September national meetings are held for teachers new to the programme in four venues around the country, presenting an overview of the programme, course content, methodology, assessments procedures. For new co-ordinators two-day in-service courses on the role of co-ordinators, funding, management, tasks, and on work experience are provided.

The continuing support involved workshops on subject content and methodology, on approaches to social education and to vocational specialisms. The Support Service which discourages the use of text books was involved in the production of appropriate resources for the programme which included experiential methodologies. The helpline

offered by the Support Service has been a valuable contact for seeking advice on difficulties experienced with the implementation of the programme (Clifford, 2001).

Extra teaching allocations and special grants towards LCA include:

- 1.5 teacher allowance for first twenty group of students;
- 1.25 teacher allowance for each additional group of students;
- £125 per capita;
- £1,000 teaching material;
- £17,000 equipment grant. (DES, 2000b, 18).

#### **4.2.4 The Role of the Education Centres**

As described in chapter 3 there was significant upgrading of facilities at Education Centres which resulted in their enhanced involvement in providing INSET for the implementation of national programmes. Centres, through the management team which included the relevant inspector, run the national programmes. The following is a list of the allocations of INSET programmes for the introduction of new syllabi and programmes at to the various Centres;

- Leaving Certificate Physics and Chemistry – Limerick;
- Leaving Certificate English with an advisory service currently being organised- Laois;
- Junior Certificate Mathematics – Carrick-on-Shannon;
- Biology – Tralee;
- Home Economics- Enniscorthy;
- Religious Education – Galway;
- Second Level Support Service- Blackrock;
- School Development Planning Initiative- based in Marino Institute of Education with a number of Trainers/Advisors based in a number of Education Centres around the country.<sup>4</sup>

The introduction of the new English syllabus for Leaving Certificate was conducted from Laois Education Centre. Commencing in 1998, the programme was initially for

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<sup>4</sup> This researcher acknowledges information received from Kyran Kennedy of the Association of Teacher/Education Centres of Ireland on the allocation of programmes to Centres.

two years, but was extended for a third. This model is typical of how a Support Service conducted a programme of INSET, and is described below.

Thirteen trainers provided INSET throughout the country, supported by one administrator, and a secretary. One day long cluster group meetings of twenty teachers each, two from each school, were held in the first year of the support. The clusters were held until all English teachers had attended one meeting, and were then followed by a half day INSET course for the same cohort. School visits were provided in the second year and third year, with each school offered one visit of up to three hours duration each year (Laois Education Centre, 2001). The Second Level Support team established in 2000 will provide the necessary continuing support for English at Leaving Certificate level (Clancy 2001).

### **4.3 Other Structures Providing INSET**

The structures outlined above were developed to meet training and development objectives of the system as a whole, as new programmes and subjects were introduced. A number of other initiatives funded by the ICDU, some of them established for a number of years and some new ones contributed significantly to INSET in the nineties.

#### **4.3.1 The National Centre for Guidance in Education**

The Centre for Guidance in Education (NCGE) is an agency of the DES, established in 1995, to support and develop guidance practice in education and to contribute to the development of policy on guidance within the Department. The Centre supports the work of guidance counsellors and other educators within all education sectors. Issues relating to supports for work in second level only are discussed here. It offers support in a number of ways as follows:

- Development and evaluation of guidance materials;
- Technical advice and information on guidance practice;
- Promotion, development and dissemination of good practice in guidance;
- Support for innovative guidance projects;
- Support for research into guidance practice and needs;
- Organisation of in-career development needs

- Informing the policy of the Department on matters pertaining to guidance (DES, 1998b, 3).

At second level all staff contribute to a school's guidance programme, and guidance counsellors because of specialist training have a key role in a school's guidance programme. Guidance in schools involves curricular and extra-curricular activities that assist pupils in making choices about their lives and to implement these choices in their education, in their personal and social lives, and in their career decisions (NCGE 2000). The project titled "Guidelines for Practice of Guidance and Counselling in Schools" (1996) highlighted the importance of reviewing the guidance policy of the school. Subsequently, an instrument for the review process was devised and tested in a pilot project in 1999. The review process aimed to clarify the extent to which the school guidance programme was meeting students' needs, and based on the findings recommendations for improvements could be made (DES, 1998b, 3).

An audit of guidance provision in 1999-2000 found that there was considerable under-utilisation of guidance allocation in second level schools, with 23% of secondary schools, 25% of community and comprehensive schools, and 44% of vocational and community colleges under-utilising the allocations. Of the 23% of schools with a school development plan, 75% included a reference to guidance facilities. In general, it was reported that less than 30% of the guidance time in the school was allocated to JC pupils (ibid.). The evidence points to the lack of awareness of resources available in the system, which places some students at a disadvantage and thus denies them their rights as discussed in Chapter 1 under the UN Conventions on the Rights of the Child.

#### **4.3.2 The Teachers' Unions**

The objective of the programmes run by the Teachers' Unions was to enhance the professionalism of the membership, to provide information, to develop teacher competencies, to build relationships among the teaching profession and to disseminate good practice in schools. The programmes provided for a variety of needs including school administration and management, approaches to addressing social issues in the schools and specific curricular issues at second level (ASTI, 1997; TUI, 1998).

The Department approved attendance at the courses, travel and subsistence was paid, but substitution was not provided, so attendance depended on the goodwill of other teaching staff in the school. The venue was usually the Dublin office of the Association of Secondary Teachers of Ireland (ASTI), or the TUI except for a small number held in Education Centres. All participants received a certificate of attendance, on satisfactory completion of the course.

The ASTI has offered a programme of INSET for its members since 1997. On average ten courses were held each year, including a number of Autumn courses repeated in the Spring. In the case of the five day courses, in some circumstances, participants may be certified for a module for the Diploma in Management in Education in TCD. A database of all teachers participating in the course was maintained, and as part of the evaluation process teachers were contacted subsequently to obtain information on progress in developing programmes in their schools.

The TUI, offered on average, eight courses per year, which included some re-runs of courses in different venues around the country. The information courses were usually a half-day or one-day, while the tutor training courses were one or two days duration. The tutors then train other teachers within their own school.

#### **4.3.3 Subject Associations**

The subject associations offered courses to their members updating them on changes in the syllabus, on new methodologies and equipment, to discuss examination papers, and to develop their information and knowledge on their subject. It is beyond the scope of this study to detail the aim of INSET for each of the associations. Taking, one example, The Science Teachers' Association, (ISTA) lectures of scientific interest are offered to members on curriculum development and science policies, on resources and publications, and on relevant scientific developments. Practical workshops are offered on a variety of methodologies. A journal is published tri-annually providing scientific articles and ideas for teaching different topics (ISTA, 1999,9).

Courses offered by Subject Associations vary in duration from an evening lecture to a week of workshops. A variety of models is employed.<sup>5</sup>

#### **4.3.4 Managerial Bodies**

The Association of Management of Catholic Secondary Schools and of the Joint Managerial Body constitutes membership from four hundred and forty voluntary secondary schools. The Secretariat of Secondary Schools established an In-service Development Council in 1991 "...to help meet the emerging need for increased in-service opportunities for schools."

The programme on school leadership the areas of focus for development identified were:

- Curriculum development;
- The creation of a school environment reflecting core values within the schools;
- The development of partnership and participatory approaches;
- Evaluation of school structures and processes; (The Secretariat of Secondary Schools, no date given).

The Council offered INSET to support management in the exercise of leadership in these areas. The courses were open to all second level schools. Courses of three two-day modules were offered for new principals. The aim of this INSET was to introduce principals to greater understanding of their role and responsibility and to examine approaches to leadership. Boards of Management were offered two one-day modules to ensure that members were aware of their responsibilities and were enabled to act more effectively.

