

**Rethinking quality of education in the context of emergencies:
a focus on teacher education**

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Abstract

As the international community moves towards the adoption of a global post-2015 education agenda, stakeholders have agreed on shifting the focus from ensuring access to improving access plus quality teaching and learning through a well-trained cohort of quality teachers. Such a turn has increased the pressure on governments to concert policies that improve teachers' professional development, and by extension, the professional learning of teacher educators.

This study is an attempt to add to the debate about quality teaching by investigating what this concept entails in the context of teacher educators' professional development. While there is a growing literature on teacher education and teacher educators, there is a shortage of sources that look critically at the professional development of teacher educators, especially at how quality of learning is evaluated. This literature-review based dissertation aims to fill this gap by providing a theoretical model that illustrates how to map different theoretical discourses and frameworks within the quality debate with respect to the 'how' of teacher education in the field of crises and emergencies. By shifting to a more flexible approach, grounded in human development outcomes, measuring quality in professional development is expanded beyond the quantifying inputs.

Concurrent to the main goal of this piece of research, there is a continuous emphasis on the importance of enhancing the professional role of teacher educators in the development of a highly skilled and qualified teacher force and in building capacity to transform the long-term prospects of people and societies and achieve a quality education for all.

List of abbreviations

ATEP	Afghanistan Teacher Education Programme
CBE	Community Based Education
CFS	Child Friendly Spaces
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
EDC	Education Development Center
EiE	Education in Emergencies
EFA	Education for All
GPE	Global Partnership Education
ICT	Information Computer Technology
INEE	Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies
INEE MS	Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies Minimum Standards
INGOs	International Non-Governmental Organisations
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoEHE	Ministry of Education and Higher Education
oPt	Occupied Palestinian territory
OER	Open Educational Resources
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PGM	Peer-Group Mentoring
SD	Sustainable Development
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
TPD	Teachers professional Development
TESSA	Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa
ToT	Training of Trainers
TT	Teacher Training
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

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Chapter One. Setting the scene

“In almost all my visits to areas ravaged by war and disaster, the plea of survivors is the same: ‘Education first’” Ban Ki Moon. Education First.

Education in emergency situations has a long history in the form of refugee education, which dates back to the fifties, when UNHCR and UNWRA were created. With time, it has evolved to designate a field characterised by conflict, fragility, crisis and natural disasters amongst others. Parallel to this, a growing body of literature about quality in educational interventions in this field has emerged. As it stands, quality of education for all also matters in the context of emergencies. The 2013/14 Education for All Global Monitoring Report “Teaching and Learning: Achieving quality for all, is acquainted with this issue and documents the consequences of having failed to pay attention to quality: a global learning crisis that can have serious consequences for the world economy. The UNESCO Report recognises, beyond learning, the importance of teaching and teachers in sustaining a quality education system for all, which is linked to the purpose of this study: what type of education should teachers receive so that they develop the desired skills to provide quality education in emergencies? How do they construct their knowledge? This chapter sets the scene of this research: quality of teachers’ learning in the context of emergencies.

1.1. Quality of education in Education in Emergencies (EiE). Past, present and future

The international community has acknowledged wars, conflicts and natural disasters as some of the most important threats to the fulfillment of the international education goals, including Millennium Development Goal 2 (EFA Global Report, 2011). The UNESCO Report has made evident that, despite the progress made in recent years towards achieving the goals of the Education for All (EFA) initiative and improving the quality of education agreed upon at the World Education Forum held in Dakar in April 2000, serious errors of misjudgment have exacerbated the situation.

Based on the recommendations of the Dakar Framework for Action and the Convention of the Right of the Child, that states the child’s right to education, as well as

a number of other international conventions and recommendations, it can be concluded that everyone has the right not only to receive education, but also to receive education of a high quality.

The 64th United Nations General Assembly resolution “The right to education in emergency situations” (A/64/L.58), adopted on 9 July 2010, has urged Member States to ensure access to education in times of emergency situations, and promote this right as a key component of humanitarian efforts and educational quality as the main conceptualisation of it: “it urges Member States during the reconstruction and post – emergency interventions to provide quality education in emergency situations that is gender-sensitive, centred on learners, rights-based, protective, adaptable, inclusive, participatory and reflective of the specific living conditions of children and youth and that pays due regard, as appropriate, to their linguistic and cultural identity, mindful that quality education can foster tolerance and mutual understanding and respect for the human rights of others” (UN General Assembly, 2010).

The fact that United Nations mirrored the core tenets of the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) in its discourse was interpreted as recognition of EiE as a professionalised field with standardised practices, good strategies and a prominent place within the humanitarian world. However, this support also brought some challenges to the sector, and they relate to the accepted assumptions on the conceptualisation of quality of education within a rights-based approach, the absence of specificity between humanitarian and development aid, and the lack of public debate to face the new challenges in view of the expanding nature of education in contexts of crises. The dearth of public discussions on these new challenges in EiE has been recently replaced by a myriad of proposals made by the global community in the lead up to the year 2015 education agenda which “highlight the need to respond to and address conflict, violence, marginalization and environmental disaster. The focus on these issues underscore the strong desire and perhaps growing consensus for social, economic and political change across the globe- change that would enable all people to more fully realize their human rights” (Williams, 2013:25). Calls for a more

sustainable framework to guide global development and a further intervention on emerging issues have had a positive impact on the evolution of EiE.

Education First, an initiative launched in September 2012 by the UN Secretary General Ban Ki Moon “aimed to raise the political profile of education, strengthen the global movement to achieve access to quality education and generate additional and sufficient funding through sustained advocacy efforts” (Talbot, 2012: 6). In an urgent response to this initiative, promptly a group of global leaders endorsed an urgent “Call to Action” (“Education Cannot Wait: A Call to Action by Global Leaders to Help Children in Crisis Countries”) to ensure the world’s most vulnerable children receive a quality education. They called for protecting schools from attacks, significantly increasing humanitarian aid for education, and planning and budgeting for emergencies before they occur (<http://www.globalpartnership.org/all-children-learning-report-2013/>).

In its post-2015 advocacy, the international community has provided quality of education a central place in the education agenda. A venture that, as described by Palmer (2013), remains a tripartite process: the post-MDGs Process, the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) process and the post-EFA process, as well as being dominated by three types of discourses according to Wulff (2013):

1. A learning discourse focused on testing and measurable learning outcomes, embodied in the report issued in May 2013 by the UN High Level Panel on the Post-2015 Development Agenda “Providing Quality Education and Lifelong Learning” (HLP, 2013).
2. The education and skills discourse, highlighted in the UN Facilitated Global Consultation and centred on skills, employability and economic returns (Wulff, 2013). It proposed a stand-alone education goal, “Equitable, quality education and lifelong learning for all” (UNESCO-UNICEF, 2013:43) further enhanced by the UN Secretary General Report on MDGs and Post-2014 “A Life of Dignity for All”. This report remained faithful to education and skills as two relevant dimensions to the post-2015 growth and

employment agenda.

3. The human rights discourse, represented by UNESCO-UNICEF and the EFA assessment process and background of the Post-EFA process.

Amidst the divergences in outlook for the Post-2015 three main strands of the process remain open and it is still difficult to see how they will fit together. This lack of agreement on what educational goal/s the new framework should respond to and how to tackle them has posed some challenges and criticisms. Talbot (2012: 8) in particular points out that “the education component of a future post-global development agenda needs to be comprehensively worded, allowing for inclusion of all population groups, all situations and all sub-sectors of education systems”.

The present landscape seems too complex, at this stage, to know what this new agenda will entail for EiE and some concern about a weak commitment to this plan has been voiced. Even though there is a recognition of the progress being made, the education in emergencies community, through the “Education Cannot Wait: Call to Action” and the INEE Working Group on Education Cannot Wait Advocacy, has come together to require a stronger commitment from the international community “through the creation and inclusion of a measurable indicator to ensure children and youth in crisis situations have access to safe, quality, relevant education”. <http://www.ineesite.org/en/blog/inees-response-to-the-uns-report-on-the-post-2015-development-agenda>.

1.2 Teacher education policies and quality of education. Prevailing and changing discourses

From the above it is evident that quality of education has become a key concept in the EiE discussion. Stakeholders want to improve quality, yet despite the overarching message of the need to provide quality of education in crises, many questions emerge when thinking of the best way of conceptualising this in the context of emergencies. Do teachers play a key role in achieving this quality? Does a rights-based approach guarantee a sustainable quality model of education that promotes lifelong learning? Do

outreach practices of psychosocial support benefit equally all children in a post-emergency setting? Can an overreliance on teachers as mediators in psychosocial intervention have a good result? Can a unique framework sustain such a complex field? What role is assigned to teacher education in policies that promote quality of education? Does EFA need to focus on inputs, process or outcomes?

To date, two main approaches to quality of education have influenced teacher education policies (Nikel and Lowe, 2010):

1. The quality movement, or imperative of quality, prevalent in the eighties and nineties, in pursuit of accountability and transparency of educators and institutions. In line with 'private sector management styles' this movement, under the effects of neo-liberal ideas, associated quality with accountability. It translated into an increased emphasis on measuring outcomes, insistence on accountability and quality management at all levels (Nikel and Lowe, 2010). Within this vision, an instrumental vision of education prevailed where quality was translated into measurable learning outcomes (Wulff, 2013: 81) in line with the main principles of Human Capital Theory. Placing education as the centre of all explanations of economic growth was a vision that had a great influence on education policies of many developing countries. This is the case of the large in-service teacher training gender-focused scheme adopted by the Kenyan government illustrated by Yates (2007), where the investment of achieving improved gender equity was not for women's benefit, but for the Kenyan society at large.

2. The quality debate, or imperative for quality, beyond the idea of outputs and management as the key to quality of education. It followed a pedagogy-driven approach where the processes substituted outputs and individuals replaced numbers. For the first time key words currently associated to quality of education appeared: 'effectiveness', 'processes', 'improvement', 'teaching and learning', 'relevance' (Nikel and Lowe, 2010: 592). Numerous educational interventions can be grouped under this heading: the first one is that of Aguilar and Retamal (2009), who, following UN

agencies' philosophy took a humanist approach to quality of education: that of a protective environment and a humanitarian curriculum that provided a more varied dimension of cognitive and psychosocial/affective activities. This environment, called Child Friendly Spaces (CFS), delivered protection through education, hygiene, health, psychosocial support, play and recreation (UNICEF, 2009). The role played by families, teachers and communities in the process of learning was an important aspect of UNICEF's conceptualisation of quality of education. Teacher educators and community leaders were trained to assist children in these spaces drawing on the principles that quality of education is linked to personal development as described by the underpinning development theory of human rights. The emphasis on the meaningful contributions that a rights-based approach can have for quality of education from a pedagogical point of view was further supported by the INEE. With the design of "The Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crises and Early Reconstruction" (INEE, 2004), updated in 2010 and renamed "Minimum Standards for Education: Preparedness, Response, Recovery" and later supplemented by "Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning", part of the INEE Toolkit, the INEE highlighted the importance of responding to the psychosocial needs of the learners when training teachers and of working closely with the community. Sesnan et al. praise these standards for refugee settings and highlight some limitations in not addressing important issues (...) "that informally trained teachers might not use learner-centred pedagogy (...) that home/host countries may vary culturally over the use of corporal punishment (...) does not discuss in detail teachers who are themselves refugees" (2013: 15-16). Indeed the major weakness for these authors is that the process is somehow flawed by the lack of guidance on the content of quality of education and how this must be measured, two important issues to meet educational goals in refugee camps.

Paulson (2011), Tikly (2010) and other authors thought that a broadened view of education quality necessitated a focus on more than learning outcomes and saw the need of stepping beyond human rights and economic arguments to perspectives on

human development. By expanding the framework mainly based on processes and content to one based on a combination of inputs, processes and content, Tikly (2010) adopted a more challenging context-led framework that allowed for critical perspectives and alternative voices. This evolved towards the conceptualisation of quality from a social justice perspective, meaning that the underlying concept of development was viewed slightly differently (Tikly and Barret, 2011). Whilst they acknowledged the need to have a set of agreed norms or values, the scholars expanded their vision from the international set of agreed rights to focusing on the identification of the things that people value doing and being. This relates to the view of 'development as freedom' that Sen's (1999) Capability Approach (CA) advocates for. With regards to teacher educators, the CA focuses mainly in what they are able to do or be. In Yates' (2007:10) own words: "More fundamentally it is concerned with people's (in this case teacher's) freedoms to achieve what they have reason to value". As the CA is also concerned with protecting and facilitating the freedoms that allow for the development of a wide capability set, the functionings teachers have enable them to do or be the things that they have reason to value. In practice, functionings can range from simple, at the classroom level as the discipline used to promote cooperative learning, to quite complex functionings, such as playing a leading role in school based innovative reforms by taking part in community projects (*Ibid.*)

1.3. Rationale of the study and research questions

Recalling the different discourses on quality of education uncovered in this chapter, it could be well argued that conceptualisations of quality have been researched in many educational contexts. To this end different frameworks have been designed, redesigned and implemented in the last few decades (UNESCO, UNICEF, Delors report). Yet, being quality a focus in the educational discourse since the eighties, it is still difficult to find reports that illustrate theory and practice as an entity in the field of teacher learning. These findings lead to what Ben-Peretz (1995:546) calls "a fragmented view of knowledge, both in coursework and in field experience" and also to reinforce the view that research into the professional development of teacher educators is scarce (Villegas Reimers, 2003).

