TEPE 2nd Annual Conference
Teacher Education in Europe: mapping the landscape and looking to the future

Thursday 21 – Saturday 23 February 2008
Faculty of Education, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia

PROCEEDINGS

Ljubljana, February 2008
Conference Committee
Dr. Björn Astrand
Dr. Eve Eisenschmidt
Professor Brian Hudson
Dr. Mart Lampere
Professor Pavel Zgaga

Conference organisation
Mr. Igor Repac

URL: http://www.pef.uni-lj.si/tepe2008/
AGENDA

Thursday, 21 February
16.00-17.45: Registration – City Hotel (city centre)

18.00 Introduction
(Venue: City Hall; 5 minutes walk from the City Hotel)

Welcome speeches:
- Professor Pavel Zgaga, University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Education
- Mr. Zoran Janković, Mayor of Ljubljana

Evening key note: Being a Teacher in a Knowledge Society
Speaker: Professor Bernard Cornu, Directeur de la Formation – CNED (Centre National d’Enseignement à Distance), Directeur de CNED-EIFAD, Poitiers, France

19.30 Reception – City Hall

Friday, 22 February
Venue: Faculty of Education (University Campus Bežigrad)

8.00-9.00 Registration (for late comers) – University of Ljubljana Faculty of Education

9:00-12:30 First plenary session
Chair of the session: Professor Brian Hudson, TEPE Co-ordinator, University of Umeå, Sweden

- Greetings: Professor Cveta Razdevšek Pučko, Dean of the Faculty of Education
- Introduction by the Chair: Professor Brian Hudson

- Improving the Quality of Teacher Education: a contribution of the European Commission
Speaker: Paul Holdsworth, European Commission, DG for Education and Culture, Brussels, Belgium

- Key note 1: Advancing Research in and on Teacher Education (provisional title)
Speaker: Professor Hannele Niemi, Vice-Rector, University of Helsinki, Finland
- discussion

10.30-11.00 Break

- Key note 2: Mobility and the European Dimension in Teacher Education
Speaker: Professor Pavel Zgaga, Director of the Centre for Educational Policy Studies, Faculty of Education, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia
- discussion,

- Key note 3: Professionalism, performativity and care: whither teacher education for a gendered profession in Europe?
Speaker: Professor Sheelagh Drudy, Chair of Education, University College Dublin, Ireland
- discussion

12.30-14.00 Lunch (at the Faculty of Education)

14:00-17:30 WORKING GROUPS (break 15:30-16:00)

WG 1: Advancing Research in and on Teacher Education (Room 012)
Chair: Professor Sven Erik Hansen, Åbo Akademi University, Finland
Rapporteur: Dr Judith Hardford, University College Dublin, Ireland
**WG 2: Mobility and the European Dimension in Teacher Education (Room 026)**  
**Chair:** Professor Jens Rasmussen, University of Aarhus, Denmark  
**Rapporteur:** Dr Eve Eisenschmidt and Dr Erika Löfström; University of Tallinn, Estonia

**WG 3: Evaluation cultures in Teacher Education (Room 112)**  
**Chair:** Professor Sonia Blandford, Canterbury Christ Church University, UK  
**Rapporteur:** Professor Vlasta Vízek Vidović, University of Zagreb, Croatia

**Free evening**

**Saturday, 23 February**  
**Venue:** Faculty of Education

**9:00-12:30 Second plenary session**  
**Chair of the session:** Dr Eve Eisenschmidt, Tallinn University, Estonia

**9:05-11.00 PANEL DISCUSSION: WHAT TEACHER EDUCATION FOR TOMORROW?**  
**Panel facilitator:** Professor Nikos Papadakis, University of Crete, Greece  
**Members of the panel:**  
- Professor Sonia Blandford, Pro-Vice Chancellor (Dean of Education), Canterbury Christ Church University, UK  
- Mrs. Gordana Ćaprić, Deputy Director, Institute for Education Quality and Evaluation, Belgrade, Serbia  
- Professor Sheelagh Drudy, Chair of Education, member of the Tuning project group Education; University College Dublin, Ireland  
- Mr. Klaus Enser, MSc, teacher, Polytechnische Schule Vöcklabruck, Linz, Austria  
- Dr Otmar Gassner, European Network for Teacher Education Policy (ENTEP), Feldkirch, Austria  
- Mr. Josef Huber, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, France  
- Mrs. Anita Lice, European Student Union (ESU), Riga, Latvia  
- Dr Pasi Sahlberg, European Training Foundation (ETF), Torino, Italy  
- Mr. Branimir Štrukelj, Secretary General, Teachers Union Slovenia (SVIZ), Ljubljana, Slovenia

Challenged by the panel facilitator, panelists will discuss various issues on present and future of teacher education in Europe; followed by questions and comments by participants.

**11:00-11.30 Break**

**11:30-12:45 Conclusions and recommendations**  
**Chair of the session:** Dr Eve Eisenschmidt, Tallinn University, Estonia  
- Reports from Working Groups 1 - 3  
- Plenary discussion on reports  
- Conclusion and recommendation of the conference

**12.30 Address from representatives of ENTEP (European Network for Teacher Education Policy) and a farewell from the TEPE representatives**

**Speakers:**  
- Dr Otmar Gassner, Dr Cveta Razdevšek Pučko (ENTEP)  
- Professor Brian Hudson, Professor Pavel Zgaga (TEPE)

**13:00 End of the conference**

**13.00-14.00 Lunch (at the Faculty of Education)**  
- Departures

**Follow-up:** a publication (papers and contributions from the conference) in April 2008.
Teacher Education in Europe: mapping the landscape and looking to the future

Josef Huber
Head of the “Pestalozzi” Programme,
the Council of Europe programme for the training of education professionals

Welcome address

Ladies and gentlemen, dear colleagues, it is a great pleasure to be here and to have the opportunity to address you at the beginning of this important conference, the second annual conference of the TEPE network. I thank the organisers and in particular Prof. Pavel Zgaga for the invitation and this great opportunity to discuss central and burning issues of teacher education and professional development. For the Council of Europe, teacher education and their continued professionalization as well as the European dimension and challenges of their work has always been a priority, both, in its intergovernmental work on standards, set out in guidelines and recommendations, as well as by providing opportunities for exchange, debate and training for education professionals over the past decades to support the move from policy to practice.