The Association of Community and Comprehensive Schools (ACCS) aims to advance educational opportunities for its members including school management, clerical staff, and boards of management. Since 1996 they have provided courses, generally one day duration on a variety of issues: school management; health and safety; financial management; interviewing skills; social issues; and managing students' learning difficulties. Courses are offered regionally (ACCS, 1996-2000).

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<sup>5</sup> This is supported by evidence from the extract from the ESF claims from the ICDU for 1998/1999, and

The National Association of Principals and Deputy Principals (NAPD) since its foundation in 1998 have provided courses for its members on school management and development at a number of centres around the country. In 1999 the provision was enhanced with a range of courses on procedures for implementing a whole school review (ICDU 1999).

#### **4.3.5 Irish Vocational Education Association**

Through funding from the ICDU the Irish Vocational Education Association (IVEA) is committed to providing in-service training conferences and seminars relevant to the needs of members, management, parents of students and staffs throughout the vocational sector. The aim of a number of the seminars conducted was that the participants be informed of the reforming initiatives in Department policy and their implementation at local level within the sector. More generally all of the seminars contribute to sharing of good practice among the partners within the sector (IVEA, 2001).

The IVEA offer one day courses for principals and deputy principals on managing change and leadership issues. A three day conference is held for newly appointed principals and deputy principals. In recent years courses have also been offered on the management of child sexual abuse in school situations.

#### **4.3.6 National Centre for Technology in Education**

As discussed in Chapter 1 with increased computerisation and rapidly changing information and knowledge teachers and students need to be informed, and skilled in the use of modern technology and information. In responding to this need The National Centre for Technology in Education (NCTE) was established in 1997, based at Dublin City University, to establish a permanent information and communication technology (ICT) infrastructure in schools to support teaching and learning. It is funded by the Scientific and Technological Education (Investment) Fund Act 1997, which allocated £25m for the three year period from 1998-2000. The strategy aimed to provide computer hardware and software to all schools, to provide support in using the

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also from the information from the researcher's colleagues at school.



technology and to train teachers in its use. Research into the impact of ICT on teaching and learning will also be conducted.

A programme of INSET on ICT in education was put in place for Summer 1998, and continued during the new academic year. A longer term programme to develop skills to a higher level and also accreditation for attendance and completion of the course was established. A variety of models for whole school staff training were offered to schools (NCTE, 2001, website).

The involvement of teachers in the planning, designing and trials technology project provided opportunities for professional development. The School Integration Project (SIP) involved partner schools/institutions in researching and developing education projects. In some cases commercial companies are joint funders of these projects. The variety of projects reflects many of the aspects of education. The following is a representative sample of the fifty School Integration Projects:

- Technology in teaching: Mathematics; Biology; Junior Certificate Science; Religious Education; English; Learning Support programmes; Music; Modern Languages; History of Art;
- Technology in supporting the LCA programme;
- Information Age Schools- Inner city Dublin, Ennis, Kilkenny;
- The classroom of the future;
- Post Primary use of Scoilnet and the Internet;
- Cultural Exchange with a South African School using ICT;
- Using videoconferencing to Support and Incapacitated Student, Europe without frontiers – classroom videoconferencing;
- Open and distant learning for Fairground families;
- Software evaluation and design (NCTE, 2001, website).

The “Schools IT 2000” programme launched by the government in 1997 was an ambitious programme to place Ireland in a leading role in the provision of information and communication technologies in schools. The extensive provision of equipment and of INSET aimed to reach as wide a base of teachers as possible.

#### **4.3.7 INSET In Universities**

In-career development courses for teachers offered at third level include degree, diploma and certificate courses. The courses are offered on one or two-year full-time or part-time basis by the education departments of the Universities. The majority of courses are part-time where courses are taken outside school hours and/or during school holidays. Many of the Colleges offer courses at outreach centres, such as the Education Centres. The range of courses offered include study in curriculum and assessment, compensatory and remedial education, CSPE, application of information and communication technology, school leadership and management, guidance and counselling, pastoral care and health promotion. Many of the courses particularly advanced degrees including M.Eds and Ph.Ds provide opportunities for teachers to conduct educational research.

A particular feature of some of the accredited courses has been the promotion of Action Research to guide teachers in reflective practice to improve their teaching. This experiential methodology, teachers have reported, has helped to improve their practice, collaborative work and understanding of the role of a teacher (McNiff and Collins 1994).

A number of joint initiatives on INSET have been conducted between University staff and schools. The Schools for Active Learning (SAL) between the National University of Ireland, Maynooth and a number of schools in its hinterland is one such example. It aimed to assist both teachers and principals in the implementation of the JC in the school and the classroom, focusing on teaching methodologies recommended in each of the JC syllabi in 1989 (Callan, 1994, 6). The project provided the opportunity to develop a clearer understanding of the rationale of the JC programme, and to learn new skills and knowledge to implement it (*ibid.*, 115). A further evolution of this project was the School and Curriculum Development (SCD) initiative in 1995, which aimed to assist school personnel in the development and implementation of new programmes at senior cycle (Woods, 1999, 30). The project, based on the theory that change in the learning environment of the classroom requires a supportive teaching environment in the school, offered a series of workshops, on a cluster basis, to principals and deputy principals on issues related to school management. Subsequently a number of teachers were trained to facilitate workshops within their subject areas for teachers, within

school clusters, willing to explore new methodologies for working with the students, and more collaborative practices for staff interaction. School based workshops were conducted to facilitate staff in addressing an identified development issue within their school (ibid.).

The Schools IT 2000 Programme that was outlined above has also provided an opportunity for collaboration between schools and Universities.

The participation of teachers, at their own expense, in INSET through the colleges has provided a pool of teachers who are well informed on developing educational theories, practices and in many cases developments in their knowledge and understanding of their subject areas. This resource has been available to the Department in the secondment of teachers to engage in INSET facilitation.

#### **4.4 Funding for the Provision of INSET**

The total expenditure on in-service education for second level teachers in 1990 was £625,000, with 60% of that spent on the Junior Certificate in-service education (CHL, 1991, Table 2.3). The expenditure on the various sectors from 1996 to 2000 is set out in Table 2:

**Table 2: Expenditure on INSET in the years 1996 – 2000**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Primary £000</b>	<b>Post-Primary £000</b>	<b>Cross-sectoral £000</b>	<b>Total</b>
1996	1,360	3,379	2,970	7,709
1997	1,420	3,448	3,657	8,525
1998	2,776	4,102	2,731	9,609
1999	6,017	6,050	2,886	14,953
2000	9,077	8,138	3,006	20,221

(Ceist Pharlaiminte, 2001)

The overall expenditure on INSET at second level has increased thirteen fold over the ten year period from 1990 to 2000. This reflects both the very low expenditure in 1990, and the demands on the system to respond to new policy initiatives in the nineties. The

effectiveness of the provision in responding to the needs of the system is discussed in Chapter 5.

The cross-sectoral areas include education centres, training for principals, the national centre for guidance, senior travellers centre, refugees language support unit, PCW refund of fees scheme, health and safety in schools, social personal and health education, remedial and special education. It may also include substitution costs for some of the programmes. Each year there may not have been an allocation to each of the cross- sectoral areas, for instance the refund of fees scheme is operable only since 1999 (Bennis, 2001).

Increased funding was available in the nineties for two main reasons, first because of the increased annual growth rate from 1993 whereby, the economy expanded by approximately 8% on average per year (Nolan et al, 2000, 63). The second, was funding granted under the European Support Framework (CSF) in line with the objectives of the National Development Programme under the Human Resource development budget line between 1994-2000 (EU website, 2001). The support was focused on initial education and training to increase the education and skills level of new entrants to the labour market and to provide reskilling opportunities for the unemployed. This proved to be essential funding for the implementation of the programmes at senior cycle such as the LCA, TY and LCVP. There was also the overall change in policy towards INSET which placed it as a greater priority within educational change in the nineties.