This study follows the premise that the role of teacher educators needs to be increasingly recognised as an important instrument for the education of future teachers and other educational staff, especially in low-income countries and emergency contexts where there is generally a lack of qualified teachers. Concurrent to this, as Korthagen et al. (2005: 107) point out, teacher education only impact students if the total ecology of the teacher preparation program is coherently constructed and purposefully conducted. Putnam and Borko (2000) agreed with researching “the central role of the processes going on within teacher education”.

When looking at the teacher education development trajectory, it is really quite remarkable that only recently agencies, stakeholders and donors have turned their attention to teachers and the training they receive. A consideration that produces concerns in the field of EiE for scholars like Gladwell (2013), who thinks that “investing in the quality of instruction that teachers receive must be the norm, and not just a trend”. It seems evident that aspiring to quality of education in the context of emergencies and low-income countries will be unsuccessful unless there is a system in place that looks at the process of teacher development and that commits (politically and financially) to placing teacher professional development at the centre of any agenda.

Research indicates that there could be better outcomes for students if teacher educators were better prepared and supported (Deem, 2007). The question to be asked is then why is there such a lack of understanding about the job of teacher educators and how they construct their profession. The truth is that little is known about this professional body and how they learn, in part, as Korthagen et al. (2005) explain, due to the fact that it has not attracted the attention of field researchers.

While authors like Wright (2011:23) state that “EiE can no longer be deemed as a field in its infancy”, probing for what makes a teacher education program effective and conducive to quality learning in this context has been challenging. A glance at the

publications of relevant international educational organisations and INGOs show a wide array of case studies and reports that describe teacher professional best practices in the field of EiE. They lack though, a clear understanding of what pedagogical basis they follow, what type of knowledge they embody and which set of quality indicators they adhere to.

Before moving further, it is important to clarify what this study means by ‘teacher educators’, given the numerous definitions used in different publications. Bates et al. (2011) have drawn attention to the difficulty of giving a definition of teacher educators that embraces the complexity of the role and the challenges that these experts face when developing professionally. Concomitant with this difficulty, there is a belief that the nature of teaching educators tends to be oversimplified. For the purpose of this study, Swennen et al.’s (2011:139) definition is selected: “teacher educators as a specialized professional group within education with their own specific identity and their own specific professional development needs”. This is mainly so because it covers a wide range of professionals: higher education teachers, community leaders, school based teachers, teacher learners, education specialists, etc. As in many publications, the terms teacher trainer, teacher educator or even just teacher are used indistinctively.

Drawing on these authors’ definition and following on from the above, this dissertation seeks examining the quality of teacher education in emergencies and crises or low-income countries through the lens of ‘how’ learning takes place (professional development’s main pedagogies and support and forms of teacher knowledge). With this objective in mind, it develops a ‘four-dimensional’ framework around which the quality of teacher educator learning can be measured. Similarly, it makes a case for greater recognition of the work of teacher educators and their fundamental role in educating and providing foundation for any society and contribution for a transformative world.

The following questions will help achieve the principal aim of the study for the specific contexts of low-income countries and emergencies.

1. What pedagogical principles underpin teachers' education professional models?
2. What forms of teacher knowledge do educational interventions promote?
3. What conceptualisations of quality embrace teaching education programmes?

1.4. Overview of chapters

Chapter Two presents the review of the literature related to the first two factors that make up the theoretical model proposed in this study: teaching models and forms of knowledge.

Chapter Three presents the methodology used in this dissertation and justifies the choice of a case study scenario.

Chapter Four introduces the third element of the Evaluating quality framework, the 'fabric model' of Nikel and Lowe (2010).

Chapter Five summarises the findings of the previous chapter and outlines the implications of adopting the Evaluating Quality Framework as the base of future teaching education programmes. It looks at how to expand this framework with the assumptions of the CA to include a human development vision.

Chapter Six uses an existing Case Study to illustrate how to implement the theoretical model proposed.

Chapter Seven draws some conclusions and makes recommendations for future research.

Chapter Two. Literature review

Schwille and Dembele (2007) refer to the complexity of teacher education and the challenges that this raises amid educational staff, experts and policy-makers. The main concerns relate to issues such as the amount and types of professional preparation best suited for teaching, the importance of pedagogy and the knowledge that learning programmes should convey. The title of this dissertation captures the nature of an emergent debate that is taking place in developing countries: the effectiveness of teachers' preparation. On the basis of some initial investigation, it becomes evident that when the terms "educational professional development" appear on different publications, the focus is normally upon the teacher, whilst the 'teacher of teachers' receives little, if any attention.

At present numerous professionals agree that a new image of teacher education and professional development is emerging and that the transition from teacher to teacher educator is being further researched. This is, in part, due to the fact that traditional approaches to teacher preparation and staff development are under increasing critical scrutiny for their incapacity to meet the professional learning needs of practitioners. Sykes (1996:45) refers to the ineffectiveness of common training activities as the most serious unsolved problem for policy and practice.

On the basis of literature review and research evidence, this section discusses quality teachers' learning from the lens of pedagogy. Defining what constitutes pedagogy is arduous, yet for the purpose of this study, it is explained as 'how' teaching and learning occurs. The underlying pedagogical theory relate to different models of teacher preparation, based on Villegas and Reimers (2003), and the forms of teacher knowledge (based on Schulman's classification) that inspire their learning.

For this research exercise information has been obtained through conventional internet search engines and also through the library of the Institute of Education. The

INEE website in particular provided most of the examples and case studies information. The literature focused on here consists primarily of research studies, journal articles, working papers, and INGOs (International Non-Governmental Organisations) publications.

2.1. Teacher educational practices or models of capacity building: theoretical models and practical examples

Villegas-Reimers (2003) follows a dual classification, the first one describes types of organisational or inter-institutional partnerships and the second one groups techniques used in different training approaches in small settings. Although the models are listed separately, she points at the normalcy of combining different models simultaneously in educational interventions.

Organizational partnership models	Small group or individual models
Professional-development schools	Supervision: traditional and clinical
Other university-school partnerships	Students' performance assessment
Other inter-institutional collaborations	Workshops, seminars, courses, etc.
Schools' networks	Case-based study
Teachers' networks	Self-directed development
Distance education	Co-operative or collegial development
	Observation of excellent practice
	Teachers' participation in new roles
	Skills-development model
	Reflective models
	Project-based models
	Portfolios
	Action research
	Use of teachers' narratives
	Generational or cascade model
	Coaching/mentoring

Figure 1. Models and types of teachers professional development (p.70)

A. Organisational partnership models

Although it may vary in focus, goals and organisation, Professional Development Schools (PDSs) are one of the most recurrent models of professional development present in many different countries. Professionals interested in improving their teaching and learning or reconciling theory and practice follow this paradigm, a collaborative model between teachers, administrators and university faculty members.

It is a model that serves the needs of novice teachers and of expert educators who wish to enhance their teaching practices (pre-service and in-service education). The importance of this model, as Villegas-Reimers (2003) highlights, is the lack of hierarchy in the system. Both partners (school and universities) are at the same level and they work to “improve the teachers' working conditions, increase the quality of education for students, and offer teachers and administrators opportunities for professional development” (Villegas- Reimers, 2003:72).

This model has developed over time and a technological component has been added, resulting in an ePDS label. It has strengthened the collaborative aspect of this approach by allowing extra communication through technology. Most of the low-income countries have relied on this system to provide an in-service training for teachers and/or teacher educators, although the latest teacher development literature suggests that they are favouring school-based training supported by school clusters and local support agents (Hardman, 2011). This is the case of the Continuous Professional Development (CPD) strategy of Uganda or the Malawi Integrated In-Service Teacher Education Programme (*Ibid.*)

One of the main partnerships, the University-school one aims mainly at establishing firm networks between two educational institutions, schools and universities and responding to the needs of teachers in the field, be it related to knowledge, skills or research. Some forms of university-school partnership may be located in the same geographical area, whereas others foster collaboration from different countries. This is

a typical pattern of collaboration developed in countries like Canada (Teacher Apprenticeship Programme), and Pakistan, between the Aga Khan University's Institute for Educational Development and schools in the Karachi area (Khamis, 2004).

Inter-institutional or private collaborations work under a triangulation system, or in other words, a partnership between schools, Universities and Ministries of Education, or even with non-educational companies from the private sector that act as informal teachers. Established as either short or long-term alliances they have a very specific goal. One example of this collaboration is that of UNHCR, Safaricom and Microsoft in Dadaab, where they teamed up to provide technology to primary school teachers whose schools had no libraries.

The move towards school-based training has led to the expansion of 'school networks', as well as 'teacher networks', created with the aim of promoting inquiry-based approaches (action research, study groups) that supported teacher's learning and change of traditional pedagogic practices. These initiatives developed in several countries like India and Pakistan and have become almost an institution in the Sub-Saharan African teacher development programmes in line with the decentralisation of teacher education. Through formal or informal procedures (funding from development partners or local support agents), teachers are brought together in teachers' networks to address issues and concerns related to their own professional context. They are clustered mainly by subject matter, skills or interests, or geographically by region, district or city. There is a very fine line between educationalist networks and 'communities of practices', an alternative to the previously mentioned model that has similar aims in mind although sometimes implemented at a smaller scale. As mentioned above, school and teacher networks' have proliferated in recent years in low-income countries, being part of successful teaching programmes, such as Teacher Circles in Nueva Escuela Unitaria in Guatemala in the late 1990s (Hardman, 2012) or the TESSA initiative developed by the Open University.

Contemporary to the focus in school and classrooms, and the idea of developing cost-effective systems of training, different countries have implemented 'distance education' within professional development programmes. A form of education linked to its mode of delivery (Commonwealth of Learning, 2008), it has long been a major form of professional development for pre-service and in-service teachers in developing and developed countries, and lately, an add-on feature in other types of capacity building practices. Mary Burns (2011) mentions 5 main types of distance education (see Figure 2 below) in which each category comprises a varied group of tools. Within this type of education there is a trend to employ a hybrid or blended learning approach, whereby face-to-face sessions combine with online teaching. Generally speaking, certain types of models are better suited for some aspects of teacher development, as teaching practices show.

Distance education has played an important role for novice and more expert teachers in the field of emergencies. Sinclair (2002) and others recommended a few years ago the use of distance learning in order to reach large numbers of untrained teachers at once. Currently Open and Distance Learning (OPL) is a major training format used in some refugee camps, as illustrated in the programme tablets-for-teachers used in South Sudan with interesting results in quality, standardisation and record-keeping (Sesnan et al. 2013). Audio-based instruction, initially developed for direct study learning, has been increasingly used as a tool to support teacher improvement. Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI), particularly, has been used in several projects to access educational materials projects as examples from Haiti, South Sudan and Somalia show. Mobile learning is also on the rise for effective professional development. The University of Amsterdam and Edukan's project "Learning in Process" have developed interesting models that use video enabled technology to further enhance teacher's reflection. In this specific venture developed in Ethiopia and Uganda, lessons were filmed and analysed by the teacher alongside peers and coaches. Reflection was activated immediately after the class by playing back the videos and by reviewing good practices.

Types of Distance Education	Examples
Correspondence model	Print
Audio-based models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Broadcast: IRI ▪ Narrowcast: IAI (via audio tape or CDs) ▪ Two-way radio ▪ Audio conferencing and telephone ▪ Broadcast radio
Televisual models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Broadcast television (educational and instructional) ▪ Videoconferencing ▪ Video
Computer-based multimedia models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Interactive video (disc and tape) ▪ CD-ROMs ▪ Digital videodiscs (DVDs/VCDs) ▪ Interactive multimedia
Web-based models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Computer-mediated communication ▪ Internet-based access to World Wide Web resources ▪ Online courses (e-learning) ▪ Online conferences (webcasts and webinars) ▪ Virtual classes/schools (cyber schools) and universities
Mobile models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Hand-held devices ▪ Portable media players (podcasting) ▪ Cell phones and smart phones ▪ Tablets ▪ E-readers

Figure 2: Types (“Generations”) of Distance Education and Major Examples of Each Type of Distance Education

Other teacher educational projects are piloting blended learning approaches, a combination of in-classroom support together with access to online educational materials. The objective is enabling teachers to being more autonomous by learning from different sources whilst they are coached to reflect on what they are learning. Examples of blended approaches are embodied in “Healing Classrooms”, a project that provides teachers with access to an off-line database of more than 500 videos, audio and text resources through tablets. Another example is OER4Schools, a blend of Open Educational Resources with ICT and in school support. “Namibia and the Discovery

Schools Global Learning Program” has also used video for instruction. Educators have created scripted handbooks that guide the teacher through their routine. This is also the main success of the TESSA project, an initiative that offers a range of Open Educational Resources (OER) in different languages to support school based teacher education and training to teachers and teacher educators from across sub-Saharan Africa. Albeit the invaluable support and models of good practice and quality resources that the use of Information Computer Technology (ICT) within Distance Education can offer, these examples show that in order to enlarge the effectiveness of technology, there needs to be careful planning to integrate ICT within a framework for professional development. Using ICT wisely means offering support to teachers and teacher educators and customising classroom-based assessment as the basis for a support capacity building model.