In more recent years this concern has not waned but rather increased. The Third Summit of the Heads of States and Governments of the now 47 member states of the Council of Europe (Warsaw, 2005) has insisted again on the importance of teacher education by asking the Council of Europe to enhance all opportunities for the training of education professionals. The Prague Forum, providing a regular platform for high-level debate on education policy, has focused in its 2005 meeting on the identification of the competences the teaching profession needs to face the challenges of today’s global societies. The 2008 edition of this forum, later this year, will address the issue of rights in and to education of all those concerned and involved.

In response to these demands, the “Pestalozzi” programme has developed a new dynamic since 2006 by extending its scope of offer to a series of activities (modules) for the training of trainers and will be further developed in 2008 in cooperation with the member states in view of a coherent, compact and effective offer for education professionals in the wider Europe. The programme sets out to offer a permanent European platform for teachers and teacher trainers, including other educational multipliers and actors with an educational role, for exchange and discussion of experiences and practice, but also and foremost to learn from and with each other, for collaborative work on issues of common concern.

The content of the training activities is based on the outcomes of Council of Europe projects and actions - the standards and principles as set out in policy guidelines, recommendations and examples of practice - in priority areas such as democratic citizenship and human rights, intercultural education and understanding, history teaching based on multiperspectivity, education for linguistic and cultural diversity, media literacy development, issues of gender, protection of children and their rights.

Education professionals, like everybody else, tend to repeat the patterns they have experienced. Teachers tend to teach the way they have been taught. The methodology of training that the Pestalozzi programme adopts wants to offer the opportunity to trainers and teachers to experience and to practise a participative and interactive, democratic form of peer-training in an international and intercultural setting. “Methodology is not neutral” and it is hard to imagine how you could teach the competences, skills and attitudes needed to sustain our complex democratic societies in any other way than through the practice of collaborative work and knowledge construction.

There is no “Guru” and no “One Book”, but rather working together in an international and intercultural setting on issues of common concern to find fit solution for our diversity of contexts.

A four-fold model of competences development in teacher training complements the content and methodology: development of sensitivity and awareness, development of knowledge and understanding, development of individual practice and development of societal practice. These three together – content, methodology and competences development – can be seen as basic pillars of a future community of practice, networking teachers and teacher trainers across the wider Europe.
There is an underlying conviction to all this, which is, that education needs to be linked to a vision of the society we want, want our children, to live in.

“The answer to the question which world we want - our children - to live in will define the kind of education that we must ask our societies to provide: Do we want to imagine a world which is governed by the idea (myth) of eternal economic growth, which by its mode of production and reproduction depletes and destroys the resources and the physical health of people; where well-being is foremost counted in material belongings; where a small proportion of the world population lives on the continued poverty or near poverty of the majority; where such gaps in justice and wealth foster ideas of vengeance and revenge and prepare the grounds for totalitarian ideologies and regimes?

If the answer is no, then we need education that mobilizes the intellectual and emotional potential of every citizen and their contribution to making our societies economically, environmentally, societally and politically sustainable.” (Huber, 2008)

It is this four-fold definition of sustainability and the fundamental interconnectedness of all four factors which lay the basis for an “education for sustainable democratic societies”; it could serve as a guiding vision for education professionals, which goes beyond economic competitiveness and performance and is probably better fit to answer the challenges our societies face today and in the future.

I hope that we will also address other crucial issues such as the enormous gap between the expectations and demands political discourse expresses with regard to education professionals and the propagated and perceived low status and image of the profession in many countries; but also the question whether in our discussion and analysis we match the real concerns of the practitioners which may well include questions of: how to organise learning in a way that motivates learners in complex and diverse classrooms; how to create and maintain a climate that does not need disciplinary measures; and how to relate in a beneficial way to parents and wider community.

I look forward to the debates and exchanges of this conference. Thank you.

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Teacher Education in Europe:
mapping the landscape and looking to the future

Paul Holdsworth
Schools Policy Unit,
Directorate-General for Education and Culture,
European Commission

Today, I’m going to be taking as my starting point the theme for this conference: ‘mapping the landscape and looking to the future’. I’m going to be talking about the work that the European Commission, with the Member States, has been doing precisely to map out the landscape of Teacher Education in Europe, and to draw up an agenda for future action.
And I’m going to try to raise some questions about the implications of that agenda for Teacher Educators and for Educational researchers.

But I’d like first to mention two related areas of work at European level which also have implications for teachers.

The first is just to remind you that last year we launched a public consultation called ‘Schools for the 21st century’, the responses to which are currently being analysed. (Thank you to those of you here who have taken the trouble to send in your views). And those consultation responses, together with research findings from a number of fields, will be the basis of a Communication on the School that the Commission will be publishing probably in the Summer.

The second area of work I want to mention the work that Prof. Cornu reminded us of yesterday evening: our work on Key Competences. Member States in December 2006 adopted the European Framework of Key Competences for lifelong learning, which describes the eight areas of knowledge, skill and attitudes that all citizens will need if they are to develop their full potential, and if they are to take part fully in democratic society, and in the economy.

Alongside traditional competences, the Framework includes a number of transversal competences such as: social and civic competence, initiative taking and entrepreneurship, and learning to learn. Many Member States have already reframed their school curricula in line with this shift in emphasis away from the transmission of bodies of static knowledge and towards the acquisition of competences.