The distribution of the funding towards specific aspects of INSET is outlined in Table 3.

**Table 3: INSET Provision in 1999 Supported by The ICDU of the DES**

<b>Types of Providers</b>	<b>Groups providing INSET</b>	<b>ICDU Funding 1999 £000</b>	<b>Type of provision offered</b>
<i>Support Services</i>	JCSP	£150	Induction for Teachers, Principals/Dep. Principals and on-going support in the following areas:  - the introduction of the new subject/programme  - on methodology, content and assessment.  - ongoing support for the subject/programme.
	CSPE	£104	
	RSE	£ 128	
	Substance Abuse prevention	£ 72	
	TY	£ 165	
	LCA	£ 300	
	LCVP	£ 200	
	English	£ 260	
Physics and Chemistry	£ 217		
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>£1596</b>		
<i>Teacher/Principal Management Bodies</i>	Joint Managerial Body	£ 106	Offered to principals/d.principals, staff/boards of management on: - support for school management and leadership -health and safety in schools - addressing social issues  Training activities for Parents' Associations
	Association of Comm. And Comprehensive Schools	£ 19	
	National Association of Principals and Deputy Principals	£ 52	
	National Parents' Council	£ 50	
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>£ 227</b>	
<i>Colleges of Education /Universities</i>	NUI Maynooth		Whole school approach to curriculum reform. Ecology and IT for Biology teachers. Courses on Junior Cert.  Technology curriculum, content, methodology and assessment.
	i) School & Curr.Development	£ 22	
	ii) Biology	£ 1	
	Galway/Mayo Institute of Tech.	£ 1	
	Limerick Institute of Technology	£ 1	
	University of Limerick Junior Cert. Technology	£ 26	
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>£ 51</b>		
<i>Regional/Local Bodies</i>	Vocational Education Committees (VEC)	£ 10	Support for schools in Whole School Planning, and evaluation. In-school management structures.
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>£ 10</b>	
<i>Subject Associations Individual Schools Teachers' Unions</i>	21 Subject Associations	£ 250	Courses on Curriculum content, methodology and assessment.  Staff development.  School administration and management, addressing social issues, curricular issues
	Post Primary (PP)Local initiatives	£ 140	
	PP School based courses	£ 69	
	ASTI	£ 79	
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>£ 538</b>	

(Bennis 2001; ICDU, 1999)

Table 3 represents the funding allocated directly for INSET. The total costs of the projects are not included as costs accrued for management, administration, and venue are not included in the amounts above. The table presents an overview of the allocation, and clearly shows the high proportion of INSET funding allocated to the introduction of the national programmes of INSET. The funding towards the prevention of substance abuse and RSE is part of the SPHE programme. Cross-sectoral amounts are not included and this accounts for the difference in totals between Tables 2 and 3.

#### **4.5 Conclusion**

Research in this chapter showed that the many curricular initiatives of the nineties required a specialised and appropriate structure with strong administrative support to provide INSET. Seconded teachers, who also planned and implemented INSET, staffed the Support Services, in the main. The overall approach was the 'cascade model' where one set of trainers trained other trainers who in turn trained the teachers. The OECD (1998) suggests that this approach, in many circumstances, is best when combined with bottom-up initiatives where schools are helped to develop their own programme of INSET. The Schools for Active Learning project described above is one such complementary approach.

An extensive programme of INSET was required for those teaching senior cycle, with many new issues to be addressed, such as how the school develops a structure to facilitate school community linking, since this is key to work experience programmes. From the documentation researched it was unclear how this was achieved. The evaluation of the LCA recommended that this area of community linking needed to be strengthened. (DES, 2000b, 77).

A number of other specialised structures contributed significantly to INSET provision. The focus of the work is in response to school needs. A number of organisations provide courses for school management that was seen as essential for coping with the vast number of changes in the system, and for school to be proactive in development work. A major initiative, which has occurred outside ICDU management, has been the IT 2000 programme that has capitalised on the use of ICT for INSET. This programme based in a university adopted new approaches, of joint projects between the schools and

the university for the development of IT skills and resources. The skills learned by the teacher are applied and enhanced in the production of resources and in the teaching of the students.

The research showed that funding of INSET increased significantly since the early nineties, (Table 2 ) and the allocation to providers of INSET is outlined in Table 3. This reflects the commitment from the Department to maintain a better trained teaching profession. How effective the provision is in bringing about change in classroom practice is analysed in chapter 5.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Analysis of INSET**

#### **5.0 Introduction**

In the previous chapter structures supported by the DES for the provision of INSET were identified and described. The research shows a variety of providers and a wide range of provision in responding to the continuing professional development for teachers in the climate of changed educational policy. In this chapter the models of INSET are analysed using a framework devised from what a number of writers have identified as best practice. As the issue of funding and resourcing is critical to the provision of INSET, it is considered separately in the final section of the analysis where the proportion of funding spent on INSET is considered.

#### **5.1 Establishing a Framework for the Analysis of INSET**

The framework for the analysis is based primarily on the findings of research conducted by the OECD in 1998. The research among eight member countries, including Ireland, identified the current state of in-service training and professional development among teachers, and made recommendations for policy development to improve practice (OECD, 1998, 3). Three critical factors for successful INSET, were identified, as follows:

- The degree to which teachers, schools and the education system succeed in forging a partnership towards improving learning opportunities;
- The leadership displayed by the school principal;
- The degree to which teachers and the education system are able when it is desirable, to escape the negative bonds of their cultural pasts (ibid., 54).

Interpreting these findings, informed by theoretical perspectives from a number of other studies and key writers on the topic of INSET, which have already been referred to at different stages in this thesis, forms the framework for analysis of INSET in this chapter.



### **5.1.1 Partnerships to Improve Learning**

Teachers' in-service development in the OECD report (1998) is seen as part of a wider process of adapting the education system to societal changes (ibid, 7). Teachers play a central role in facilitating change within the system, both through their involvement at the level of policy development and in the implementation of policy in the school. Yet, policy reform alone will not change the work in the classroom unless teachers are committed to the need to change (ibid.7; Bennett 1996, 50). Change, Fullan (1991,37) argues occurs at three different levels for it to effect sustainable outcomes: in the use of new or revised materials; in the use of new methodologies; and in the alteration of beliefs. Altering beliefs is reaching an understanding of the meaning of the educational changes. The process requires that teachers are involved in the different stages of the process of change, as partners in the process.

In relation to INSET establishing a partnership that works requires balancing so that, "...teachers feel some "ownership" in their development, yet are still part of a co-ordinated strategy for change." (OECD, 98, 54). Based on research findings in the OECD report (1998) and the Hyland and Hanafin study (1997) achieving ownership requires that the following aspects of INSET need to be considered:

- Who takes the initiative, why is it taken, and how can the needs of the teacher and the system be best served;
- Can the ultimate goal of the initiative balance the opportunity of personal development with the obligations of professional development within the system;
- What mechanisms are used in the planning and who is involved;
- Content - teaching the skills of lifelong learning also requires that teachers have the opportunity of learning new knowledge, skills, and concepts;
- Modes of delivery- whether INSET is self-organised school development, third party external provision, or clustering between schools it ought involve teachers in the design and delivery of courses using experiential learning methodologies, and following the principles of adult education;
- On-going support providing coaching for the transfer of skills and collective problem solving around specific problems of practice;

- Connected to other aspects of school change (OECD, 1998, 54; Hyland and Hanafin 1997, 154)

The OECD (1998) described the trend whereby clusters of schools are involved in INSET, as “bottom-across” making the distinction between “bottom-up” which is INSET organised by the school, and “top-down” which is that organised by the Department without involvement of the teachers in the planning and design. The “bottom-across” model is recommended to improve practice across the system (OECD, 1998, 37).