B. Techniques and small-scale models

In relation to other models of professional development, ‘classroom observation’ is a typical form of teacher evaluation that normally focuses on classroom practice and leaves out other aspects of the teaching practice (preparation, and thinking processes). An external person, normally an administrator or director of the school comes into the class and evaluates the performance of the teacher against a set of criteria established beforehand. Unwelcomed in the past by many teachers as it only focused on negative aspects, this practice is at present one of the most demanded in teacher training schools and refugee camps. If supported by other forms of evaluation, it could act as an effective model of professional growth and development

Many examples illustrate the positive outcome of this model, such as the field-based training in Pakistan (Khamis, 2004) where experienced teachers observed novice teachers in order to improve their skills. This tool has been also successful in other programmes as part of a follow-up in groups or accompanied by individual conferences.

Linked to this practice, conceived either as a stand-alone professional development activity or as part of a larger development program, ‘observation of excellent practice’, makes of observing teachers who excel at their profession the basis of this model. Through this model teacher learners have the opportunity to observe and reflect on the attitudes and skills of senior teachers and learn how to implement it in their own professional context. Observations can be made on a *physical setting* (physical environment and its organisation), *human setting* (gender, class and other characteristics of people observed), *interactional setting* (formal, informal planned or unplanned interactions) and *programme setting* (pedagogic styles, curricula and resources) (Morrison, 1993:80). Industrialised countries have reproduced this instructional practice, such as the UK and the Teachers International Professional Development programme, run by the British Council, who funds teachers to take time off their work and visit teaching colleges and schools that excel in teaching. Shadowing a teacher, for less expert teachers is also a possibility, implemented and embedded in pre-service and in-service training programmes of industrialised and low-income countries.

The ‘training model’ (in the form of workshops, seminars, lectures, conferences and courses) is the most traditional format used in the in-service staff training, CPD and field capacity building. When combined with other formats it can create new models of teaching practices resulting in: a combination of workshops and on-going support; conferences plus community discussions; a mixture of workshops, practical classes, discussion groups plus training on specific issues. Its main detractors criticise that “it offers few opportunities for choice or individualisation (...) and it may not be appropriate for the varied levels of educator’s skills and expertise” (Guskey, 2000: 23), and that it supports a high degree of central control, often masked as quality assurance, and “places teachers in a passive role as recipients of specific knowledge” (Kennedy 2005: 238), narrowing down standardised training to immediate improvements in teaching. Several experiences illustrate this criticism: teacher educators in Namibia used lecture methods (rote-learning based) to train primary

teachers learners (Sullivan, 2002), neglecting child-centred methods in their teaching. TEP in Afghanistan modeled teachers in active-learning pedagogies using passive methods of teaching. Bam (Iran, 2004) put in place this teaching practice to train teachers after the earthquake, resulting in little effectiveness. Despite its drawbacks (theoretical model with very little practicality) the training model is acknowledged as an effective way of introducing new information or training teachers in new practices and the favourite one in developing countries for being the most cost-effective way of training many teachers at once and of building capacity on very specific skills (technical or pedagogical).

Another format commonly employed in developing contexts is the 'cascade model', or Training of Trainers (ToT) model, where teachers who learn a new skill, normally by attending training courses, become the educators or new teachers and disseminate the new knowledge to colleagues, who in turn might be teaching future teachers about their discipline. In this technicist view of teaching (Kennedy, 2005), skills and knowledge form the basis of quality learning, leaving out values and attitudes. Outcomes are favoured over processes and general knowledge over contextualised learning. The cascade model of school-based training was used by the Key Resource Teachers (KRT) who took part in the CPD programme developed by the Kenyan Government in the late nineties (Hardman, 2012). It failed to have a bigger impact due to the oversimplification of the knowledge generated and disseminated and the lack of support provided by the KRT, which posed a problems for the quality of teaching in the subsequent generations.

Other models put the focus on 'Increasing teacher participation' in new roles. The idea behind this model of professional development lies in the encouragement of teachers to be part of external activities such as management, organisation, support and monitoring, they become more motivated and hence more effective. In Guskey's view (2000:24) the advantage of involvement in a development / improvement "process is

that participants not only increase their specific knowledge and skills, they also enhance their ability to work collaboratively and share in decision-making”.

Capacity building of teacher educators through an approach to professional learning based on increasing teachers’ involvement in curriculum development was the success of a training undergone in 21 tertiary institutions in the Southern Philippines. It was also the main pedagogical practice underlying the Emergency Issues Teacher Training Programme in Sierra Leone, by Unicef (2008). The programme engaged a group of teacher trainers to decide what issues to be included in the curriculum to promote behavior changes amongst teachers in response to a post-conflict situation. This model has been popular with curriculum development mainly, as teamwork for this endeavor is very suited to its end. The Escuela Nueva model in Colombia, a project developed to improve multi-grade teaching in rural areas is another good example of this practice. Through peer-teaching, videotaping and recording and post-reflection teachers feel that their expertise is part of the process. Reflection as the basis is also shared by ‘Case-based professional’ development and ‘Professional portfolios’. The case method or as they like to call it now, example of best practices, is used to reflect on certain issues within the teaching profession and generate some discussion around about these. The use of case-based material for TPD is an opportunity to reflect on real professional scenarios and can be used for a later group discussion. The case method is very much employed by the INEE Toolkit, where example of best practices are shared in their web and used in online forums to reflect on real world examples. Several examples of Haiti’s latest earthquake, Indonesia’s tsunami and capacity building in fragile contexts like Gaza are just an example. ‘Professional portfolios’ also help teachers reflect on their own work, share activities and monitor their progress and is a common place in pre-service teachers programmes. Portfolios are like folders that gather the work and progress of a teacher over time, in terms of learning or teaching. Unfortunately they still have not found a relevant place in contexts of crises.

Another set of models takes on the teacher as reflective practitioner. This model needs to be mirrored in teachers' classrooms daily practice. By reflecting on their own practice and the impact this can have on the wellbeing of students, quality of teaching can be improved. In current teaching training programs the implication of the teacher as researcher and as reflective practitioner has become almost an obligation. This model has been positively evaluated as it helps thinking conceptually and theorising about the teaching profession. If the model includes group reflection it can further expand the scope of the exercise. Professional development programs that use this model share some common points: a deep analysis of a student's practice and its impact in the classroom and a multidimensional perspective. Although it has not been Linked to this practice is the action research or practitioner based research model.

Cohen and Manion (1994: 186) define action research as "a small-scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such an intervention". Within the teaching professional development context there are several areas where this model can be implemented: teaching methods, learning strategies, evaluative procedures, attitudes and values, management and control, administration, and continuing professional development (Cohen et al 2011: 345). Embedded in a context that looks for collaborative tools or formats, action research is regarded as a popular way for teachers to research their own institutions. Quality within this model can be perceived as the researcher's understanding of the situation and the practice within the situation.

Action research has been seen as a significant vehicle used to empower teachers and together with the role of reflective practitioner TPD programmes are increasingly promoting these techniques. This can be achieved though the adoption of two main practices: participatory and practical action research. Participatory action research has attracted the attention across the world in its methodology (collective participation), its outcomes (democracy, empowerment, emancipation) and its areas of focus (inequalities, social exclusion, sexism, racism). By contrast practical action research

highlights the teacher as a researcher and it allows capacity for transformative practice and professional autonomy. For example, Namibia conceived a National Plan for Teachers' Professional Development practice-based inquiry, which followed the same principles of the teacher as a researcher movement.

Further to this, 'teachers' narratives' or autobiographical research share the basis of this model: reflecting on one's own experience or writing about it. Conceived as an individual task, teachers can write on a daily basis on their experiences and then share it with other members of the group and discuss them at length. Introspective and at the same time reflective, this model of professional development can help lots of novice teachers grow into analysing issues from the outside. An autobiography is according to Bruner (2004:693) 'a privileged but troubled narrative because it is subjective and objective, reflective and reflexive, and in which the narrator is also the central figure'. Therefore it can be deconstructed, according to Cohen et al. (2011) at many levels: personal, cultural, interpersonal, ideological, linguistic and so on. Writing as a tool for professional development has evolved and at present this practice has been reinvented with the arrival of technology. Blogs and other forms of digital writing are replacing the traditional format. Writing is a form of training very consolidated in developed countries, yet it takes very little space in teaching practices in low-income countries.

In 'cooperative or collegial development' teachers develop their own professional development plan in small groups. By working cooperatively, according to Wilson (1994), teachers are ensuring quality of education. It operates under different formats:

- professional dialogues to discuss professional issues that are key to teachers;
- curriculum development, where teachers are provided with an active role to design and create syllabi;
- coaching and mentoring;
- action research to investigate in groups challenging aspects of teachers work.

'Performance assessment' of students is considered a recent form of professional development that is used as a learning tool for teachers and educators. As teachers engage in student's evaluation process they are aware of the transformation process they go through. This is an instructional model that is frequently used in teachers' networks, normally it is the starting point to create a network and reflect on how to improve their practices. Villegas-Reimers (2003) mentions The Classroom Assessment in Mathematics Network Project set up in the Education Development Center in the USA as an example. Rarely found in the contexts here researched, due mainly to the difficulty to track down student's achievements in conflict or crises.

Other models expand on the vision of working individually and collaboratively as reflective professionals. The 'project-based' models together with discussions and group work teacher-learners are encouraged to become leaders of their projects to prepare them for their leadership roles in the classroom. The lesson study project was introduced in Zambia in 2006 to shift chalk-and-talk lessons, which mainly aimed at the transmission of knowledge, to participatory lessons, which aimed at the development of children's thinking and activities. 'Coaching' and mentoring, conceived as a short-term technique, has become one of the favourite forms of professional development for new teachers. It is defined by the one-to-one relationship established between the teacher and his/her trainer, who usually uses amongst other techniques providing feedback, giving insights and role modeling, encouraging reflection, advising and even evaluating. The mentoring or coaching model was born in the eighties in the USA and was introduced by educational policymakers to contribute to teachers' professional development. Villegas-Reimers (2003) outlines three main models: the apprenticeship model, where trainees need to model their mentors (more suited to novice teachers); the competence model, where mentors take one form of training as the basis for the mentoring exercise; the reflective model, where through reflective techniques the mentor evaluates the role of the trainee teacher (less suited to novice teachers who are not proficient in reflection). The quality of learning lays in the success of

interpersonal relationships hence the importance of having well trained coach on mentoring skills.

Several studies report on the effectiveness of mentoring as a form of professional development. Rosenholtz (1989) argued that teachers who felt supported in their own ongoing learning and classroom practice were more committed and effective than teachers who did not receive such support and guidance. Tomlinson et al (2010:752) supports the view on the relevance of this technique as “it holds the promise of professional motivation and development not only for beginning teacher mentees, but also for teachers providing the mentoring, and hence benefiting schools and educational systems more broadly”. Amongst the benefits, these authors mention a wide range of benefits for novice teachers, such as feelings of isolation, increased confidence and self-esteem, professional growth, increased self-reflection and problem solving.

The concept of mentoring has undergone a transformation over the past years during which it has become more popular. From abandoning the old focus on career advancement to assisting teacher professional development on a one-to-one basis (Tomlinson et al., 2010) to the new model developed in Finland to support new and experienced teachers (Kemmis and Heikkinen, 2012). This illustrates a conceptual change as the word mentoring is increasingly being associated to direct supervision. The Peer-Group Mentoring model (PGM), moving beyond mentoring in its most traditional sense, incorporates study circles, reflective teams, memory-work, peer-networking and coaching. In PGM, the basic arrangement is fundamentally different as the practices are more about dialogue and collaboration than counseling. Indeed it shows that mentoring practices are embracing new formats.

In the field of emergencies, the coaching model is expanding as a way to close the gap between theory and practice. Coaching was the main approach followed by the Education Development Center (EDC) in Indonesia in 2010. A six-month coaching

programme was established to help teachers to incorporate technology in their classrooms. This project first involved the coaching of sixty school-based teachers educators online who became certified coaches. The programme used a blended learning approach. The initial and larger approach was a cascade model based in part on a training developed by an international technology company.