I’m not saying that this is particularly new. But I do think it’s worth asking whether we have fully taken on board the consequences of this shift for teachers and for Teacher Education. If schools are to make sure that students develop those transversal competences that don’t fit neatly into one ‘subject’ area, will it not require teachers to collaborate across traditional ‘subjects boundaries’ in ways that they have not done before? How can Teacher Education prepare staff for this? Or again, how exactly will pupils develop the requisite level of ‘risk-taking’ and ‘entrepreneurship’ if they attend one of those schools which are risk-averse, in which every new initiative has to receive the approval of the local school board or even the Ministry? What models of creativity and entrepreneurship – in its widest sense – are our schools and teachers offering? And what do these key competences for learners imply about the key competences we should expect our teachers to have?

This is one of the sets of issues that experts from some Member States will be looking at in coming months through the process of peer learning.

But, what I mainly want to discuss today is the Commission Communication on Improving the Quality of Teacher Education, and the resulting ‘Conclusions’ (statement) by Education Ministers.

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2 http://ec.europa.eu/education/school21/index_en.html
3 http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/objectives_en.html#basic
The Communication draws heavily upon the reflections and discussions of different groups of national experts, several of whom are here today. It's another fruit of the peer learning that the Commission facilitates.

It starts by describing the situation of which you're all fully aware: of rapid changes in society, in the economy and within the classroom, changes which are making the task of teaching more complex and more demanding all the time. You know the kind of thing: the increasing heterogeneity of classes; the trend towards individualised teaching and learning; new technologies (which so many teachers still struggle with); the conflicting trends as regards the autonomy of schools and of teachers; league tables; parent power …

The Communication also asserts that, faced with this sort of change, our current approach to the provision of Teacher Education in the EU is, simply, unsustainable. We have a majority of countries which provide no systematic support to beginning teachers during their first years in the job. We have many countries in which teachers, on average, undertake no more than three days training per year. We have hundreds of thousands, maybe millions, of teachers who have no particular incentive to undertake any kind of professional development at any point in their careers. We have systems in which the people responsible for initial Teacher Education have little or no contact with those responsible for Continuing Professional Development.

Of course, this is not a complete picture. We do not have a complete picture. Which is why we are looking forward to the data that will be provided by the TALIS survey\(^5\), which is being undertaken by the OECD in collaboration with the European Commission, and which should paint a much more detailed picture of teachers in Europe and their professional development.

But what the Commission could see already, was, that not all Teacher Education systems in the EU are best prepared to provide teachers with the skills they need to prepare young people for a world that is in constant and rapid evolution.

What was gratifying was the extent of the welcome that the Communication received from Member States, and the very large degree of agreement it elicited about the action that they should now take.

The result of all this is that we now - for the very first time – have a statement from all the European education ministers about the need to improve the quality of Teacher Education, and we have some indications of what they see as the priorities for action. I just want to pick out five main themes.

**First:** Ministers agree with the Commission that initial teacher education has to be of the highest quality; it has to give new teachers a sound knowledge of pedagogy as well as of their specialist subject matter; it has to include practice in real classrooms, as well as theory. Well, you may ask, who

\(^5\) [http://www.oecd.org/document/0/0,3343,en_2649_39263231_38052160_1_1_1_1,00.html](http://www.oecd.org/document/0/0,3343,en_2649_39263231_38052160_1_1_1_1,00.html)
wouldn’t agree with that? But, actually, there are several countries in which you can be employed as a teacher without having any qualification in pedagogy…

Ministers didn’t directly address the question whether all teachers should possess a masters degree, but it’s clear that, given the complexity of the tasks that we ask teachers to perform, many countries are moving in that direction.

**Second,** Ministers made specific reference to some of the key competences that they think all teachers should possess: the ability make effective use of ICT; the ability to teach transversal competences, like learning to learn; the ability to teach effectively in heterogeneous classes of pupils from diverse social and cultural backgrounds and with a wide range of abilities and needs, including special educational needs; the ability work in close collaboration with colleagues, parents and the wider community; the ability to participate in the development of the school in which they are employed … these are just some of them. Ministers were not trying to set out a syllabus for Teacher Education, but were highlighting those competences that they think need particular attention at this time.

What is interesting is that Education Ministers explicitly mentioned the role that teachers can play in creating more equitable education systems: saying explicitly that they should be able to meet the challenges of increasing social and cultural diversity in the classroom. (As you know, some school systems actually aggravate disadvantage and inequality in society; I’m thinking for example of those systems that still segregate children very early into separate schools and make it difficult for pupils to move between them later.)

**Third,** There is agreement that Initial Teacher Education, no matter how good it is, can never be enough to sustain a teacher for a career that will last 30 or 40 years. For teachers, - especially for teachers - the discipline of lifelong learning is an absolute must if they are to keep up to date with developments in their specialist subject areas, and in educational research, and if they are, by acting as an example, to inspire school students to adopt a lifelong learning approach themselves.

What this means, according to Ministers, is: that teachers should be actively encouraged and assisted to keep their learning needs under constant review throughout their career; that teachers should be offered a wide range of professional development activities – including non-formal and informal learning, and including mobility, (exchanges, placements and so on); and that teachers need better incentives and support to encourage them to acquire new competences.

**Fourth:** Following on from this, Ministers stressed that they see teachers as autonomous learners who engage in reflective practice, who assess their own development needs, who engage in research, who help to develop new knowledge and who can innovate.

This is why there is scope for much closer collaboration between Teacher Education institutions and schools, schools understood as ‘learning communities’. The idea is on the one hand that all teachers should be able to take advantage of - but also to contribute to - the latest research, and on the other hand that what Teacher Educators teach is actually based upon hard evidence about what succeeds in real classrooms.