### **5.1.2 The Leadership Displayed by the Principal**

In relation to INSET the principal has a key role to play in maintaining a balance between addressing the needs of the school and of the system as a whole. In assessing the needs of the staff it is recommended that principals consult with teachers for their views (Fullan op.cit.168; OECD op.cit. 56). The principal has the responsibility for creating an environment in which proposals for INSET are critically examined and responded to.

Supporting the professional development of the staff, as pointed out in discussions at the NEC, was often the neglected aspect of the principal’s role because of time constraints. The role of middle management in improving management and developments within the school, needs to be addressed. In-service training for principals must also contribute to informing principals on learning theory, instructional methodology and relevant research (Coolahan, 1994, 44). Being an expert in pedagogy, James and Connolly (2000,151) point out, is not sufficient for the principal, s/he must also be skilled in working with adult professionals both inside and outside the school.

Innovative schools Callan argues have “...powerful and committed leaders.” (Callan 2000, 29). These leaders will identify staff resources, will provide the opportunities for the staff resources to be used both for the benefit of the individual concerned and for the development of the school (ibid.).

### 5.1.3 Escaping Negative Cultural Bonds

The third critical factor in INSET identified in the OECD Study (1998) is the degree to which teachers can replace, where it is necessary, strongly held practices with better approaches to pedagogy and assessment, as a result of reflection on their work.

The OECD Report references Hargreaves (1992) work on the cultures of schools (OECD, 1998, 56).

Strongly held practices Hargreaves (1992) described as “cultures of teaching” which are formed from beliefs, values, and habits that teachers develop in response to problems they routinely solve. They develop a *modus operandi* characteristic of the teaching profession. The culture, consisting of both form and content, is the framework for learning. The nature of the relationships between colleagues, Hargreaves (ibid., 217) describes as the form of teacher cultures. He suggests it has “... profound implications for their teaching in the classroom, how they evolve and develop as teachers and the sorts of teachers they become.”. The content of the culture is characterised by the beliefs values and attitudes developed. Changing the content of teacher culture is contingent on changing the pattern of relationships among teaching colleagues<sup>6</sup>(ibid., 218).

Hargreaves (1992) identified four forms of teacher cultures as individualism, balkanisation, collaboration, and contrived collegiality. Individualism is the most pervasive, where teachers are isolated from their colleagues, as they work within the privacy of their own classroom. Individualism is conservative in outlook. Balkanisation described the grouping of teachers, based on the pursuit of power, status or resources. Balkanisation is not conducive to the identification of a common goal for all staff, as each group aims to protect its own domain. Collaborative cultures build qualities of openness, trust and support among colleagues, acknowledging the public, private and professional aspects of teachers’ lives. Within a collaborative culture developing the teacher involves developing the professional and personal qualities of the person (ibid. 230). Hargreaves (ibid. 233) stressed that collaborative cultures evolve slowly and the outcomes cannot be prescribed or predicted. Attempting to impose collaborative cultures is described by Hargreaves as ‘contrived collegiality’. It

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<sup>6</sup> Hargreaves acknowledges the work of Bernstein in devising this theory.

attempts to force growth and development within a given timeframe and structure (ibid.). It creates a system whereby teachers are involved in implementing plans designed outside the school environment, resulting in varying degrees of success.

Hargreaves (1992) concluded that overcoming the challenge of individualism and contrived collegiality requires, “.. redistributing the responsibility for curriculum *development* (and not just curriculum *implementation*) from the centre to the periphery...”(ibid.,235).

Hargreaves (1992) proposed a more professional role for the teacher, with greater responsibility for guiding the pace of change, for developing the curriculum and implementing it. Overcoming the challenge points to ‘what’ needs to be done in schools, the difficulty is ‘how’ this can be achieved within schools. A starting point is that teachers must be involved in all stages of the education process so that realistic and achievable goals are set. Identifying and naming the cultures as Hargreaves (1992) has done creates the language and imagery to which school staffs can relate their own experience. The ensuing debate will contribute to discussions on staff relationships and in the view of this researcher, has the potential of improving those relationships, and thus changing them.

Bringing about change the OECD (1998) concluded does not result from short courses consisting of a guide to new lesson plans, to a method that s/he does not believe in. The report recommended that cultures can be changed by, “... exposing teachers to new experiences and by involving them in constructing a common new project for their schools.” (OECD, 1998, 57). The report also suggests that collaboration with outsiders such as third level colleges, international exchange programmes, and industry can bring new perspectives. Leonard (1995 in Fullan 1999, 43) described successful companies as having ‘porous boundaries’ to allow new ideas from the outside to filter through challenging core rigidity. Fullan (1999, 45) proposed that the ‘outside’ is no longer out there, but is actually impinging on schools. Schools, therefore, need to be involved in dialogue and partnership with the ‘outside’ to remain informed of the rapidly changing environment and to remain relevant to the lives of students. The extent to which INSET supports the development of collaboration both inside and outside the school forms part of this analysis.

## **5.2 Analysis of the Models of INSET**

The analysis is informed by the evaluations of the courses, where they exist, and the theoretical framework outlined above, which will be described henceforth as 'the framework'.

The range of models of INSET delivered in the nineties, considered in this analysis included courses totally under the Department's control, courses funded by the Department without its direct involvement (Clancy, 2001) and also certificated courses for which participants spent personal time and pay the fee.

### **5.2.1 INSET Organised by Department Inspectors**

In the early nineties Department Inspectors were closely involved in organising INSET in a small number of subject areas. They selected the venue, planned the course, appointed the presenters and also delivered some of the sessions. These courses were once-off, usually three to five days duration (Hyland and Hanafin 1997, 159). The in-service section in the Department processed the applications and payments for subsistence (Clancy, 2001; Clancy 1995). The courses were generally didactic in approach, focusing on the syllabus in content, and were state exam-oriented.

The courses provided the opportunity to develop a better relationship between the participants and the inspector, some teachers co-presented with them. A sharing of the subject expertise of the inspector and the classroom practice of some teachers occurred. They were labour intensive for the Department, and the personnel were not available to offer similar courses in all subject areas. Inspectors were withdrawn from direct in-service education provision in 1991, to concentrate on policy work (ibid.).

Written evaluations of these courses are not available (ibid.). The courses lacked the involvement of teachers in the design and only a very small number were involved in delivery, consequently, teachers did not claim ownership of the process. The didactic approach did not lend itself to sharing of practice among the participants, or for them to take responsibility for posing questions and exploring answers. The approach was typical of the 'top-down' model described by Hyland and Hanafin (1997,148). There

was no follow-up or support process for teachers to discuss the transfer of skills learnt or for solving problems experienced in practice.

### **5.2.2 INSET Organised by Subject Associations**

In the early nineties Subject Associations organised INSET, usually of less than one week duration, with assistance from the inspectorate in selecting participants and in making input on the courses. The courses of a variety of forms including workshops, conferences, seminars, and lectures occurred during holidays from school, or at week-ends. The administrative details of paying subsistence and travel expenses were organised by the in-service education section of the Department. This approach was still under the direct control of the inspectorate, but it freed them from much of the administrative details (*ibid.*). Currently, the grant is awarded to the Associations and they have the responsibility of disbursement of payments to participants and lecturers/facilitators. This progression towards greater involvement of teachers of specific subjects in identifying their needs, in choosing the presenters and in providing a variety of methodologies for presentation is representative of a “bottom-up” approach, described by Hyland and Hanafin (1997, 148), and represents many of the positive aspects of the framework.