Supported by Joyce and Showers (1988), the 'skills development' model was designed to develop new teaching techniques and skills for teachers. To this end teachers need to be off work to be then slowly reintegrated, through support and mentoring, in the classroom. This model is made of five components: theory grasp through different techniques (group discussions, individual readings and lectures); live or recorded demonstrations of skills; simulation activities to develop practice; feedback is provided by peers; mentoring or coaching to come back to the classroom. It occupies a prominent role in programmes where ICT is involved. An example of this is Technology Together, aimed at improving the capacities of primary and secondary school teachers for teaching ICT.

In 'self-directed development' teachers, after deciding what part of their profession they would like to develop, take responsibility for their own learning. Likewise they devise a plan to achieve their objectives as well as how to proceed to be successful. For this model to be successful supervisors need to support and guide trainees all the way through. As a negative note it is worth pointing that its efficiency has not been researched therefore no conclusions can be made beyond the impact it has on teachers' reflective work. Many of the distance training models used in low-income countries have adopted this practice. By providing access to open resources, teachers choose how to organise their learning.

2. 2. Forms of teacher knowledge

Implicit in Schulman's work is the argument that "high-quality instruction requires a sophisticated, professional knowledge [PCK] that goes beyond simple rules such as how

long to wait for students to respond” (Ball et al. 2008:391). Shulman (1987) proposes the knowledge base in teacher education grounded on seven categories.

- General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter
 - Knowledge of learners and their characteristics
 - Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures
 - Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds
 - Content knowledge
 - Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as “tools of the trade” for teachers
 - Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding
- (Shulman, 1987, p.8)

Figure 3. Forms of knowledge

A review of different approaches to teacher education in EiE and low-income countries show a clear division amongst those programmes that stress the importance of subject-matter knowledge or content knowledge, and those that have shifted to a focus on pedagogical knowledge to emphasise innovative classroom practices, often at the expense of content knowledge.

2.3. Emerging views

This brief review of teacher educators' practices and teacher knowledge shows that certain teaching models and forms of knowledge are more recurrent than others in low-income countries. This has not got, however, any empirical evidence as examples have been extrapolated from all the literature available to illustrate the existing models provided by Villegas-Reimer (2003).

With regards to teacher professional development in the field of emergencies, there is a paucity of research and only some examples of best practices could be retrieved. In fact there is not much inside on teacher training and teacher education programmes in the context of refugees or emergencies. This situation has improved somewhat in recent years thanks to the work of INEE. More publications sharing best practices in TPD and bibliography series are now available. However, even if in these publications the teacher educator's role seldom receives explicit attention, the small amount of literature found helped me to frame this study and gave me more insight about the importance of researching on this field.

The above literature review indicates that there is not a one-size-fits-all type of teacher professional training neither a consensus on which one it is the best practice for a context in crisis. Each of the above models describes a set of characteristics. They differ mainly in their assumptions, expectations and beliefs about professional growth, and even on the demands they make on the individuals involved in the teaching practice. The main challenge comes at the time of choosing one form or another to design a teaching education programme and to increase quality of education. It could be argued that because of these differences it is unlikely that any single model will prove effective for all individuals under all conditions.

When deciding what type of professional development activity to implement, Guskey (2000) challenged us to consider intended impact. Certainly gaining clarity about the difference to be made beforehand will inform decisions about the most appropriate

activity in which to engage to meet teachers' needs. Besides impact, it is also vital to consider the goals, the context and the content. Context-specific programs and customised interventions show that they have greater impact on teachers learning.

During the process of reviewing existing literature on this field, it was evident the increasing need to abandon old teaching practices in favour of coaching and support in teaching programmes that require collaborative communities, peer-to-peer, school-to-school and cluster-to-cluster. The advance of more constructivist orientations in preparation as well as inquiry-oriented approaches to professional development, such as self-study, action research, and practical inquiry, seem to be opening the way for new considerations in the professional development of teachers. Yet teacher education in the field of emergencies seems to be based on training models that reach big numbers and achieve quantifiable results. Thanks to a major concern for achieving a well-qualified cohort of teachers, outcomes versus processes is a general trend though that is reversing. New models of teaching and teacher education need to be developed in EiE to raise the quality of educational practice. Whether this can be achieved by generating more models of teaching and teacher education, as a result of research into teaching and applying them separately, or by extrapolating best practices from the field-based trainings remains a difficult but truly challenging task for the future.

The following section will expand on two examples of best practices in the field of emergencies and low-income countries. It will further explore the conceptualisations of quality embraced by these case studies assessed against Nikel and Lowe's (2010) fabric model.

Chapter Three. Methodology

This chapter outlines the underlying paradigms and methods of research of this desk-study. First, it explains the general approach to the design, including the reasoning behind analysing two case studies and providing a further case to illustrate the implementation of the theoretical background proposed. Next it sets the limitations of this research and further considerations.

3.1. Research design

This is primarily a literature-based analysis that seeks to explore how quality of education is conceptualised in teacher educators' learning. It ruled out field research from its start due to the impossibility of covering this topic using such a research methodology. Instead it reviews reports, journals, articles, teacher policies and case studies. To set the stage for this qualitative research the study proposes an encompassing framework to evaluate quality in teachers and/or teacher educators' professional development. The strength of this theoretical framework lies in the special emphasis it places on the process of teachers' learning. The framework consists of four factors that are thought to contribute to determine quality in a professional development programme (see figure 4). These are: teaching models (following Villegas-Reimer classification), forms of teachers' knowledge (Shulman, 1986), conceptualisation of quality (Nikel and Lowe's framework) and capabilities and functionings, two elements key in the Capability Approach enhancers of the vision of quality constructed by the 'fabric model' of Nikel and Lowe (2010), argued here to help include teacher educators and what they value as a new dimension of this theoretical framework.

In constructing a theoretical framework for evaluating quality, attention is drawn to the interdependency of the chosen elements to undertake an overall analysis of the processes followed by teacher educators in their professional development. By mapping pedagogical theoretical discourses (factors one and two) with two distinctive

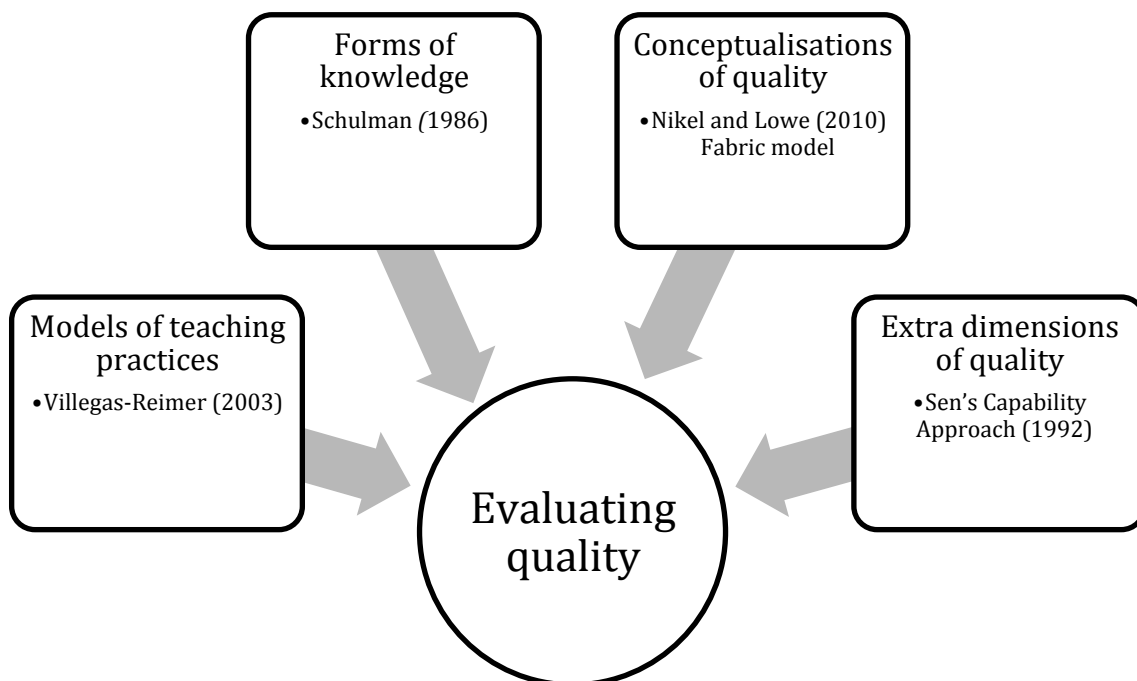


Figure 4. Evaluating Quality in TPD

development frameworks (factors three and four) the model envisages quality inside and outside of the classroom, and links with the idea that quality of education has a role to play to contribute to a transformative society through human development.

3.2. Case study

Many scholars have supported the use of case studies as a means of carrying out education research. The case-study approach is defined as a method (Stehnhouse, 1978; Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2005) or as an object of choice (Stake, 1995), which draws on a broad social science approach that is strongly based on qualitative methods. For Cohen et al. (2011: 289) one of the strengths of this research method is that “contexts are unique and dynamic, hence case studies investigate and report the real-life, complex dynamic and unfolding interactions of events, human relationships and other factors in a unique instance”. By means of two case studies several current learning practices of teacher educators are analysed here. This particular piece of research

considers that this methodological approach will prove very useful to illustrate the quality of educational interventions in contexts of crisis and emergencies.

The rationale for selecting the case studies of this paper responds to the fact that they are particularly illustrative of different teaching practices, and also representative of different geographic locations and contextual particularities. Being well-built cases both can help disseminating the existing knowledge base about teachers' learning and the mechanisms put in place to support their professional development in the context of emergencies and low-income countries.

The first case-study, "Building Capacity for Gaza Educationalists" is an INEE Minimum Standards case study set in a context of fragility and crisis. Next it explores a case study set in Egerton University, Kenya as part of TESSA, an international research and development initiative that bring together teachers and teacher educators from across sub-Saharan Africa. By analysing these two case studies against the theoretical model proposed to Evaluate Quality, the exploration is embedded in an instrumental basis that aims to increase understanding of effective EiE teaching programmes and the lessons to be learned for the future, as opposed to analysing them individually without extracting conclusions.

Lastly, and taking a based informal educational intervention for Afghan teacher training as a case-study, Chapter 6 shows how the newly proposed model could help enhance the quality of teachers professional development.

3.3. Limitations of the study

The first and main limitation of this study is that it relies mainly on secondary data. Yet this has been proven difficult to avoid due to the scarcity of information available on teacher educators and their role in building capacity in the contexts mentioned above. Another limitation is related to the fact that the design and components of the teacher education programmes are varied and do not respond to a particular model. They represent different teaching programmes: non-profit, private, government, school-based, non-school based, hence it is difficult to reach a conclusion. As these formats are not so clearly defined in contexts of crisis, it has not been considered essential for

the purpose of this analysis, although it acknowledges the limitations that this might add to it.

The use of case studies as the basis of analysis is not without drawbacks either. Case study is considered by researchers a less desirable form of enquiry than either an experiment or a survey as there is a tendency to generalise from findings. Nonetheless it is not the intention of this paper to offer a single-sided view on the subject of teacher education programmes, but rather to offer an insight on this issue. It then hopes to enhance understanding about the field of teacher education, provoke discussion and encourage further research on such an ignored area.

Chapter Four. Conceptualising quality and development. The fabric model

As outlined in Chapter 1, the quality of education discourse in the field of development has been approached in dissimilar ways. Soudien (2012) has outlined different bodies of literature within this discipline. The first one relates quality to assessment and standards-setting, while the second one focuses on quality as a policy commitment. Within this second body three main approaches stand out: the human capital idea of creating a quality of education system to reach an economic objective, the human right approach that sees quality as the realisation of learners' rights and the humanist perspective of Sen (1999) that focuses on processes instead of outcomes and links quality of education to socio-human development. In line with the second body, international organisations (UNESCO, UNICEF) and INGOS (Save the Children, Plan International and IRC amongst others) have developed their own frameworks to measure quality. A third and less popular body of literature relates to the ideas of Sen and is embodied in philosophical literature. Lastly, a fourth level adds a constructivist view to these traditions as it approaches quality as a 'deliberately constructed value' (Nikel and Lowe, 2010:98) with a theoretical model that 'sought to stabilise and give content to what is meant by quality' (Soudien, 2012:98) drawing on the work of Hawes and Stephens (1990) and Stephens (2003), who already considered concepts such as efficiency and relevance to evaluate quality in the classroom.

4.1. Nike and Lowe's framework. A description

Following the above classification, this study has selected the latter constructivist approach to quality of education, the fabric model by Nikel and Lowe (2010), as the third comprising factor of the Evaluating Quality framework (Figure 3) to map the analysis of quality in teachers learning. The fabric model framework takes into account seven major factors affecting quality or thought to influence the evaluation of the learning process. The reason for selecting this framework is two-fold. Firstly, as the authors point out, it is an analytical tool that responds to a concern over educational development in low-income countries (Nike and Lowe, 2010) and this is the context in

which this study is set out. Secondly, because it is both “open-ended and systematic” (Soudien, 2012: 99) and this entails seeing the complex side of the situation more than other approaches, having some room for more systematic analysis of certain issues that might be overlooked in other frameworks and for more interpretation of what is sensitive to the specific conditions of the local context.