Ministers were also very clear that Teacher Education - especially continuing Teacher Education - should become much more responsive to teachers' real needs and should be quality assured. They also agreed that Teacher Education programmes should be available at PhD, as well as at Master and Bachelor levels.

And, **Fifth:** It follows from this that the current piecemeal approach to the provision of Teacher Education and Continuing Professional Development is not enough. The clear message we received from experts and stakeholders is that, if we are serious about keeping the skills of our teachers up to date, then national provision for teacher education and continuing development needs to be coordinated as a single, coherent system, and must be adequately funded. What is needed in each Member State is a seamless continuum of Teacher Education provision, embracing initial teacher education, induction into the profession, support from mentors throughout the career, and career-long continuing professional development. As you know, in most Member States, such a coordinated system does not exist.
So much, then, for what Ministers have agreed.

Now, you may argue that there’s nothing very innovative about these ideas. Many of you have been espousing them – perhaps even implementing them - for many years. And yet they remain elusive objectives for the EU viewed as a whole. Amongst the 27 Member States, none has a perfectly performing Teacher Education system (if, indeed, we can even talk of ‘a system’ of Teacher Education in many countries). None can say that all of its teachers match the portrait that Ministers have sketched out. Which is why the role of the EU in this field is to help everyone learn from good practice in the other Member States.

A number of Member States who are interested in this theme currently take part in a peer-learning process that is designed to make it easier for both policy-makers and teacher educators to share good practice in modernising Teacher Education. I know you’ll be hearing more about this in one of the workshops; but I want to just underline what I see as one of the great advantages of peer-learning, which is that it brings policy-makers and researchers together and invites them to share their experiences and ideas on a very concrete issue. It’s a way of constructing the collective intelligence in the field of Teacher Education about which Prof. Cornu spoke yesterday.

And what I think is new is the fact that there is now, for the first time, agreement across the EU about the key issues that Member States need to look at, if they want to improve the Quality of Teacher Education.

I think you’ll agree that this statement by Ministers on Improving the Quality of Teacher Education represents a pretty big agenda for action.

How are we going to build this idyllic Europe in which all teachers are highly qualified lifelong learners who are imbued with a culture of reflective practice and are engaged in research activity? How are we going to build this Europe in which Teacher Education provision is coordinated, coherent, adequately resourced, responsive and quality assured and in which teaching is a high-status profession capable of attracting the most able graduates?

Well, maybe this is where organisations like TEPE come in. If we are to build such a Europe, then the one thing that all Member States – and indeed the European Commission - need is solid, research-based evidence about what works in teaching, about what works in Teacher Education and professional development.

So, what can Teacher Educators do, for example, to help construct systems that give all teachers – not just new teachers - the competences they need in the 21st century? To help develop effective mentoring schemes for all teachers, and induction schemes for all new teachers in those countries that don’t yet have them? To help embed a culture of reflectivity and research in the Teaching profession? And to integrate Teachers’ Professional Development into holistic approaches to school development?

What can be the role of researchers in: providing the kind of evidence that your Ministers need to encourage them to implement this agenda? (And yes, sometimes that does mean demonstrating the economic value of what you do). What can they do to get research into every school and every staffroom? To build networks of learning between your institutions and the schools in your area?

Finally, what can be the role of networks like TEPE in helping to implement the quality agenda that Ministers have set out? (Or, indeed, in proposing an alternative agenda?)

I look forward finding the answers to some of these questions over the next two days.
KEY NOTES

Being a Teacher in a Knowledge Society
Prof. Bernard Cornu
CNED (National Centre for Distance Education), France

ABSTRACT
Information and Communication Technologies bring profound changes in Society, in all domains of economical and social life. Particularly, Education is evolving, because Knowledge has a new status and a new role in Society. Knowledge is changing, School is changing, the Teaching Profession and the role of the teacher are changing. A Knowledge Society is a Society of networks: the structure of the society, the access to information and knowledge, the way one can access and collaborate with others are now influenced by the possibility and the need for networking. This leads to the development of a new kind of collective intelligence. We will describe and analyze some characteristics of a Knowledge Society, and reflect on the evolution of the role of the Teacher: What are the main changes in the teaching profession, which new competences are needed?
Among these changes, we will focus more specifically on some major aspects: The European and international dimension of the Teaching Profession and the need for “international common principles about teachers”; the new “lifelong learning” dimension of the Teaching Profession; the development of distance education and e-learning and its impact on the Teaching Profession; the place of teachers in educational policies and the political stakes of the Teaching Profession.
1. A Knowledge Society

1.1. A Society in which Knowledge plays a central role

Development of ICT
Knowledge / Information

Information: Facts, comments, opinions, expressed through words, images, sounds... It can be stored, circulated...

Knowledge: The output of the reconstruction of information by a person, according to his/her history and context. It depends on the person.

Data circulate, documents can be transmitted, information can be shared, knowledge must be acquired, constructed.

1.2. A Society in which Knowledge evolves permanently

Disciplins and knowledge

The « four Pillars »

Learning to know
Learning to do
Learning to live together
Learning to be

New approaches to knowledge: Edgar Morin

1.3. A Human Society

Knowledge connects human beings

The human stakes of knowledge

Information society: A society based on technological development, in which information is a good that one can exchange, buy, sell, store, transport, process.

The society of the digital divide.

Knowledge society: A human society, taking into account wider social, ethical and political dimensions, in which knowledge should bring justice, solidarity, democracy, peace... A society in which knowledge could be a force for changing society. A society which should provide universal and equitable access to information (UNESCO).
1. A Knowledge Society

1.4. A Networked Society

From pyramid to network: complexification

Network:
- Nodes (information, people, knowledge, ...) linked by edges
- Complexity
- The « world wide web »
- Several paths from one node to another
- Interactive, evolutive
- Sub-networks, network of networks...
- Circulate in a network
- Changes in Communication:
  - From hierarchical communication to networked communication
  - New kinds of hierarchies...