There was a lack of summative evaluations against the objectives of the course, and consequently a lack of possible guidance for future policy, planning and implementation.

### **5.2.3 INSET for the Introduction of the Junior Certificate Programme**

The first model for the introduction of the JC programme considered is the INSET organised by the Department, described by Clancy as a ‘blitz model’(Clancy, 2001; Clancy 1995) where monster meetings were held around the country, in each of the subject areas. The courses were usually one to two days in duration, held during school time. The inspectorate appointed teachers who were generally those involved in the marking of state exams, and trained them as presenters. A variety of methodologies was used, depending on the subject, with greater emphasis on a practical approach in some cases and on lectures in others (Hyland and Hanafin, 1997, 158). This model was useful for the dissemination of information, but was not effective in changing classroom practice (Clancy, 1994; Callan, 1997, 23; Marino Institute of Education, 1992, 39;

Swan 1991). Some teachers considered the INSET as a negative experience, leaving them cynical and distrustful of the value of participating in courses on professional development (TUI notes, 1998). It is the opinion of this researcher, based on experience with colleagues, that this negative experience of INSET organised by the Department was the justification, by some teachers, for not participating in, or reluctantly participating in INSET organised by the Department subsequently.

The second model of INSET for the JC to be considered is the Schools for Active learning (SAL) described in chapter 4, directed by Maynooth University in a number of post-primary schools in counties Meath, Kildare and Carlow. In approaching the project it was considered that a multi-layered approach was necessary, where school organisation, teaching methods and resources were explored with reference to the staff and the school context (Callan, 1994, 25). The participative approach employed aimed to support teachers working together within schools and within subject areas (ibid.).

When considered in the context of the framework the model exemplifies sensitivity to the culture of the school. It sought to improve partnership and relationships within the school, among local schools and with the support structure of the University. At the outset the goal of the initiative was clearly defined. The initiative came from the University, but, at a very early stage teachers were involved in planning, designing and implementing the project. The two year span of the project allowed for back-up to and feedback from the participants.

The subsequent project, the School and Curriculum Development initiative built on the learning from SAL. Callan (2000) expressed the view that "...developing the curriculum without addressing issues in teacher development is an empty exercise. Addressing both requires, equally, a focus on school development." (Callan, 2000, 7). In the external evaluation conducted, Woods, (1999) found that teachers had genuinely developed ownership of the process, they had grown in appreciation of the resources within their own staff, and working on the school plan was an important experience in developing the sense of ownership and building confidence (Woods, 1999, 45). Both of the initiatives SAL and SCD have made important contributions to the process, methodology, research and analysis of INSET in second level, in response to changes in educational policy.

#### 5.2.4 The Support Service Model

With the introduction of new programmes at senior cycle and new subjects at junior cycle in the early nineties new approaches to INSET were required (Clancy 2001). A significant change was the appointment of a support service for the subject/programme, consisting of practicing teachers. Generically the approach involved the appointment of a national co-ordinator/s and a support team who worked closely with a Department inspector. The Support Team devised the approach to in-service education provision and were trained for presentation to teachers. The extent of the training improved as the model evolved throughout the nineties (Clancy, 2001). Induction meetings for the introduction of the new programme/subject were held with either whole staffs, or with the co-ordinator and principal and a sub-group of staff assigned to the programme/subject in the school. Continuing support was provided through workshops which were either school based, or out of school with a cluster of teachers from nearby schools. The Support Team, in some cases, was also involved in the production of appropriate resources for class use.

(i) The first of the Support Services was the Transition Year Support Service established in 1993 and described in chapter 4. An 'Action Group' of teachers was appointed by a committee of inspectors to develop the content of the nationwide INSET for the introduction of the TY to schools. The Action Group trained trainers who delivered the INSET.

The Support Service offered schools an induction process, continuing support once the programme was introduced, resources and support in the development of links with social agencies. The induction phase in 94/95 aimed to train a 'critical mass' of staff in each of the schools to develop, plan and implement TY. The continuing support also involved school visits, cluster meetings and the provision of resources (Lewis and McMahon, 1996, 4).

The Education Research Centre on behalf of DES conducted an evaluation of the model in 1996, but it has not been published.<sup>7</sup> The evaluation found that generally the

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<sup>7</sup> Gerry Jeffers provided a copy for the purpose of this research.



INSET provided valuable opportunities for the professional development of teachers, and in particular for the Action Group and the Regional Co-ordinators. It found the model to be effective in involving whole- staff groups in the programme, cluster days were considered valuable for exchange of information and ideas with colleagues in other schools, and the provision of information particularly at the time of induction was very helpful (Clancy 1994; Lewis and McMahon,1996, 60). The evaluation reports, "... the in-service education programme does not seem to have contributed substantially to curriculum change." (Lewis and McMahon,1996, 62). Change in assessment procedures also remains poorly developed, particularly in relation to appraisal of personal and social development. In many cases teachers had not taken on recommendations from the Support Service on this issue (ibid.,63-64). The evaluation emphasised that support needs of schools vary depending on the geographic location, in terms of opportunities available locally, and also on the socio-economic status of the school community (ibid.,64).

From reading the literature on TY, from experience as TY co-ordinator and teacher this researcher concurs with the findings in the evaluation that neither curriculum change nor assessment change has been achieved to any great extent. Two possible reasons for this are that traditionally, curriculum development has been the reserve of specialists, and most teachers have not developed expertise in the area. Secondly, the two year period from the introduction of TY nationally to the completion of the evaluation in 1996 was a very short time for significant curriculum change to be evident.

In encouraging schools to design the TY programme, this was an attempt at redistributing the responsibility for curriculum development, (Hargreaves 1992, 235) as outlined in the framework. It was based on the assumptions that teachers had the theoretical knowledge and the skills to do so, that resources were accessible, that the work could be fitted into the regular school day, and that teachers were motivated to reclaim the responsibility of curriculum development. While the well motivated teachers and those who had the personal time and financial support, may have pursued professional development in this area, there were not many teachers in the system who had accomplished this. When considered with reference to the framework, the problem of the school culture was not addressed in that curriculum design was not previously the work of the teacher.

(ii) The LCVP Support Service established in 1994 operated under the guidance of a steering Committee of the Department of Education and Science. It provided support through similar mechanisms as outlined for the TY support team.

As part of the evaluation of the LCVP Support Programme a survey was conducted among 23% of participating schools, and it found a very high level of satisfaction with the in-service education programme among participating teachers (Granville, 1999, 33). The four distinguishing features of the in-service education were as follows:

- The quality of the courses in terms of presentation, organisation and content;
- A sustained high level of support from the Development Officers, which was reflected in the priority given to addressing needs identified by teachers;
- The facilitation of teachers from different schools networking on a professional basis;
- The support offered in meeting the objectives of LCVP and in assessing the achievement of these objectives.

In response to a question on the influence of INSET on their LCVP teaching, over 90% considered it to be influential. Yet, in response to the influence on their teaching of other senior cycle classes almost 60% considered it not to be influential, and the response in relation to JC was even lower (ibid.,40). Granville considers this disappointing, since the programme was positively received in so many terms, and "... the orientation of the programme was consciously cross-curricular in many cases." (ibid.) The reasons for this low influence on the JC is not explored with the survey participants, but Granville considers indications are that the reasons relate to the significant high status granted to the Leaving Certificate examination (ibid.,49).