The word quality also reaches a new dimension as it does quality of education, which is equated to a ‘fabric’, that is, at its strongest when ‘stretched’ or maintained in tension through seven dimensions: effectiveness, efficiency, equity, responsiveness, relevance, reflexivity, and sustainability (See Figure 4 below). As opposed to a variation of an input-output model, it further visualises an understanding of the addressing and improving of the quality of education, “a matter of process rather than product, a complex process that demands a strategic approach” (Nikel and Lowe, 2010: 598-90).

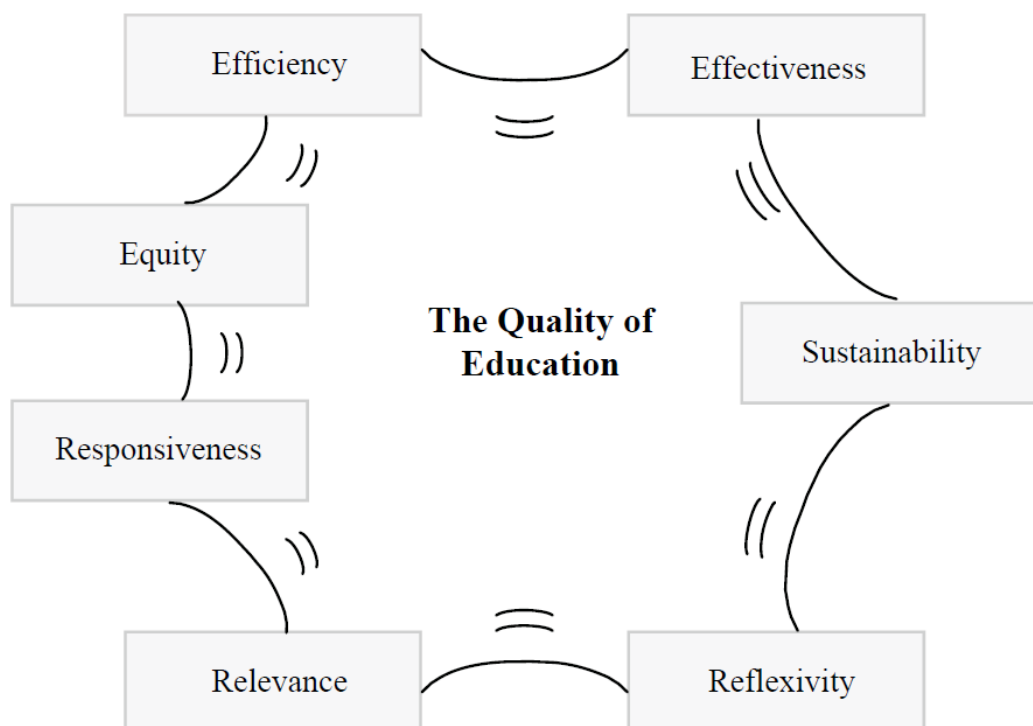


Figure 4. The ‘fabric’ of quality in education. Nikel and Lowe (p. 595)

Further to this conceptualisation it is also important to note that *“‘balance’ does not imply a simple equalising across all seven – even if that were conceptually possible. The needs and the possibilities for action within different educational contexts will vary and decisions must be made over what is desirable and feasible within a specific situation”* (Nikel and Lowe, 2010: 595). They acknowledge, to start, the importance of effectiveness, efficiency and equity, three key issues that cannot be ignored in their view and that are addressed in a pragmatic way.

1. **Effectiveness.** This term moves beyond the traditional idea that an effective educational programme is one that meets the educational aims stated (individual or societal) and claims the need to be aware of positive and negative outcomes and impacts that have not been previously identified. Replacing quantifiable outcomes by other non-measurable objectives leaves some room to add value to some areas of education that may not reach a final stage but had some impact in the process. Effectiveness is an important factor in emergencies and contexts of crisis, where the lack of awareness about certain educational issues can hinder the results but recognise the effort to reach the goals stated.
2. **Efficiency.** Further to “the ratio of outputs to inputs that economic considerations such as the maximising of resource use” (Nike and Lowe, 2010: 596) this term also envisages all the beliefs and value judgments that cannot be appreciated through the economic lens, such as the time and energy invested and the human resources put into place).
3. **Equity.** In the fabric model, equity is a dimension that recognises the potential for education to redress social injustices and believes that a high-quality education should openly try to do so. Pondered in conjunction with the other dimensions, and not as an add-on, an educational system would be considered equitable “to the extent that it mobilises the potential of education to address economic, political and social inequalities, to expand opportunities available to disadvantaged individuals” (Nikel and Lowe, 2010:597). Gender and ethnicity are two key elements to consider in this category, as location and poverty.

4. **Responsiveness.** Expanding on the general application of this word to the context of disadvantaged children, this term focuses on individual diversity and dissimilarity in learning environments, skills and learning styles, versus the group focus of the previous dimension, but also on responding to environmental changes that might affect individual learning ability and its lack of engagement. Very much related to Sen's ideas on capabilities, being in a responsive system means that this will prioritise those actions that take into consideration the capabilities needed in the system that respond to the conditions of the local context, that takes into consideration the uniqueness of the learner, its characteristics and personal growth. "It is in these terms, culturally aware of the politics of the micro and macro-contexts in which it is set" (Souden, 2012: 99).
5. **Relevance.** An education system or educational experience is understood to be relevant to the extent to which it responds to user needs. These, articulated at numerous levels (individual, family, community, national and global), pose some concerns for Nikel and Lowe (2010), especially when it comes to looking at who defines needs in an educational system and under what economic or ideological pressures. In view of this complex process they determine that general or transferable skills should be welcomed.
6. **Reflexivity.** This term is linked to the idea of a rapidly changing world and the importance of reflecting at an individual level about the impact of our actions in the wellbeing of future generations. Education needs to play a significant role in increasing the awareness of reflecting on how to act consequently.
7. **Sustainability.** Sustainability here derives from the emergence of the concept of Sustainable Development (SD) and linked to education for sustainable education with the best known definition being "education that allows every human being to acquire the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary to shape a sustainable future" (UNESCO, 2007). This dimension undertakes the view that education should contribute to empower people to take action and contribute to a more sustainable future.

4.2. Progress and measurement of quality

Based on the idea that quality is like a ‘fabric’, the result of tensions and adjustments, and that this can be difficult to operationalise in practice, Nike and Lowe (2010) recognise that the judgment of quality in their framework is based on values. Challenging the common dichotomy (management or pedagogy) to measure quality, they encourage the need to consider other educational theories from different fields within social science to have a full picture of what quality of education entails (see Figure 5 below).

The intellectual foundations and systemic applicability of the dimensions of quality.

Dimension	Central concern	Field of social enquiry	Educational theory	Educational organisation level
Effectiveness	The impact of education – at all levels ... the extent to which stated educational goals are achieved	Management, Organisational behaviour	Management and leadership, Assessment	System, Institution
Efficiency	The maximising of resource use	Economics, Management	Management	System, Institution
Equity	The contribution of education to increasing or decreasing social justice	Sociology, Politics	Management?, Curriculum	System, Institution
Responsiveness	The recognition of individuality and response to efforts to ‘become oneself’	Psychology, Poststructuralist theories	Learning theory, Pedagogy, Identity	Individual, Classroom
Relevance	The goals (content and competencies) and the means of achieving them to meet the needs of the nation, the community and the learner’s life context	Development, Philosophy, Economics, Sociology?, Politics?	Curriculum, Pedagogy	System, Institution, Individual
Reflexivity	The contribution to a learner’s personal orientation in a rapidly changing world of increasing uncertainty	Sociology	Social theories, Modernity	System, Institution, Individual
Sustainability	The take up of responsibility for global environmental changes and the uncertainty of future generations’ well-being	Development, Social-ecological research, Ecology of time	Curriculum, Management	System, Institution

Figure 5. The intellectual dimensions and systemic applicability of the dimensions of quality

While the use of this table is outside the scope of this study to evaluate quality, it does illustrate, however “that behind the need for a balanced conceptual approach lies a similar need for a balanced theoretical approach” (Nike and Lowe, 2010: 601). It needs to be added that for this conceptual framework to become a operational tool to evaluate teaching programmes, a set of indicators need to be in place that escape from the typical input-output model.

4.3. Case Studies Analysis

4.3.1. CASE STUDY 1

INEE Minimum Standards Case Study: Building Capacity for Gaza Educationalists

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Figure 6. INEE Minimum Standards Case Study: Building Capacity for Gaza Educationalists

A. Brief explanation of the project

This Case Study explores the practical impact of INEE Minimum Standards (INEE MS) trainings with relation to both emergency and longer term recovery planning in a context of crisis: that of the aftermath of the 2008-2009 war in Gaza (Kelcey et al., 2010). Envisaged as an initial training to build upon at a later stage, it was conceived after the 2009 Flash Appeal support for Gaza from the First Lady of Qatar, Sheikha Moza Bint Nasser.

The UNESCO occupied Palestinian territory (oPt) office, as part of the organisation's emergency education programme, led this initial training within a cluster-led initiative. The original plan built capacity for a total of 750 teachers, education staff and community activists throughout Gaza, who took part in 37 workshops in the period March-August 2010. The Case Study selected here focus on the initial training and explores the process followed by INEE members in Gaza, a model of application of the Minimum Standards that gained consistency at a later stage. The project comprised a wide range of education actors: staff working with international organisations, local and international NGOs and the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MoEHE) were trained following a ToT approach.

In view of the context of both chronic crisis and intermittent acute emergency encountered in the Gaza Strip, as well as the daily ongoing problems faced by the civil society that could hinder the effects of the training, the design of such a plan was considered a big challenge by the organisers in terms of implementation and sustainability. Yet, Gaza educators were considered the only reliable force that could help rebuilding a capacity system: “Equipping education staff with knowledge and understanding of the INEE Minimum Standards can therefore help spur recovery where traditional interventions focused on physical and material construction are not possible” (INEE, 2011). Seeing no alternatives for capacity building, van Gelderen (2011) considered this initial training a resiliency enhancement course when all desirable paths to basic needs development and resource materials seemed to be closed.

1. What pedagogical principles underpin teachers’ education professional models?

Two teacher-training approaches were applied to improve the capacity to face emergency settings. Following a ToT method the first cohort of trainees, staff working with INGOs, UN agencies and MoEHE, further trained a second group. This teaching practice, as van Gelderen (2011) argues, responds to the dual model established by the INEE MS. The first part of the training was inspired in the Participation component of the Community Participation Standard 1 as it addressed the local educators, and by gradually disseminating knowledge, to other educators who could be acting in case of emergency. The second standard was the Community Participation Standard 2: Resources, with a stronger emphasis on the human, intellectual and linguistic resources, considering the local context’s situation. Other standards were Analysis Standard 2: Response Strategies. Finally Teaching and Learning Standard 2: Training, Professional Development and Support. For the purpose of Ministries, Education Policy Standard 1: Law and Policy Formulation were also developed.

ToT was embraced as the main teaching method, accompanied by other pedagogical participatory practices that aimed at building a strong network of educators and future

trainers on INEE MS. The cascade model used initially was further supported by ICT, which allowed for the expansion of communities of practice through the use of online discussions and participation in blogs. This extra support to new trainees added to the one already provided by the Master Trainers. Similarly working cooperatively in the training and plan development helped create a strong network of educators with the same needs and concerns. With regards to specific pedagogical information, there seems to be very little information on how these groups were created or further supported, being this one of the major criticisms of the project itself. Van Gelderen, (2011) supports this view and questions whether the focus is exclusively on an emergency response or if there are other objectives. Nevertheless, Kelcey et al. (2010) comment on the importance of engaging in professional dialogue and working together in communities to help look for solutions to their daily problems in challenging times. Even if this lack of pedagogical clarity and structure seems to be related to the contextual problems and challenges that educators face on a daily basis, it could be counterproductive and have negative impact on capacity building itself.

The process of training an initial cohort of teachers evolved towards becoming a model of disseminating knowledge about INEE MS. This learning transferral was constantly monitored and evaluated by a consultative steering committee that developed different forms to this end. The first activity was the creation of an education contingency planning tool that comprised a user-friendly planning template to allow for developing contingency plans for their institutions as recommended by the Minimum Standards. UNESCO education staff in the oPt was in charge of evaluating the content and quality of the newly constructed contingency plans created by the trainees. This process involved two steps: a first pro-forma developed for the Advisory Committee to know how to act after an emergency; a second pro-forma designed to be used by education authorities, based on the INEE MS main indicators and on global practices for response.