Networking has consequences (positive... and negative) on economy, social life, leisure, politics..., education, learning:
- Knowledge (networks of Knowledge)
- Access to Knowledge
- Educational and training systems
- Teaching and learning
- Lifelong learning
- Role of the Teacher, teaching profession

Networks lead to collective intelligence

1.6. A Society of Lifelong Learning

No longer one can acquire during his/her studies all the knowledge and competences for the whole life. Learning all life long is a necessary competence in the Knowledge Society.

Initial Education must prepare for Lifelong Learning

The 8 key competences for Lifelong Learning:
- Communication in the mother tongue
- Communication in foreign languages
- Mathematical competence and basic competences in science
- Digital competence
- Learning to learn
- Social and civic competences
- Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship
- Culture awareness and expression


1.7. The School in a Knowledge Society

Will schools integrate ICT?
- Do pupils learn better through ICT and using digital resources and tools?
- There is a core opposition between the traditional school and ICT/Internet

The core mission of the school:
- The privileged place for accessing knowledge
- The place of the public service of Education
- The place for the socialization of the pupil
- The place for acquiring the concepts of a networked society
- The place for the construction of a collective intelligence
1. A Knowledge Society

1.8. The School of tomorrow…
Will schools resist to change or will they adapt?
Will the market transform schools?
Will the school be centered on society or centered on knowledge?
Will networks make schools disappear?
Will ICT (and the lack of teachers) minimize the teacher’s role?

On which parameters can we act?
- School mission, attitudes and expectations towards schools
- Structuration and organization of educational systems
- Teachers, the teaching profession

2. A Teacher in a Knowledge Society

2.1. The relationship between the teacher and knowledge
Teachers, Information, Knowledge
The debate Knowledge / Pedagogy
Professional competences

2.2. A Human and Social role
Since a Knowledge Society is a Human society, the role of the teacher has a strong social and human component.
A teacher in a knowledge society cannot only be a « knowledge transmitter ».

2.3. Working in Networks
The teacher is involved in the networked society:
- Knowledge is accessible through networks
- Knowledge is accessible through human networks
- The teacher has to work in networks, to be involved in networks,
- and to prepare the pupil to circulate in networks, to access knowledge in networks, to master a network structure

2.4. Working in the framework of collective intelligence,
Prepare pupils to collective intelligence

The collective dimension of the teaching profession.
A lonely profession?
Working with others: colleagues, wider networks…
The « collectively intelligent teacher »
How to develop pupils’ collective intelligence?

2.5. The « blended teacher »:
Dealing with time and space
The traditional classroom: same place, same time
ICT provide other possibilities
The teacher has to act in all kinds of situations
(Virtual classroom)
Distance Education
Open and Distance Learning
Distance Education

- A core component of Education in a Knowledge Society (networks, collective intelligence)
- No longer only for those who cannot attend a school...
- Covers the whole range of Education: primary, secondary, higher, lifelong learning
- Contributes to social values:
  - Knowledge as a public good
  - Education as a public service
  - Equity (access to knowledge)

Open and Distance Learning:

- get free from some constraints (time, space)
- new ways of collaborative work
- new ways of interactive learning activities

Pedagogical stakes:

- Collective intelligence and "new" pedagogies
- Individual / collective
- Time and space: distance / presence synchronous / asynchronous
- New interactions (tutoring)
- New relationship between the teacher and the learner
- Resources, tools, and... services
- Individualization, adaptation, modularization

Personal stakes:

- Individualization / collaboration "distance reinforces proximity"
- Freedom for choice objectives pedagogy pace, rhythm
- Lifelong learning: "continuum"
- Social promotion
- Professional qualification

2. A Teacher in a Knowledge Society

Open and Distance Learning:

2.6. The « LLL teacher »:

From Lifelong Teaching to Lifelong Learning

- The teacher has to be a lifelong learner
- The teacher has to prepare his/her pupils for lifelong learning
- e-Learning and the teacher

2.7. The International and European teacher

Mobility

Confidence and recognition

International common Principles

The Recommendation concerning the status of Teachers (UNESCO, 1966) and the CEART

4 Challenges:

- Dealing with the interaction of individualization and collaboration
- Dealing with the complementarity of synchronous and asynchronous learning activities
- Dealing with the complementarity of distance and presence activities
- Dealing with the complementarity of initial education and lifelong learning
3. Teacher Education in a Knowledge Society

Teacher education has to take into account:
- The missions of the teacher
- The knowledge and competences to acquire

Content and methods of Teacher Education
- « teachers teach as they are taught »

Pre- and in-service education: a « continuum »

4. Political and ethical stakes

Policy and decision making
- Political choices are necessary in a Knowledge society.

The role of teachers, educators, researchers
- In order to help decision-makers and to make decisions meet the real needs, bridging research, practice, experimentation, innovation with decision-making is essential. Decision-makers should make better use of the experience of Practitioners and the findings of Researchers. In turn, Practitioners and Researchers should make their findings and results more visible and usable for the Decision-makers. Educators and researchers should help in elaborating a vision and making it explicit.”
  (The Stellenbosch Declaration)

Commercialisation of Knowledge and Education:
- Knowledge: a public good; Education: a public service.
- Do we prepare consumers or citizens?

Knowledge Society... or Knowledge Economy?

Globalization:
- « A new kind of worldwide humanism is appearing. Humanism is becoming technically possible » (Michel SERRES)

The Digital divide and divides in education
- The « knowledge divide » ...

The Digital Solidarity Fund (2005)
The Digital Solidarity Agency

Thank you...

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Advancing Research in and on Teacher Education
Prof. Hannele Niemi
Vice-Rector, University of Helsinki, Finland

ABSTRACT

The presentation explores why teachers should work like a researcher in their profession and how research component can be integrated with pre and in-service teacher education programmes. The lecture introduces how we can promote research-based orientation in primary and secondary teacher education. It also provides examples of how in-service training can support teachers’ work in local schools, and these activities are tightly connected with research projects.