Other problematic issues are the low level of cross-curricular work within LCVP, the low impact on the professional culture in the school, and the extent to which the innovation has been assimilated within the school. Granville assesses that, "The task of cross-curricular work runs counter to the conventional culture of the school".(ibid., 58). The nature of relationships among staff members could be a determining factor in developing cross-curricular work (ibid.). Granville considered that the aim of the INSET to contribute in the long term to the transformation of school cultures of

teaching and learning is highly ambitious and the evidence shows it is not being achieved to any significant extent (ibid.,55). The evaluation also points to the over emphasis on the assessment mechanisms in some of the in-service courses, which could be to the detriment of the learning processes involved (ibid., 55).

(iii) The LCA Support Service (1995) offers a similar service in terms of induction, continuing support and resources, as outlined above.

A national evaluation of the LCA, was carried out in approx. 21% of participating schools. INSET conducted was not part of the remit of the national evaluation, and no other summative evaluation has been conducted on it to date. There are a number of questions, however, related to INSET in the national evaluation, that are relevant to this research. Course participants completed an evaluation at the end of courses (LCA, 1999). Both these sources provide evidence for this analysis.

The principals surveyed expressed general satisfaction with the INSET offered by the Support Service in that it enhanced teachers' skills (DES, 2000b, 38). The release of teachers, however, to attend INSET was considered a source of disruption to schools (ibid.). There was a high level of satisfaction expressed by the participants in the end of course evaluations (LCA Support Service, 1999). A weakness in the implementation was that the full range of teaching methodologies recommended for Social Education have not been fully explored in many of the participating schools. The potential for community links could be further exploited with 35 % of the sample (ibid.55). The extent to which cross-curricular work is integrated is not clear from the evaluation report, but it states that some school reports highlighted elements of cross-curricular work.

School-based INSET in active learning methodologies, and approaches to the development of increased curriculum integration are areas identified by teachers for further support (ibid., 70). The evaluators recommend the continuation of INSET particularly in the areas of induction of new teachers, social education, student tasks and in information and communication technology skills.

When analysed with reference to the framework the strengths are that teachers are involved in the planning designing and implementation of the INSET. It is evident from evaluations conducted at the end of the courses that there is high satisfaction with the methodologies used in the training and in those recommended for class work (LCA, 2000). From the evaluation teachers' needs have been identified, which can inform upcoming INSET.

(iv) The programme for the introduction of new syllabi at senior cycle and the role of the Education Centres in providing INSET were discussed in chapters 2 and 4 respectively. Seconded teachers plan and deliver the INSET with the support and guidance of a Department inspector. Evaluations for these courses are not published, and it is unclear if evaluations were conducted in each case. The Support Services formed for the introduction of new syllabi, is disbanded once all schools received INSET (Clancy, 2000). The model used for INSET was based on that described above for the senior cycle programmes.

The decentralisation of the programmes to the network of Education Centres has advantages and disadvantages. On the positive side it raises the profile of the Centre as an intermediary structure between the DES and teachers in the area. It facilitates increased partnerships for learning between local teachers. Participation in INSET for the introduction of a national programme may be a springboard for some teachers to become involved in further personal professional development at the Education Centre. The improved partnership with a body outside the school lays a firm foundation for further mutual development. Decentralisation helps to develop the level of expertise in the Centre through the provision of services and training.<sup>8</sup> The increased expertise at the Centre and the involvement of more teachers in INSET creates a new momentum of continuing learning.

A disadvantage for some Centres has been the increased workload from the Department on an already busy Centre, which has developed its own INSET programme in response to local needs. There is also the issue of whether the Centre loses autonomy by delivering programmes on behalf of the Department.

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<sup>8</sup> This is based on information from the Director of the Clare Education Centre.

(v) Support Services for the JC programmes were introduced for CSPE, Technology at Junior Certificate level and RSE an element of SPHE. As a model of the provision at JC the RSE programme is analysed.

Extensive INSET was offered to the schools which piloted the programme and an evaluation was conducted on behalf of DES (2000). There was a positive response by teachers to many aspects of the INSET in that it provided a basis for their understanding of the aims and rationale of RSE. It also assisted teachers in discussing sensitive issues without embarrassment (Morgan, 2000, 11). There was a 94% satisfaction rating for “understanding the aims”, but only 58% satisfaction rating for “skills for RSE”. The evaluator remarks that the pattern is often found in INSET that “...cognitive outcomes are easier to bring about than skill related outcomes, which require practice and feedback.” (ibid.).

This highlights the need for back-up supported by modelling and coaching to address problems in practice. The RSE programme recommended that the teaching style be open and facilitative with participative and experiential methodologies. In the evaluation it was proposed that the skills of RSE be cultivated in the context of other curriculum developments.

In summary, the key features of the support service models described above are that the initiative to establish them is taken by the Department and experienced teachers are involved in the planning, designing and implementation of the in-service education programme. The implementation involved school-based training, out of school learning and collegiate discussion at cluster group meetings. A variety of methodologies is used to achieve the aims of INSET, including experiential processes. The support service is a temporary structure that may be disbanded when the aims and objectives of the service are achieved. The communication flow is represented as a ‘cascade model’ whereby information flows from a small support group at the apex to the wide base of the many schools nationwide (Lewis and McMahon, 1996, 59).

### 5.2.5 Extended Courses

The Schools Leadership and Whole School Development Programme (SLP) provided by the Secretariat of Secondary Schools exemplifies the extended course model.

The three phase school leadership programme offers in-service education for:

- The principal and deputy principal for six two-day modules over two year period, to develop their leadership and management capabilities. (Phase 1);
- Three senior teachers, from schools where the principal and deputy principal/s have completed the course above, for three two-day modules over a one year period. The aims was to integrate the role of middle-management with senior management. (Phase 2);
- A whole school development programme involving those schools which have completed the first two phases. This aimed to support the management team and the whole staff to develop skills to address their specific problems. (Phase 3). (Secretariat of Secondary Schools, 1994)

The learning/tutoring strategies were flexible and involved formal lecture, small group work, and incorporate the principles and practice of action research in addressing various school related issues. Participants' assignments included prescribed reading and selected action research exercises (*ibid.*). This model of in-service education was partly funded by the ICDU.

An external evaluation of the Programme was conducted. The findings showed overall satisfaction with the module presentations. Participants gained in relevant knowledge attitudes and skills. It cited that, "Participants' estimate of internal features of their schools suggests schools are moving, though unevenly, towards internal change and development." (Leonard et al, 1996, iv).

The evaluation found that participants struggled with the tensions of the ideal of collaboration, collegiality and broad conceptions of teacher professionalism and the reality of some traditional elements of school culture such as teacher privacy and a narrow view of teacher professionalism (*ibid.*). There was evidence of resistance to distinguishing the role of middle management as leaders of change in the school.

The evaluation points to the fact that schools differ widely in the success of their efforts to promote change and development (ibid.).

When analysed with reference to framework, this programme in School Leadership displays many positive attributes as an INSET model. Based on the evaluation report (ibid.) the following are observations of this researcher. The programme was developed in response to an identified need felt among school principals and management in the secondary school system, for management training to respond to the demanding workload experienced in schools in the early nineties. It was developed in phases, with the evaluation of each phase informing the planning for the subsequent phase. It focused on the role of school leadership. Training and learning in phase 1 and 2 is strongly supported by theory and practice. The methodology is participative and experiential, encouraging participants to reflect on and analyse their own practice, and to develop their own leadership model in the school. The duration of the course provided the opportunity for back-up, coaching and collective problem solving. The programme design was informed by the findings of research on the best practice in INSET. The course provided, with state support, by a voluntary organisation received very favourable comment in the evaluation process.

#### **5.2.6 Postgraduate Courses**

These include degree, diploma and certificate courses organised by education departments in universities and colleges of education. The courses are of one or two year duration and may be full time or part-time. The majority are part-time where modules are taken outside school hours and /or during school holidays. In general, the participant pays the course fee, and for a small number of the courses an increase in salary is granted on award of the qualification. These courses tend to be provider driven in terms of planning and content. The theoretical content and the research work for assignments and theses provides a significant opportunity for observation and reflection on the processes of learning and teaching.