2. What forms of teacher knowledge do educational interventions promote?

Following Schulman's (1986) classification on types of teacher knowledge, the INEE professional learning model adopted by INEE in Gaza includes a combination of content-based knowledge (content and curricular knowledge) with pedagogical knowledge, that bridges content knowledge with the practice of teaching. Content knowledge is embodied in the INEE MS, an important subject that needs to be internalised by the future trainers. It aligns as well with a vision of learning based on preparing educators to implement changes at the same time that they are provided with some autonomy to support the INEE MS and their fair implementation. The combination of a bottom-up model plus a transitional model seems to be justified on the basis that teacher educators need psychosocial support.

3. What conceptualisations of quality embrace teaching education programmes?

The INEE Case Study 'Capacity Building for Educationalists in Gaza' can be said to be effective as the objectives were implemented as planned: the creation of contingency plans that would support the provision of quality learning opportunities during emergencies. The case study provides quantifiable results (numbers of people trained, number of teams created), however the unexpected benefits achieved were satisfactory considering the context where the training took place. The progress made was measured in terms of what they did not expect to obtain, such as the creation of numerous communities of practice and the development of a professional identity by different groups of educators, which provided a value-added element to the original objectives. By adding non-measurable targets to quantifiable results the degree of effectiveness doubled. It was also effective in creating a baseline (educators networks, capacity to further build on the training provided, inclusion of Minimum MS in the work of Ministries and disaster-risk assessment) that has developed since then different plans and continues being a source of inspiration for other forms of professional development in the area (such as curriculum development in the borders).

Similarly, this building capacity exercise proved efficient to the extent that it used all the available time, resources and human capacity to provide Gaza educators with useful training and tools to further develop their work as educators and reach all the children in Gaza. Quality here can be measured by the amount of effort that both trainers and local educationalists put in to achieve ‘a valuable learning experience’ of continued professional support for the education sector in Gaza.

Furthermore relevance holds a particular meaning in this case study as it embodies the reason why the training plan has been developed. “The development of the plans encompasses the definitions, indicators and best practice lessons presented in the MS training. By then applying these to the specific *Gaza context*, trainees gain directly *relevant* experience in the application of the standards thereby enhancing the *relevance* of the standards” [emphasis added] (Kelcey et al., 2010). By taking the needs of educators and their daily difficulties to exercise their work into consideration, the training responds to this dimension of quality, yet the choice of what is relevant for the trainees comes from a belief that the INEE MS will have a positive impact on their professional development. It needs to be said in their favour that very few alternatives were feasible considering the ongoing conflict of the Gaza strip and the lack of access imposed by the Israelian forces. Relevance is accompanied by responsiveness, a dimension that acknowledged the different professional backgrounds of participants, as well as their native language by adjusting some activities to this purpose (an extra three-day training by the Master Trainers for MoEHE staff, the creation of an Arabic language community of practice supported by translators). Serving such a wide range of educationalists was highlighted as one of the main challenges.

Reflexivity is a dimension that captures the very nature of this training exercise as it manages to engage all trainees with a very uncertain future, or seen from a different perspective, the lack of faith in a future for education triggers this training exercise. The INEE MS exercise emphasises is reflexive in nature and it takes lessons learned from previous practices as a departing point to share concerns and look into the future.

This element is further developed with the use of distance education tools and communities of practice. Working hard on relevance, responsiveness and reflexivity lead to a high quality training that will indirectly have an impact on sustainability as the INEE MS training would be institutionalised into Ministry policies and approaches. The equity dimension, however, does not show a sufficient place in this case-study as the gender issue is not considered a strong element.

4.3.2. Case Study 2. The Readiness for Sustainable and Successful Use of OER in Higher Education in Kenya: A case study of Egerton University, Kenya. 2010-11

A. Brief explanation of the project

This educational project is developed under the umbrella of the Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa (TESSA), an international research and development initiative that brings together teachers and teacher educators from across sub-Saharan Africa. TESSA is a network of more than 20 universities and 12 organisations led by the Open University (United Kingdom) that, collaboratively, have produced a range of multi-lingual copyright-free high-quality materials and pedagogical guides in open content format to support school-based teacher education and training. The main focus is to improve the quality of teacher education in sub-Saharan Africa. The initiative started in 2005 and has since then benefited more than 40.000 teachers in countries such as Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Nigeria, Rwanda, South Africa, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. Despite having some external funding, each institution committed its own financial resources for access. Its main strength lies on the adaptability and sustainability of the teacher education response.

The main focus of TESSA at Egerton University, one of the seven public universities in Kenya, has been enhancing teacher learners and teacher educators' practices with the purpose of disseminating significant knowledge and offering exemplary education to contribute to, and innovatively influence national and global development (Keraro, 2010:2). Participants were instructed on how to move away from the traditional rote

learning and heavy preparation on exams and introduce better and new activities into school classrooms. TESSA OER was the main tool used in nine courses of the B.Ed. Primary and Diploma in Primary Education (DPE) programmes for in-service teachers .

TESSA resources were used in various forms: the most popular was the print version due to the low technological access in Kenya. There was also limited use of the website and CDs. Many teachers used them as the basis to develop their own materials, which were at a later stage incorporated into the primary school curriculum. The work on material followed a collaborative pattern, and there was an institutional partnership both within and outside the country. Delivery mode was mainly distance education with campus-based lectures and the duration of the project was of 4 years, although currently there is a further expansion of it in different regions and with renewed objectives. In total 500 teachers used TESSA OER.

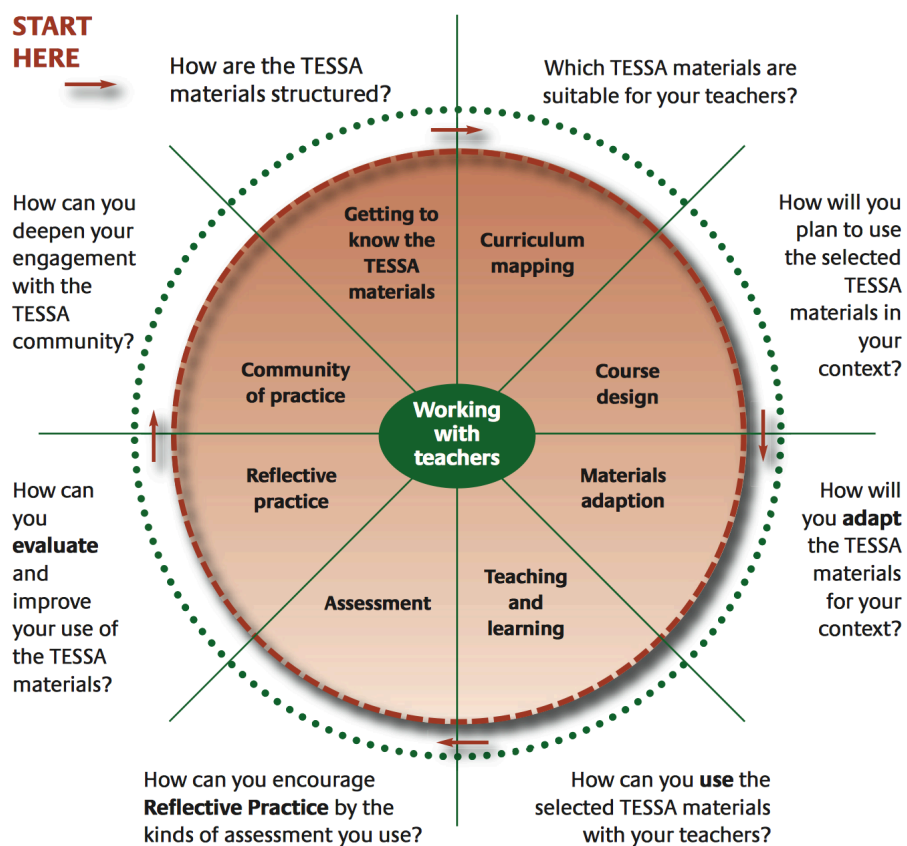


Figure 7. TESSA

1. What pedagogical principles underpin teachers' education professional models?

The uptake and implementation of TESSA materials in primary education classrooms supported a multiple organisational model as literature shows. It adopted several forms of partnerships, according to Villegas-Reimer (2005) classification: university-school partnership model, whereby B.ED. teacher-learners were assessed in their respective schools in Kenya by University teacher educators; interinstitutional, a collaborative model fuelled at Egerton University to promote exchange of ideas and best practices at international level with the main funders; school networks and teachers' networks developed by teacher-learners, which remained the main evolving initiative in the promotion of active learning. Thakrar et al. in Wamutitu et al. (2011) considered these networks as a 'bottom-up fashion' process in which teacher learners played a key role to shift classroom practice.

To lay the foundations to build capacity amongst Kenyan educational staff, a series of workshops were designed to reassure the 'core' professional development team, teacher educators and teacher learners of the relevance of the project, of its benefit at individual and societal terms, and of some implementation issues. Once the schools were identified, as well as the teachers, these attended a workshop together with their school heads and teacher educators. The focus of the workshop was on the integration of TESSA materials in the primary school curriculum. The rationale for involving the head teachers was to ensure that they provided the necessary support and facilitated use of the materials in the schools. At the end of the workshop, each school was provided with a set of printed copies of the TESSA materials, a TESSA Cd and a copy of the TESSA guide 'Working with Pupils'. The project envisaged that teachers were going to integrate, adapt and use TESSA materials and activities in their classrooms and that teacher educators would monitor and evaluate the work undertaken by visiting the schools during two weeks. A latter report that identified key successes and weaknesses was produced. From this point onwards a parallel structure ran: on one hand teacher learners were introduced to the OERs materials and their relevance for classroom use through University lectures, on the other hand teacher learners had to introduce these

resources into their primary school classrooms. For the student teachers to succeed in this venture, they engaged actively with the materials through set assignments that constituted part of the final assessment of the course and learned the importance of redefining their role as a teacher to that of a facilitator and of promoting interaction in the classroom to enhance new types of learning. Throughout the whole process teacher educators supported teachers in mapping and embedding the TESSA resources in the primary school curriculum, either by visiting graduates to observe how they used these learning resources in the classroom or by giving them the necessary support in case of unexpected challenges. This helped changing the dynamic of the class towards achieving a stronger focus on student learning through innovative ways of learning: problem solving, inquiry based, information sharing. Extra resources in the form of cards, games, and new dynamics (small groups, pair work) were also new in the context of primary education in Kenya.

Face to face professional support was further enhanced through University communities of practice, and teachers' networks. The process of consultation, sharing ideas and experiences was a new practice for many of the participants, including the professional development team made out of teacher educators, who participated in international education conferences in their own country and outside.

2. What forms of teacher knowledge do educational interventions promote?

Indeed this initiative helped teachers to be equipped with the tools and the empowerment to implement changes in the classroom and to be able to manage the outcomes in a positive way. Pedagogical knowledge was enhanced in the principles and strategies employed in the classroom, such as lesson planning, children's learning and students' organisation. As a result teachers became more enthusiastic about planning their lessons and using inquiry-based teaching and explaining different ways of explaining concepts in the classroom. The process, through lots of support and networking led gradually to teacher being reassured of the impact in the quality of education and in the educators in general, who could feel their work was worth the

effort. A perfect blend of content and pedagogical knowledge led to Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge.

3. What conceptualisations of quality embrace teaching education programmes?

Even though MoE officials, teacher educators and student learners were very reluctant at first to assume such a programme, analysis of this, together with other OER initiatives point towards a positive and effective outcome. Wamutitu et al. (2011) see its success in the consideration of local and national circumstances, not only in the adaptation of the OERs materials (through changing names and including local references), but also in the possibility of customising the official templates to teachers' needs, that can differ in rural areas and urban settings. Similarly it has been documented that teacher centredness was replaced by a focus on the learner and the importance of understanding the concepts taught by the teacher through more innovative ways, such as question and answers sessions, problem solving scenarios, projects and simulations. A contested initial relevance by most educational staff who saw it as an extra burden to their daily tasks and to the curriculum's implementation, was later reassured by the MoE quality Assurance Officers who realised the potential benefits of TESSA OER. Relevance is more directly related to being the first step towards improving the quality of primary school teachers through a model that helps them growing as educators and respond to new realities in the profession. Efficiency played an important role, although insufficient in terms of the lack of ICT skills that teachers possessed, and equally in terms of the lack of access to photocopiers and computers by certain teachers. There was a recognised need to have an induction to learn how to mainstream resources better in order to reach more teachers and expand the network already in place.

All in all, it seems that Egerton University responded positively to the challenge of improving quality in capacity building and it managed a good degree of responsiveness by tackling the promotion of quality teaching firmly. TESSA OERs were initially promoted to be used online, however, Egerton University understood the technological

limitations of the schools and their teachers and facilitated them in a print and CD format. In line with a promotion of collaborative work, the difficulty of accessing materials online developed further collaboration amongst graduates, who once in their schools, shared their resources with other teachers, fuelling discussions forums and contributions. This collaboration was further supported by the university management, that in order to be responsive, helped teacher educators to be continuously supporting teacher students, who in turn, had to be in constant contact with the hub of TESSA OERs to keep the quality of education high.