Teachers need a critical mind and the ability to reflect. If the teaching profession aims to have a high professional status, teacher education must prepare teachers to work using an evidence-based approach in their work. This is possible only if they have the competence to use different kinds of evidence, including the evidence that research provides. They must have also the capacity to carry out action research in their classrooms and schools. The pre-service teacher education curriculum provides a foundation, but without research-oriented in-service training, teachers’ potentiality to renew and develop their own profession will stagnate.

When promoting evidence-based practice, it is not enough that teachers are provided with information about research, offering it as a top-down process. They need the competence to acquire different kinds of evidence which informs their practice and decisions. It seems that without research, methodological studies and experiences of research processes, it is very difficult to internalise an evidence-based orientation.
### Advancing Research in and on Teacher Education

The TEPE conference 2008: Teacher Education in Europe: mapping the landscape and looking to the future, Ljubljana, 21-23 Feb 2008

Hannale Niemi
Vice-Rector
University of Helsinki

### Contents

- Why do we need research in teacher education?
- How should we promote research on teacher education?

### Teaching as a well-qualified profession

(Improving the quality of teacher education 3.8.2007)

- "All teachers are graduates from higher education institutions". (The recommendations 2007)
- "To ensure that there is adequate capacity within Higher Education to provide for the quantity and quality of Teacher Education required, and to promote the professionalisation of teaching, teacher education programmes should be available in the Master and Doctorate (as well as the Bachelor) cycles of higher education."

### Why do we need research in teacher education?

- Teacher education must be grounded on:
  - concepts of the teaching profession and
  - knowledge creation.

### The aims of teacher education

- Provide teachers with studies that guide them to considering themselves as accountable professional actors,
- Make teachers aware that they have rights and obligations to contribute to the development of education.
- Their task is to facilitate different learners to learn better.
- Teachers have a strong societal function, and this perspective should be integrated into the TE curricula.
From knowledge reception to knowledge producing - promoting active and collaborative learning

- Learning as an active individual process, but also a process based on sharing and participation.
- Teachers need the most recent knowledge and research about the subject matter and how the subject matter can be transformed in relevant ways to benefit different learners -> lifelong learning
- They should be familiar with the curricula and learning environments in educational institutions and in non-formal educational settings

Generic skills or focused professionalism?

- The academic contents of TE and practical skills must not be seen as separate or exclusive; they are always complementary in the teaching profession.
- Teachers as experts work in complex situations research-based knowledge and research-informed knowledge + tacit knowledge + confidence to carry out their expertise in demanding unique situations.
- Progressive problem solving, that is, tackling problems

Promoting research- and evidence-based practice

- If the teaching profession aims to have a high professional status, teacher education must prepare teachers to work using an evidence-based approach in their work.
- They need the competence to use different kinds of evidence, including the evidence that research provides.
- They must have also the capacity to carry out action research in their classrooms and schools.
- The pre-service teacher education curriculum provides a foundation, but without research-oriented in-service training, teachers’ potentiality to renew and develop their own profession will stagnate.

Applications

Knowledge creation

Research
- mode 1
- mode 2
- Triple Helix

Evidence
- personal experiences
- from documents or archives
- artefacts
- observations

Interactive learning process of researchers, policymakers, and practitioners

Knowledge creation

Applications

Evidence
- personal experiences
- from documents or archives
- artefacts
- observations

Research
- mode 1
- mode 2
- Triple Helix

Competence of practitioners to use and produce evidence

Professional networking

Evidence/research-based education (e.g. teacher education)

How should we promote research on teacher education?
The LUMA Centre is an example of cross-boundary activities. It is serving science teachers, students and researchers.

The centre is coordinated by the Faculty of Science in the University of Helsinki promoting the teaching of biology, chemistry, geography, mathematics, physics and technology and enhancing interaction between schools, universities and business and industry.

http://www.helsinki.fi/luma/english/

Research-based teacher education – the case of Finnish teacher education

- The two-cycle degree (3 + 2), Ph.D. (4 years, including 60-80 ECTS as course work closely integrated with the doctoral thesis.)
- Academic disciplines; a major or minors depending on the qualification being sought.
- Research studies consist of methodological studies, a BA thesis and a MA thesis.

Elements of a professional development system (Borko, 2004, p. 4)

**Facilitators**

**PD Program**

**Teachers**

**Context**

Integrating theory and practice in the Finnish TE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study years</th>
<th>Advanced Practicum (MA level, 8 ECTS):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Different options for developing expertise, can be connected with the Master’s Thesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Mainly in Municipal field schools</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Intermediate Practicum (BA level, 12 ECTS):</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Starting with specific subject areas, moving towards more holistic and pupil-centred approaches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>University teacher training schools</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Practicum integrated with theoretical studies</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major in Education</th>
<th>MA thesis &amp; research methods and seminars</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BA thesis &amp; research methods and seminars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research methods, observations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Continuum of teacher education

- Pre-service TE (5 years)
- Induction (3 years)
- In-service TE (Career-long)

Research-based/evidence-based work
At a European level
- European level research programmes, in which teaching, school administration, educational policy and teacher education are in focus: Learning together – improving education
- European level developmental projects: Evaluation and evaluation culture – towards more participatory and communicative culture. Active interaction of researchers, practitioners and policymakers is needed.
- European doctoral programs: Enhancement of learning in different cultural and societal contexts (3rd cycle of the Bologna process). For teachers, principals and teacher educators.

At a national level
- Action research programs as a part of teachers’ and other professionals’ continuous education.
- Local or regional action research projects should be collected into larger programmes in which researcher as facilitators are actively involved.
- National doctoral programmes for teachers, principals and teacher education (3rd cycle of the Bologna process).
  - a close cooperation with the European doctoral programmes.
  - a close cooperation with higher education institutions and researchers.