Postgraduate courses, although provider driven, are the personal choice for opportunities of professional renewal for the teacher. They also increase educational research for the education community. Teachers conducting Action Research reported

that it helped to improve their practice, collaborative work and understanding of the role of a teacher (McNiff and Collins 1994).

Participants on postgraduate courses commit their time and money to improving their personal and professional competence.<sup>9</sup> From anecdotal evidence and from information available from some of the education departments in the universities, on average, there are at least one hundred teachers attending postgraduate courses in the each of the seven universities each year. The cumulative impact of this over the decade of the nineties is that at least 7,000 teachers have participated in higher level study within education departments. This does not include the many other teachers who pursue third level qualifications by distance education in universities overseas. Many teachers have taken the opportunity of a career break to pursue further study within their subject or another academic area. This is an enormous resource for the system, and much of it paid for by the teachers themselves. It reflects the strong commitment of many teachers to professional renewal and lifelong learning.

The postgraduate courses in Remedial Education for teachers of primary and second level pupils, commenced in 1994, and are currently offered in six different third level colleges, supported by the DES and the ESF<sup>10</sup>. The aim of the courses is to provide substantial theoretical and practical training for teachers who hold posts sanctioned for remedial education (DES, circular letter 12/00). The specific needs of primary and second level teachers are explored in concurrent sessions. Teachers were facilitated to attend by block release for the one year course of 120 contact hours. A seminar for principal teachers was held at each centre to explore the concept of the whole school approach to remedial education, and the role of the remedial teacher as a resource to staff. Supervision of teaching in school is an integral part of the course. Qualifications are awarded by individual colleges and based on the completion of the course in terms of attendance, teaching practice and assignments, which include a school study and a long term child-study. No fees are charged for this course. Twenty to thirty teachers are accepted on each of the courses. The Department approved the secondment of teachers to act as course co-ordinators.

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<sup>9</sup> The exact figures for teachers attending postgraduate courses at their own expense are not available.

<sup>10</sup> This year the course has been re-titled the Learning Support programme.



This model provides well supported INSET to respond to all aspects of provision for remedial education. It was derived from and connected to the teachers' work with their students. It provides for a sharing of knowledge and practice with other educators. The principal's role in integrating the remedial education programme into the work of the school is acknowledged. This comprehensive approach allied with the improved provision from NEPS lays the foundation for better quality education for students in need of remedial teaching. The course is provider driven and serves the needs of the system and the teacher is also compensated for attending the course.

### **5.3 Financial Commitment and Structures**

Two essential questions arising from the research on resources for INSET relate to the proportion of the education budget spent on in-service training and how the programme can be cost effective without compromising the effectiveness and quality of INSET (CHL, 1991, 50; OECD, 98, 45).

As outlined earlier the education budget for INSET at second level has increased thirteen fold since the early nineties. In 1990, salaries and superannuation in the second level sector were 80% of the total second level education budget, this compares with 76% in 1999 (DES, publication date not given).

In 1990, 0.17% of salary was invested in INSET. In 1996, as indicated in Table 2, funds for second level INSET amounted to £3,379K (approx.), the total salary budget in that year was £695 million (approx), resulting in INSET expenditure at 0.5% of salary costs. In 1999, INSET costs totalled £ 6,050K (approx.) and salary budget costs £853 millions (approx.) resulting in INSET expenditure at 0.7% of salary budget. On average between the period 1994-1999 INSET costs were 0.5% of salary. (DES, publication date not given). The strategic management initiative of the DES has set the target for staff training at 3% of salary for staff within the Department by 2003, there is no indication if the same guideline applies to INSET (DES, 2000, Subhead B.6).

The ICDU considers that high value for money was obtained when over 140,000 participant training days were provided in 1998 at an average cost of £49 per day inclusive of payment for participant travel, subsistence and substitutions. The average

cost, calculated on the same basis for non-profit making private sector, such as, IMI and IPA is £150- £250 per day, exclusive of travel, subsistence or substitution (ibid.). Figures were not available for other years, and the exact reasons for the lower costs for INSET were not specified. What is evident from the research in this thesis is that since the facilitators for INSET funded by the DES are teachers, costs for facilitators would appear to be considerable lower than fees requested at IMI presentations. While in relative terms the unit cost for INSET may be lower, the total costs may be higher due to the greater number of teachers involved. Nevertheless, in terms of facilitation costs, it appears that the Department have developed a cost effective way of delivering INSET, and if effective in terms of quality, should allow for greater provision of INSET opportunities if the spending on INSET continues to increase.

Funding from ICDU represents the largest portion of INSET funding. Included among other funders are; the VECs; other government Departments including Health and Children, Justice, Equality and Law Reform, Foreign Affairs through the National Committee for Development Education; and many non-governmental agencies. Since 1997 the Scientific and Technological Education (Investment) Fund facilitates private donors to make gifts to the Fund, which contributes to the IT 2000 programme in schools.

The increased number and up-graded network of Education Centres and the Support Services have contributed to the network of structures addressing needs. The national organisation of the Association of Teachers'/Education Centres (ATECI) co-ordinates and encourages co-operation between Centres and acts on behalf of Centres with the Department and with other groups such as the Unions. The ATECI does not have a co-ordinating role in relation to INSET provision, so there is no coherent strategy for it among the centres (Kennedy, 2001).

The Teaching Council under the 2001 Act will have a function in promoting awareness of the benefits of continuing education, training and professional development of teachers within the profession and among the public (Government, 2001, 26). It is important that this new structure, in the implementation of this function is informed by national and international best practice on professional development.

## 5.4 Overview of Chapter

The framework against which INSET was analysed was defined at the start of this chapter. It was informed by several researchers on INSET including Hargreaves (1992), OECD(1998), Callan (1994), Hyland and Hanafin (1997) Fullan (1991) (1999) and James and Connolly (2000), who enunciate general principles for partnerships to improve learning, the central leadership role of the principal in creating a climate for supporting INSET, and the need to be cognisant of the cultural context of the school when introducing programmes of reform.

From the analysis a number of issues emerge. Firstly, in the case of some of the models the focus on change in content, methodology, and new resources failed to give due regard to a firm theoretical foundation. Teachers were being asked to change well established practices without being personally convinced of the advantages or even the need for such changes. Fullan writes, "Unless one understands deeply why and how collaboration functions to make a difference it is of little use." (Fullan 1999, 40). Understanding the theory inspires greater confidence and excitement in being involved.

A second issue emerging is that the greatest opportunities for participating in INSET has been for addressing system needs. A particularly attractive model is for that for the remedial teacher who is supported by the Department, the school and the University. Time is allocated for professional development and the fees are paid. The teacher obviously gives of her/his time, but having motivated and well trained remedial teachers is valued in the system. This model has potential for further development and implementing among a broader cohort of teachers.

Thirdly, the INSET offered is the 'one size fits all type', where career stage is not taken into account. The evaluation of the LCA (2000b, 38) proposed that consideration be given "...to the question of balance between long experience and lesser experience..." when planning INSET. Hyland and Hanafin (1997,150) also proposed that recognition be given to different teacher needs at different stages in their teaching career.

The evidence from this chapter is that from each of the models analysed there are learning points. The challenge is to harness the learning to the advantage of all teachers.

## CONCLUSION

This thesis explored the policy development on INSET by the Department of Education in the nineties, and analysed its implementation within the second level sector.