In terms of reflexivity, it was considered a key concept, as only by being reflective about further improvements in the classroom that the OER movement and its positive outcomes developed. The promotion of further collaboration contributed to the development of new quality enhanced materials and even of small resource banks. The fact that many teachers or teacher educators were in a position to influence a large number of teachers had a wider impact on the teaching methods of primary teachers in Kenya. This even led to the promotion of teacher graduates in their schools, who showed concern for the discontinuation of the programme and consequently the loss of valuable materials.

Adding sustainability to the project was one main objectives of this programme. Through a firm control of the quality of the resources, the University coordinator ensured the adaptation, customisation and integration in the local context of all the TESSA materials in Kenyan primary schools. For this, he only changed those parts that were allowed to be adapted to include local names, local narratives and examples that led students to identify themselves with. The creation of a template or model for teachers to use as the basis of their practices has already evolved into a model exportable to other professions or duties. Notwithstanding successful take up, sustainability is flagged as an issue to consider by Harley and Simiyu (2012:2), first in terms of developing materials from a template that many could not access on-line, and secondly due to staff mobility issues, that threatened the work introduced by an

individual lecturer. Despite the challenges, classroom practice and commitment by all stakeholders was achieved and this evidenced the concern expressed by everyone to keep developing it and extend the network to other Kenyan schools.

Finally the equity factor adds up as an essential dimension of quality control. One of the successes of these materials is that they take notice of local and national circumstances, and so is the job of the teacher/ facilitator to spread this vision to other teachers. The TESSA approach is very much geared towards promoting change within the Kenyan primary schools and catering for the needs of those children who attend them. Classroom practices can adjust to the own characteristics of children, as materials have been designed to meet their needs through active learning methods.

Chapter Five. Emerging lessons and discussion

This section produces a quick summary of the key findings resulting from the analysis undertaken in chapter four. Next, it identifies areas of improvement in quality's teacher support and development drawing on the Capability Approach (CA), advocated in this study as the fourth key factor to evaluate quality.

In an attempt to focus on the 'how' of teachers' learning, mapped against the Evaluating Quality framework, both case studies analysed here regardless of the geographical and contextual differences have shown some equivalences: a high level of collaboration in the teaching practices involved with considerable external support and input in all the activities, the importance of gauging local needs and adapting to them through relevant situational analysis prior to the training, the development of programmes and training packages, and enough flexibility to leave some room to evolve to adjust to future needs. The two recognised the issue of quality in their design and reinforced the relationship between teacher educator development and quality of education. It follows here a further explanation of the findings.

In relation to factors one and two of the Evaluating quality model proposed, and corresponding to research questions one and two, the Gaza Case Study teaching model was determined by the need to equip a wide range of local education actors with knowledge and understanding of the INEE MS to 'build back better'. The low levels of resiliency identified in the local players shaped the content knowledge of the training plans and mechanisms, a highly participatory process that prioritised trainees' support through face-to-face and distance modes. Gaza case suggests a preference for cluster training model with a strong emphasis on contextual and cultural factors. TESSA's initiative on teacher education, similarly, has mainly focused on improving the quality of teacher learners and teacher educators with the objective of developing an effective training model that has a positive impact on primary school teachers and students. Inspired on Darling-Hammond (2008) ideas on classroom-focused model of learning,

this school-based model of professional development for teacher educators links to the theoretical concept of situated learning, according to which learning should take place in the same context in which it is applied as a social process whereby knowledge is co-constructed (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

Furthermore, the predominant pedagogical models used in both cases were hybrid approaches: face-to-face training (following a training model, workshops and seminars) supported by distance learning (in the form of materials, mentoring or communities of practice). Evaluations show that the first training delivery mode outweighed the second due to the difficulties of lack of access to the ICT, yet it had a timid but growingly presence in the support initiatives and the development of teachers' networks, especially amongst the teacher learners of Egerton University. Yet, this modality, as Harley and Simiyu (2012) argue, had definitely had a positive impact on the quality of teachers' educators training as it has been innovative in merging educational theory and modern technologies into a model that was also strategically pragmatic and thus workable. The impact was not been measured solely on quantitative factors, but also on the impact it has had for teachers, schooling and educational agencies.

The review process has also shown some striking differences between the emergency and low-income context that have some negative impact on the quality of education. INEE's Case Study is unclear about the teaching scenarios behind the initial ToT described. In this model an initial training course generated a cohort of Master Trainers who in turn disseminated knowledge of the INEE MS to target all education subsectors and a wide range of institutions working in the sector. Despite the lack of acceptance of these methods to ensure quality of training, the pedagogical practices underlying the professional practice seemed not exempt from support elements and participatory techniques (such as a consultative-steering committee established to conduct the necessary follow up from the trainings). However, it remains difficult seeing if there is a mere emphasis on emergency response or rather alternative educational objectives in

the absence of pedagogical goals in the capacity plan. This, according to van Gelderen (2011), could be related to the fact that having no long-term plans due to the fragile political and economical situation emergency takes priority over other goals. In contrast, the TESSA initiative describes very clearly the pedagogical design of the programme, as well as the teaching practices during the implementation stage.

In relation to factor three, embodied in the research question number three, and the mapping of quality of these programmes against the seven dimensions proposed by Nikel and Lowe (2010), the analysis draws up a high concern for effectiveness, efficiency, responsiveness and relevance in both training programmes. The role of context, local and national needs are worth mentioning: the main goal in the TESSA project was the customisation of materials to children's learning needs; INEE equally developed the necessary tools to facilitate the dissemination of knowledge. All the above was reached with all the human resources in place and the technical capacity needed to reach the goals, a difficult endeavour for both, due to access problems. Literature consulted on the two case studies highlight the unexpected positive outcomes beyond the planned quantifiable results: the birth of numerous networks and communities of practice that allowed the projects to scale up and create a baseline of knowledge for future teachers or educational staff. Relevance came in the form of introducing trainees with new realities through innovative models, a first step to improve quality of education. The initial reluctance to work collaboratively and implement school child-centered learning strategies was resolved by trainers, who acknowledged different needs and showed themselves extremely responsive by offering extra support with distance education tools or by supplementing the existing training with individual or small group coaching.

Promoting change meant that both educational interventions empowered teacher educators to engage in their learning and the consequences of their actions for the local community and encouraged them to influence others in the dissemination of best practices. Through reflective practices TESSA achieved a big expansion in the Kenyan context, and INEE succeeded in engaging all educational staff to think how to build

back better in such a difficult moment. These networks or communities of practice, another communality of both cases, were key elements in managing change through a bottom-up method approach. As discussed in the previous chapter, the original TESSA network concept evolved towards diverse modes of collaboration between teacher-learners, coordinators from Kenya and other institutions, even MoE and TESSA developers. TESSA networks did much more than simply creating communities of teacher educators with the same affinities, as they empowered many teachers to build ownership over their own learning and, through the original templates, disseminate their knowledge and expand these networks to ensure the sustainability of the project. The approach followed by UNESCO in Gaza also embraced building capacity locally in which trainees “engage in professional dialogue and work together in a supportive community” (2011: 3). Terms like *problem-solve together*, *strong network*, *continued professional support*, *sharing of experiences* appear frequently proving the openness of this project to be adapted to the changing circumstances of Gaza’s fragile context. In fact, it materialised in the adoption of mixed models of communication (blogs, online discussions, etc.)

Their success at the micro level, allowed them to be scaled up to become programmes that at present are working successfully alongside governments, to strengthen the resilience of educators in the context of emergencies, in the first case, to further develop quality of education in Kenya, in the second one. The general view is that empowerment and capacity building within a local relevant framework are all key issues for EiE. INEE MS are in fact the quality assurance in emergency contexts, therefore an impact assessment of how these indicators are in place in another extra element to ensure quality.

Changes were not envisaged without sustainability plans, very important on the design agenda. INEE adopted a ToT training model that provided results to be maintained over time as well as documents to help monitoring gaps and weaknesses. TESSA also relied on the development of templates to guarantee teachers the adaptability to their

own context. The lack of access to ICT threatened this possibility and consequently the sustainability of the project, one of the weakest points of the projects in Kenya, although alternative solutions were provided, such as the hand out of printed versions of the resources to teachers.

Finally quality was looked through the lens of equity. Very little information is provided on the Case Studies about how training programmes would resist how local injustices, but it can be extrapolated that by looking at local needs this is already contemplated in the plan. Nevertheless, this seems to be the main dimension that is under represented in both examples.

5.1. Capability Approach, teacher professional development and quality of education: a possible articulation?

The above discussions show that both educational interventions have valued the process of teacher development or human development as well as the outcomes. This vision goes hand in hand with the centrality of the role of education in expanding capabilities, which aligns with Sen's (1992) Capability Approach. How can we expand this vision of education to enhance quality training in teachers' development? Besides the first three factors of the theoretical model proposed in Chapter 3, this final section advocates a fourth element to quality assessment, a capability perspective for the design, implementation and assessment of teacher professional development programmes. The view adopted here is that the Capability Approach can be complementary to the human rights framework, as proposed by McCowan (2102).

The CA considers human *capabilities*, rather than resource endowments as proposed by the Human Capital Theory, the fundamental factors of development. This way of looking at development refers to the capabilities -defined as substantive freedoms- people have to act and choose a life they value, rather than to the level of income and possession of wealth (Sen, 1992). The origin of social inequalities and poverty, thus,

according to this perspective is the result of a deprivation of human capabilities more than just low income (Unterhalter and Walker, 2007).

Capabilities have been applied to education by various researchers. Unterhalter and Walker (2007) see the human capability approach as a method appropriate to evaluate advantage and disadvantage in training as well as an efficient tool to identify exclusion, marginalisation and disadvantage. According to the framework, individual capabilities are a key issue at the centre of the evaluation as well as external elements beyond individual capacities. The core idea is that individual differences can become inequalities unless there is a more solid relationship between the individual, the institutions and the social in enabling opportunities and valued choices. This is a claim supported by Sen (1992), who believes in the relational aspect of the capabilities, as they do not develop in isolation. In the training context, suitable external conditions-like good trainers or adequate equity or antidiscrimination policies regarding disabilities to enable the exercise of valued beings and doings are necessary. It, thus, pays considerable attention to the different conditions that constrain the realisation of capabilities.

The above mentioned concepts are considered very significant in the field of educational and training studies as key notions that broaden the relationship between education, inequalities and social justice. They have equally been welcomed from the methodological point of view, as they generate new approaches to measurement and monitoring and offer a normative framework for assessing poverty reduction and human development to policymakers.

When evaluating educational interventions in terms of poverty reduction, the capability approach argues for an evaluation of capabilities, rather than resources or outcomes. In his book "Inequality Reexamined", Amartya Sen (1992) introduces us to the principle of choice of space for evaluating inequalities and proposes to broaden it

by introducing those conditions that enable individuals to take decisions based on what they have reason to value.

What can Sen's philosophy add to Nike and Lowe's fabric model and to the framework Evaluating quality in TPD? Despite its complexity, the capability framework main concepts are optimal as an evaluative framework to signal improved equity through the measurement of skills, attitudes, capabilities, expectations and behaviours; all those factors intervening in the process of social exclusion. It helps enhancing the evaluation of values that the 'fabric model' proposes. Added to this, Green et al. (2009) argue for core indicators that match the main type of social cohesion discourse emerging in a specific society. Failure to do so would mean adopting a too broad measurement framework that only captures some of the different meanings given to social cohesion in different societies. Considering the emerging discourse of teacher education programmes on social inequalities and poverty reduction, the capability framework main concepts could be added as an extra dimension to their multi dimensional model. Initially, and closely linked to the principles of Sen's approach, it can evaluate the full range of capabilities and freedoms in opportunities of the participants. Instead of inputs and outputs, the individual capabilities to undertake valued activities would make for the informational base to evaluate educational advantage and disadvantage.

By evaluating the freedoms of choice and individual capabilities, stakeholders, through the training national bodies can also establish the diversity of human capital available and readjust programmes to the needs of the participants, accentuating the quality of the training programme. This could prevent the high number of problems appeared during the practical component of teaching teachers (conflict between different cognitive realities, lack of motivation, etc.). It would also be a good moment to get an accurate picture of the different existing disadvantages within the group of beneficiaries (non-qualified teachers, novice teachers, experienced teachers, disabled teachers, males and females teachers, ethnic minorities, teachers in exile, etc.).

Furthermore, widening the view of how training could affect social inequalities means incorporating indicators that measure attitudes, such as interpersonal trust, confidence, solidarity and respect, as well as aspirations and expectations towards the programme, training and outcomes.