At a local level
- Multi-professional networking: researchers, teachers, social-workers, working-life partners.
- Teacher action research projects in schools and networking these schools.
- Networks of learners - Supporting learning at different age levels in formal and informal settings.

Teacher education on research-based foundations
- Teachers need a profound knowledge of the most recent advances of research in the subjects they teach. In addition, they need to be familiar with the latest research on how something can be taught and learnt.
- Teacher education in itself should also be an object of study and research.
- The aim is that teachers internalise a research-orientated attitude towards their work.
Mobility and the European Dimension in Teacher Education  
Prof. Pavel Zgaga  
Director of the Centre for Educational Policy Studies,  
Faculty of Education University of Ljubljana, Slovenia  

ABSTRACT  
International cooperation in higher education has a long tradition; since the 1990s, it has been in constant increasing. After the fall of the Berlin Wall, the European higher education systems have been challenged from two sides: by European “coming together” as well as by broader international cooperation and globalisation. In this respect, teacher education as a specific subject area within higher education often encounters problems. In a comparative perspective, mobility of students and staff is weaker in teacher education that in other subject areas. This is mainly a negative heritage of the traditional position of teacher education in most of European countries: it was treated as a predominantly national concern; it was predominantly focused to national systems of education only; it was a “non-university” subject area and international academic cooperation in teacher education was not encouraged.  
Therefore, the on-going process of “Europeanisation” is a real challenge to European systems of teacher education today as well as an important issue with regards to their future. Encouraging and increasing mobility in teacher education seems to be both – a problem and a solution.
Mobility and the European Dimension in Teacher Education

Pavel Zgaga
University of Ljubljana

1. The way behind us – and new challenges

A. Teacher Education (TEd) responded challenges of the late 20th Century and underwent huge developments:
- it “universitized”: it “caught” other areas & professions;
- it became an integral part of higher education (HE) and research; yet, it has now to compete in this field;
- it entered academic/European/international cooperation.

B. HE and R systems in 46 European countries are today far on the way towards a common European Higher Education and Research Area (EHEA / ERA);
- ‘Europeanisation’ and internationalisation of teacher education is much more complex and complicated process than it is the case in HE in general;
- thus, TEd is challenged again by the developments on a large scale: is it able to compete with them again?

2. ‘Europeanization’ and Higher Education

The Bologna Process as the European ‘coming together’ in the area of HE.

A. ‘Bologna’ is now deeply in the ‘second half of the game’: EHEA (+ ERA) will be established until 2010…
Huge challenges to – traditional; national – HE:
- re-positioning of national systems (frameworks);
- re-positioning of universities / HE institutions in a European and global context;
- re-positioning of academic disciplines / study areas.

B. Also the role of TEd within the HE and R sector should be reconsidered and redefined.
- What is a ‘European Teacher’?
- What is a ‘European Teacher Education and Training’?

3. ‘Europeanisation’ and Teacher Education

A. The ‘Europeanisation agenda’: no (legal) harmonisation in education (culture etc.).
Diversity (‘common richness’), but no standardisation.
No binding trans-national legal harmonisation but ‘a fully decentralised approach’: ‘spreading best practices and achieving greater convergence’ (OMC).

B. Yet, there are some open questions (e.g. no ‘harmonisation’ from above – but there is ‘voluntary’ one…)
A confirmation of the ‘European Register of QA Agencies’ (May 2007): towards a trans-national (universal) structure over European national HE systems?
‘European teacher’: no ‘standardised teacher model’ – but ‘improving the quality of teacher education’.

4. The European Dimension in TEd?

The ‘European dimension’: what is it?
Structural aspects (qualifications; employment etc.);
Content aspects (curriculum; identity; communication etc.).
Some areas have been already ‘Europeanized’ (e.g. doctors, nurses, architects, etc.).
Yet, school curricula remain national and teachers remain a ‘national qualification’.

(A) Compared to fast internationalisation of academic fields and professions teacher education (could) lag behind if more ambitious goals are not set up.

(B) If national systems of education would like to respond the challenge of the knowledge society they have to address trans-national, European issues.

5. Mobility and Teacher Education

A. Why mobility? – Do we need mobility in TEd at all?
- Mobility is an academic tradition since Middle Ages.
- Mobility enhances academic cooperation & ‘critical mass’.
- Mobility enhances students’ opportunities. Etc., etc.

B. What is the situation with student mobility in TEd area?
- Students in TEd: a bit over 10% of all students in Europe.
- Foreign students in (T)Ed underrepresented – below 10%:
  9,7 HU, 7,8 NO, 7,3 SE, 5,7 NL … 3,5 UK, 2,5 FI, 1,8 IT, 1,3 CZ.
- Tempus: a share of only 0.5% (2002/2003).
5.1 What is the share of Teacher Education students?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field of Study</th>
<th>EU-15 max</th>
<th>EU-15 min</th>
<th>EU-27 max</th>
<th>EU-27 min</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education / average &gt;10%</td>
<td>PT 14.0</td>
<td>IR 4.2</td>
<td>LV 10.3</td>
<td>EE 16.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Humanities &amp; arts</td>
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<td>NL 7.6</td>
<td>EE 12.1</td>
<td>SK 5.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agriculture &amp; veterinary sc.</td>
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<td>SE 0.8</td>
<td>LT 4.4</td>
<td>EE 1.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Health and welfare</td>
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<td>AT 10.1</td>
<td>CZ 12.4</td>
<td>PL 23.1</td>
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<td>Social sc., business, law</td>
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<td>IR 19.8</td>
<td>CZ 24.5</td>
<td>LV 49.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Science, math, computing</td>
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<td>NL 5.8</td>
<td>CZ 15.9</td>
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<td>Eng., manufac., construct.</td>
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<td>DK/UK 10.3</td>
<td>LT 21.2</td>
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<td>Services</td>
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<td>UK 1.1</td>
<td>HU 7.9</td>
<td>LV 22.5</td>
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<td>Unknown</td>
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<td>PL 8.3</td>
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(EC - Education across Europe, 2003; F:8a)