The policy development was explored within the changing societal context to which the educational system was responding. In this research the changing context was viewed from the global and local perspectives. The findings showed that revolutions, as defined by Dalin and Rust (1996), in attitudes and in power relations in the Irish context were significant.

Advances in knowledge and information impacted on the labour market, such that, people had to adapt to new technology and changing working conditions. Labour markets were opened up for the transfer of goods and services. The impact of globalisation and technological developments were pervasive.

Within society profound changes were occurring at a number of different levels. The changing structure of the family from extended to nuclear to restructured families has challenges for the young person, the parents the school and society in general. The challenge for the young person is to develop a sense of identity with the changing environment. Continuity and belonging needs to be increasingly supported by societal agencies and practises. The school, after the family is the most consistent influence and support in a young person's development, and increasingly it is required to compensate for difficult social circumstances being experienced by some young people. In the changing society hierarchical structures were being challenged as well as authority figures. The lack of opportunities for disadvantaged groups was identified and improvements were sought.

The research highlighted the challenges to the education system in responding to the changing social milieu. Promotion of a 'learning society' required an approach at the cognitive level of educating to understand the meaning of things, to analyse them and to think flexibly (OECD, 1998, 24). Social skills of relating well with other people and communicating effectively were required. At a skills level, an emerging need was adeptness at using modern technology, particularly computers, was required.

In response to changing family circumstances the relatively stable environment of the school could offer pastoral care, education in life skills and career guidance.

Exploration of the policy development outlined the extensive policy stages of the issues emerging on the agenda to policy articulation in the White Paper (1995). The policy outcomes are identified and described. They range from a number of curricular initiatives at junior and senior cycle, to organisational changes within the school system, the introduction of legislation, and opportunities for improved career structure for teachers. The teaching profession is the interface between Department policy and the partners in education. Providing the opportunities for teachers to equip themselves to implement new policy and to adapt to changing societal expectations of the school was also a function of policy.

The research shows the progression in policy development on teacher in-service education. The principle of teacher education seen as a continuum has been established, "... in which quality initial training and well-managed structured induction are followed by well-devised in-career training programmes, available periodically throughout a teacher's career." (DES, 1995, 128).

The White Paper (1995) outlined organisational arrangements for INSET. (DES, 1995, 131). This research described the extent to which the structures have been established. The In-Career Development Unit has been established in the Department, but the two advisory committees proposed have not been established as originally intended. The extensive building development of the Education Centres and the employment of full-time staff has enhanced the function and capacity of the Centres. The enhanced role of being the focal point for national programmes of curriculum change has raised their profile regionally.

The failure to establish the education boards, it is argued, constrained the process of decentralisation. Consequently, the administrative burden of implementing the new programmes and other curriculum changes at senior and junior cycle, and the lack of a policy committee on INSET, has meant that strategic planning for INSET has been neglected. This has resulted in a lack of coherence in the provision and a lack of due

regard for balancing the personal and professional needs of the teacher as well as those of the school system. A number of sources quoted above refer to the need for co-ordination of a coherent programme of INSET (CHL, 1991, 51; Hyland and Hanafin, 1997, 166).

The funding for INSET, the research showed, has been greatly increased since the early nineties, as a result of improved economic circumstances in Ireland and because of funding from the EU. Figures in Table 2 showed that there was an almost a doubling of funding for INSET at second level from the period 1996-1999. This increase was absorbed very easily into the system and the ICDU considered that the provision was cost effective when compared to figures from other sectors (ICDU, 1999). The increased funding and the policy structure increased the provision of INSET. In the early nineties Swan (1991, 24 ) proposed that the education system needed a strategy for anticipating and directing change, and increased funding to adequately resource it. He suggested that the question to ask “.. is not whether we can afford this, but rather whether we can afford to continue without it.” (ibid., 29) The focus of the question has now changed to whether we can continue to spend £8 millions a year on INSET at second level without ensuring that it is contributing to effective change in the classroom. How effective the increased provision has been in effecting curriculum change in the classroom is a question that has been addressed to a different extent in each of the evaluations conducted, and needs further analysis.

This research shows that a variety of forms of INSET was provided on a wide range of issues with support from ICDU funding. The provision was in line with priority areas identified in the White Paper (1995). The Support Service structure, with at least seven different Support Services in place, offered the widest range of provision, responding to changes in the curriculum at senior and junior cycle. There was clear progression in terms of the range of the provision in the nineties. The emphasis changed from “top-down” to more involvement of school and teachers in designing and planning. There was also the development of what the OECD (1998) described as the “bottom-across” model. This approach whereby cluster groups of schools were involved in joint INSET initiatives, brought new perspectives on addressing educational problems.

Two of the curriculum development initiatives described earlier, Schools for Active Learning (SAL) and School and Curriculum Development (SCD), used the cluster concept as a key administrative and principled strategy (Callan, 1997, 3). In particular it enabled sensitivity to local schools norms when working on curricular initiatives, and also created a local pool of expertise and support for the schools and teachers to discuss and explore possible solutions to the those problems (Archer, 94, 105). The resultant networks provide the basis for further developments both at school and individual levels. The evaluation of the LCVP pointed out that the formation of self-sustaining clusters is still at an embryonic stage (Granville, 1999, 57). The associated work of planning a role and function for the cluster and of defining specific objectives, requires dedicated personnel and Granville proposed that these clusters appeared to need some ongoing external support (ibid.,57). The evaluations of the senior cycle programmes referred to in this thesis have each highlighted the central role of clustering in the provision of INSET, indicating that the model appears to be successful and has potential for further development.

A number of other INSET models described have provided models that have been deemed effective as reported in the evaluations cited. For example, the extended courses offered by the Secretariat of Secondary Schools, and the approaches taken by the Support Service. However, as Granville (1999, 55) described the phenomenon of 'innovation without change' as the "...capacity of a system to accommodate the rhetoric of reform within the culture and practice of the status quo." He found some signs of this to be evident in the implementation of the LCVP, and commented on the dominance of discussion of the public examinations in some of the INSET sessions.

This supports Callan's (1994) point also discussed in Archer (1994, 110) that curriculum change must be accompanied by the necessary structural changes such as class size, timetable, the physical environment and the demands of the public examinations system, if curriculum changes are to be implemented in the classroom.

Callan (2000) emphasised the importance of addressing the phenomenology of change, which involves considering the context in which the change is to be implemented. It requires focusing on school personnel, understanding and acknowledging the reality of the school setting as core to effective curriculum change (Callan, 2000, 4).



In-service education for teachers as defined in the introduction of this thesis included extending personal education, developing professional competence and improving understanding of educational principles and techniques. This research showed that opportunities for developing professional competence have been supported financially and otherwise by the Department through many different initiatives. The evidence was also that teachers acting on their own initiative to obtain extra qualifications and training at different stages in their career, so as they might be more effective in their jobs, were offered no significant incentives in terms of fees or release from school. Third level courses provide the theoretical understanding of educational principles and techniques that a holistic approach to in-service education requires. Providing support to teachers to develop theoretical understanding is building the foundation for improved professional competence.

Many of the aspects of INSET policy of the White Paper still need to be addressed to respond adequately to the demands of educating young people for the twenty first century as outlined in chapter 1, and in response to the many curriculum changes described in chapter 2. Much progress has been made in the development of INSET models and in the evaluation of those modes to provide recommendations for future initiatives. The momentum needs to be sustained with a coherent strategy. A foundation of co-operation between the Department, the agencies providing INSET, and education partners involved in INSET has been established. These relationships can be strengthened and developed, to provide quality INSET programmes. Well focused and relevant INSET will inspire greater confidence in the teaching profession to participate, particularly when the learning can be transferred to the classroom. The variety of experiences of the nineties can greatly inform future strategies for the evolution of policy for developing programmes of INSET.

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