In sum, an extra dimension in the fabric model inspired by the capability approach can facilitate the measurement of social exclusion and poverty with a renewed basis of judgment, leading to alternative ways of identifying the poor and the excluded. Similarly, the main concepts underlying this approach can also inform the design and implementation of different teacher education policies.

Chapter Six. An illuminative case study

This section explores an existing case study, example of an educational intervention in teaching education, as the basis to implement the theoretical model proposed in this piece of research.

6.1. Active-Learning Pedagogies: Policy, Professional Development and Classroom Practices- A case study of a post-conflict context: Afghanistan

A. Afghan education and its reconstruction efforts

In 2004, in an effort to confront the traditional teaching of Talibans and reactivate the presence of girls in schools, the Afghanistan Government identified the professional development of teachers as a critical part of re-establishing the country's human capital and economy. The Ministry of Education (MoE) issued a Teacher Training (TT) policy as part of their priorities. To collaborate with the MoE, UN Agencies, multilateral and bilateral donors, international NGOs, academic universities and education professionals came together in this endeavour (Menon, 2008) to design the Afghanistan Teacher Education Programme (ATEP), an initiative that responded to the recognition of every child's right to quality education and the importance of teacher competencies to ensure such a quality in the pedagogic processes of learning. All the above actors proposed an all-embracing plan for teacher development to struggle against the numerous factors affecting the quality of teachers: qualification and content knowledge, unsupported training, and above all, management issues such as their recruitment and compensation. In relation to teachers, it put forward a model of teacher change centred on improving school processes by encouraging more learner-centred pedagogic approaches.

According to Teacher Education Department officials, InSet (the name of the training module) was meant to achieve three objectives. The first was to rapidly provide training to untrained teachers of varying educational levels. The second was to harmonize the various training efforts of different players, and develop a unified training approach to post-conflict whereby the NGOs had to sign a protocol with the

government and become partners in one coordinated effort. The final objective was to align the training inputs with teacher-training standards and ensure uniformity. From here they could begin the process of accreditation and harmonizing the highly varying teacher cadre.

The TEP model followed a cascade teaching approach whereby Master Trainers, taught trained teacher-trainers who in turn would train the whole cohort of under qualified or unqualified teachers. This modality of professional development was further enhanced with the creation of supervisory teams in each district Teacher Resource Centre established in the country with the aim of supervising and evaluating teachers' performance in the classroom.

B. Applying the model Evaluating Quality to Active-Learning Pedagogies Case Study

Looking at the quality of this educational intervention through the lens of the theoretical model proposed in Chapter two some conclusions can be extracted:

With regards to the first factor comprising the framework, it is well noted the role of mediation in the quality of the training program: external participation of international and national actors provided by teachers, MoE staff, INGOs and UN agencies. Through participatory approaches all stakeholders designed the two In Service modules (In-Set) to roll out active learning processes in the classroom, with mixed results. Even though at theoretical level the training was well designed and the content well thought out, there is not much thought given to the process of learning but rather to the outcome of the training.

Quality of education failed in the design of capacity building as teachers were not informed of the full cognitive and affective impact of introducing more dynamic teaching styles, hence they adopted these practices only randomly. The basic training they had to follow was mostly theoretical and with little hands-on experience, as Menon (2008) reports. Teaching active learning through lectures failed to inform of the role that modelling plays in teaching education. By planning ahead the use of teaching approaches in line with active learning pedagogies, teachers would have understood

that active learning is not only equated group work, but rather with exploration, inquiry, problem-solving and teachers playing a new facilitator role.

The adoption of a theoretical model to evaluate quality, as the one put forward in this study, would act as a filter to design a teacher training programme that considers several points: first, a choice of an organisational partnership model to develop training that captures the complex nature of the context, traditionally rooted into Islamist religion and traditional rote learning. Secondly, an assessment of the local needs and the intended impact to inform the decision on the most appropriate teaching practices that will lead to incorporate the new pedagogies in the classroom. As teachers (either qualified or new) had no prior experience in innovative ways of teaching, and considering the difficulties of such a context, the adoption of a training model with inquiry-oriented approaches can lead in a natural way to modelling teachers in the development of collaborative styles to expand their vision of what counts in education and what impact this can have for the learning community. Considering that there is not such a thing as a standard practice for a post-conflict setting, the need to focus on the process seems higher in order to achieve a well-qualified group of teacher educators.

Equally relevant is the need to count with teacher networks or communities of practice in the training programme, through either distance education, or in the Teacher Resource Centres. The original plan envisioned the need to increase the quality of training by offering more support to the trainees, what in practice did not work to a full extent due to the low capacity of some of the trainers to offer such support. The lack of analytical skills did not translate into creating an atmosphere that promoted reflective practice amongst teachers. However, “as teacher professional learning is a complex process that requires cognitive and emotional involvement of teachers” (Avalos, 2011: 10), there is a need to set out explicitly the effectiveness of the programme on personal changes on teachers beliefs and practices (such as new roles, sharing best practices or even participating in key roles as curriculum developers within the MoE). The effectiveness of looking at the process can enhance their future as quality

educators.

At classroom level, reports confirm that teachers followed mostly a child-friendly approach, be in traditional teaching or more active-learning pedagogies, at Community Based Education (CBE). Yet, drawing on factor two of the theoretical model, this intervention lacked a proper vision on PCK, or explicit instructions to understand what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons. This is revealed in the return of traditional methods of teaching

In conclusion, and despite the quality improvement policy fully endorsed the adoption of an active- or child-centred learning method, it remained clear that that 'active-learning' as a term was widely used but poorly practiced. A closer look at how the teachers trained interacted with the training system could avoid the weaknesses detected in this training initiative.

A general revision of this case informs that outcomes, or the number of trained teachers on active-learning pedagogies that result on a greater impact on children's learning, are the basis to conceptualise quality. An inclusion of the 'fabric model' would definitely help assessing other elements that seem to be implicit and external to measuring quality in the design and implementation of this training.

This framework would recognise that even if the end result shadowed the original ideas, embracing quality meant going beyond the number of teachers trained, acknowledging some extra efficiency in the results. Bearing in mind the post-conflict context in which the teaching takes place, and the amount of issues that hinder the development of teachers as such (motivation, salaries and promotion) this could be considered another important outcome. On a different issue, the programme would have been more responsive if teachers had been given an active role in their training, beyond disseminating the knowledge they had as input. Following Sen's idea on capabilities and agency, a broader focus on teachers' development would allow them,

in their own capacity, to act as educators, with a purposeful reasoning behind, by providing quality of education to fulfil its role as a human right. The ToT was developed in answer to the request of the MoE, and even though International Organisations supported the TT, the programme did not show itself relevant enough as teachers' realities were not taken into consideration (mismatch of cognitive skills, scarcity of materials, large size classes, etc.) A needs analysis of the situation could contribute to better matching teacher capacities with the design of the programme.

The dimension that Nikel and Lowe (2010) named reflexivity, plays a key role in developing quality training programmes in post-conflict contexts. It allows teachers to reflect on the impact and wellbeing of the training at individual and societal levels and to the expanding capabilities and agency that it can provide. Measuring sustainability is another way of foreseeing that quality of education is always present. Some elements already mentioned reveal a lack of consideration towards this issue in the design of the project that puts in danger the successful implementation of the programme. ToT guarantees a dissemination of the knowledge from a theoretical point of view, however teachers are not seriously empowered to know why they are acting in such a way and what it means for the future of their country in economical and societal levels. It seems as if Afghan teachers understood the importance of teaching with active pedagogies, but not the importance of learning in this way, especially for girls. This links directly to the equity dimension of the 'fabric model' that recognises the potential of education to redress social injustices. The Afghan context offers a sad picture of how girls are excluded from education, one of the main injustices that this teaching programme tries to address: the reconstruction of a national education system and the incorporation of girls to it. Yet, the focus on access and the series of difficult challenges that plague this context has failed to look into the issue of equity as it would correspond. A deeper consideration of this dimension at design and planning level would enhance its quality.

Going back to Figure four, this Case Study has considered quality by looking at other theories of education, as Nikel and Lowe (2010) suggested. Beyond the individual

(teachers and learners), and classrooms (teaching in practice), it has turned its attention towards institutions (MoE and Teacher Training Colleges) and the System (Afghan Educational System) as the key players to ensure the pedagogical quality of ATEP in terms of structure, content and roll out.

Chapter Seven. Conclusions and recommendations

The aim of this paper has been to approach the question of quality of EiE and low-income countries through the pedagogical lens of teacher learning. This vision has been justified on the basis that the domain of teacher education and the quality of teaching receives very little attention in these contexts. By considering that a quality education system is closely linked to a highly qualified teaching force, this dissertation has gone one step further and considered teacher educators and how they are educated.

A review of the main teaching practices in formal and informal educational interventions in context of emergencies have shown that despite the wide range of teaching practices in the field, the practice of educating teachers adheres to two main trends, the school-based education and professional development schools (be training colleges or Universities), and the locally developed initiatives with blended learning approaches (face-to-face and distance education mainly). Pedagogically speaking, the learning of future teacher educators in these contexts adheres to sharing good practices and encouraging a further dissemination of the knowledge via teachers' networks.

Central to the discussion of this research has been the lack of a normative framework that measured the pedagogical quality of learning programmes. In response to this need this study has proposed a new way of measuring quality of education through a theoretical framework consisting of four factors. It has not been the scope of this study to provide further indicators, but simply to supply an initial idea on how to engage the issue of quality in this domain. It recognises though, the need to research further pedagogy in teachers learning as a synonym of quality.

Drawing on some of the views held by the European Commission (2013) and the 'UNESCO Strategy on Teachers' (2012-2016) this study sets out the following

recommendations for the development of a sustainable quality system of professional learning for teacher educators:

1. Firstly, the need that stakeholders, including policy makers and other educational authorities, recognise teacher educators as a professional body. It is evident from the literature review that this profession remains unclear for many low-income countries (and almost inexistent when it comes to emergencies) and that it sees almost no differences between teachers and teacher educators.

Once such awareness is in place, there needs to be a consensus on the knowledge base of a teacher's education system (program, pedagogies, structure, quality standards) and the current existing differences between professional development systems will decrease, to the benefit of trainees and stakeholders (national governments, training institutes, Universities). So far this has had a double negative impact: on one hand in the learning outcomes of students, on the other hand, in the lack of coherence and communication within the profession: "teacher educators may adhere to different professional standards and values, depending on the university department to which they belong. In these circumstances, institutions or governments might face considerable challenges in ensuring consistency and quality in the content and delivery of teacher education" (European Comission, 2013:12).

2. Secondly, and equally relevant to the issue of awareness is the consideration of all educational contexts in which teacher educators are based (developed or low-income country, context of emergencies or conflict, school-based or University-based) and the type of educational intervention in which they are involved (capacity building or technical training, pre-service or in-training, or dissemination of new teaching practices). As this study has argued, context and culture are two relevant elements when looking at designing educational interventions and they can not be disregarded to ensure that the challenges of the context (lack of resources, large ratio teacher-students, multigrade teaching) inform teacher training (UNESCO, 2012). This is the reason why it is essential to develop a more

comprehensive pedagogy of teacher education, to adopt a framework and a set of policies to develop innovative forms of support to promote teacher effectiveness and guarantee consistency of quality in the training. As the analysis of the case studies have revealed, letting teachers and teacher educators to get more involved in the process of development can benefit the whole system. In this sense, a bottom-up approach in which teacher educators, supported by other professionals, develop their own standards of quality seems to be a good arrangement. As a result of this empowerment, teacher educators would have developed a shared language through reflective practices and no top-down approaches, an effective model they can mirror in their own professional practice. In the lead up to the post 2015 agenda for education, the use of a more diversified strategy to promote teacher preparation should include technology-based training that prepares teachers and teacher educators to face the new visions of learning.

3. Next, it is essential to remember that all the above recommendations need to be embedded in consistent human resources policies of teacher educators' employers (teacher education institutions, in-service learning institutions, schools, or the government). Emphasis on pedagogy and methodology will be impractical unless it goes hand in hand with teacher recruitment, deployment, retention, support, compensation and promotion. They are all catalyst for a proper professional development for the specific contexts in which this study is set out and they can become the only reason why teachers or teacher educators continue with their profession.
4. Lastly, in line with Priority 3 of the "UNESCO Teacher Strategy: Informing the global debate about teaching", this study deems essential the documentation and dissemination of best practices to support quality teaching education and the identification of success factors. Channelling this information through international education conferences and national teacher networks will end up having a positive impact on teacher education policies. So far, due to the paucity of publications or the reduction of these to small initiatives and partnerships that incur in lack of

pedagogical information, there is a big difficulty in assessing the challenges ahead for the teaching education profession.

It seems evident that in order for quality of education in emergencies and low-income countries to move forward, there is a need to concentrate on how to develop effective teacher education programmes. Content and how they are conveyed need to be core areas in the TPD. In fact, as Pigozzi's (1999) remarked, emergencies should be viewed as opportunities for transformation, in this case for a transformation of teacher educators' learning.

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