5.2 What is the share of Teacher Education Erasmus students?

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<td>2.1</td>
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<td>38.8</td>
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<td>6.7</td>
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(ACA – Eurodata, 2006; T 10.4)

5.3 What is the share of Teacher Education Tempus students?

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<th>Field of Study</th>
<th>2002/2003</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical sciences</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social sc., business, law</td>
<td>53.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Science, math, computing</td>
<td>1.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Engineering + technology</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architecture, urban pl.</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages, philology</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etc.</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ACA – Eurodata, 2006; T 10.11)

6. The Bologna Process today

‘Bologna’ is now in the ‘second half of the game’:
- from setting principles and guidelines
- to issues of implementation – and interpretation(s).

> There are various modes and speeds of introducing the new systems and where is […] ample room for different and at times conflicting interpretations (Trends 4 Report, 2005).

Two possible approaches:
- How to redesign ‘old programmes’ into new, ‘Bologna’ ones?
- How to modernise and improve HE / TEd?

There are ‘fast runners’ as well as ‘laggards’ in this race. It seems that TEd belongs among the latter...

Should TEd compete in this race at all?

7. Bologna Challenges to Teacher Education

A. A challenge of the ‘structural dimension’
Institutions of TEd obviously have problems with the new Bologna structures. Key issues:
- Initial TEd: 1st or 2nd cycle?
- The weight of the 2nd cycle (Master)?
- Governments in delay to adopt new national regulations.

B. A challenge of employability: discipline vs. profession
What are the ‘epistemological foundations’ of TEd?
Subject discipline? Pedagogy? – A ‘conflict of faculties’?

C. A challenge of quality
In several study areas, specialised networks have been developed which care about quality assurance.

This hasn’t been the case in teacher education so far.

8. Teacher Education today

After a turbulent period in the 1980s and 1990s, the role and the position of TEd is challenged again.

Today, TEd can be described
- as a rather young ‘academic discipline’ and, therefore,
- possessing relatively lower ‘critical mass’ than most of traditional academic disciplines;
- as a study area under stronger political influence than other traditional professions;
- as an area more ‘sensible to national interests’;
- only at the beginning of internationalisation process;
- but confronted with a demand to contribute substantially to the emerging knowledge society.
9. Towards Teacher Education of tomorrow

If ‘the role of teachers is crucial’ than the role of TEd within HE and in societies at large should be improved. It is necessary:

- to enhance quality of TEd in genuine terms and in a broader European context;
- to ‘tune’ educational structures and approaches to teaching and learning at TEd institutions in order to facilitate and increase the mobility of students;
- to strengthen the mobility of students in the field of TEd & the mobility of acting teachers;
- to strengthen interdisciplinary research in/on education at TEd institutions;
- to strengthen European co-operation in TEd similarly as in other promoted HE fields.
Professionalism, performativity and care: whither teacher education for a gendered profession in Europe?
Prof. Sheelagh Drudy
Chair of Education at the UCD School of Education & Lifelong Learning, University College Dublin, Ireland

ABSTRACT
This paper draws together current research on gender, teaching, professionalism, teacher education and changes in universities. It critically analyses the impact of recent developments on teaching – one of the most highly feminized professions in western societies. It reflects on dominant discourses on teaching. While a number of different discourses may be found in teaching, official discourses are increasingly drawn from the perspective of performativity. It is suggested that there is a disjuncture between this discourse and the other discourses integral to the profession. In particular, an ethical dimension and a discourse of care have been found to be a very important part of teacher professional identity. Most teacher education currently takes place within university environments, themselves imbued with cultures of performativity and audit cultures. This creates its own set of tensions. The paper argues that, in order to understand teaching and teacher education, we must take into account the location of teacher education within higher education and the way higher education has been affected by global changes in its structures and cultures. A central assumption in this paper is that teacher education and educational research should be central elements in the contribution of universities to the deepening of democracy and the public good.
Professionalism, performativity and care: whither teacher education for a gendered profession in Europe?

Professor Sheelagh Drudy
University College Dublin

Paper Outline
• discourses on teacher education
• highly feminised nature of teaching
• changes that have happened in universities
• implications for teacher education
• current European policy on teaching and teacher education
• published research evidence from EU, North America, Australasia, research in Ireland

A highly gendered profession
• 70%+ teachers in primary education are women
• lower secondary education is not as high as in primary education
• % of women in upper secondary education less striking but outnumber men in nearly all countries
• policy in relation to teaching and teacher education must take account

Discourses on teaching
• discourse of domesticity
• discourse of femininity
• discourse of care
• discourse of performativity and ‘new managerialism’
• discourse of professionalism

Discourse of domesticity
• ‘Domestic ideology’: women ‘naturally’ more disposed towards nurture than men
• Women greater suitability for teaching very young children
• perception of school students and student teachers that women best suited to primary teaching
• most frequent explanation for the low proportion of men in primary teaching the perception that it is a ‘woman’s job’

Discourse of femininity
• linked to the discourse of domestic ideology
• notions of female domesticity and service linked to teacher professional identities
• women teacher educators read their own working lives through images of female domesticity
• discourse of femininity found in primary teacher education programmes
• women teachers reproduce, rather than change, traditional gender patterns
Discourse of care

- Care central and fundamental to human development and well-being, social solidarity, and to economic development
- ‘nurturing capital’
- Feminine and feminist ethic of care (Gilligan)
- Concept of care linked to concept of justice
- ‘caring-for’ and ‘caring-about’ (Noddings)

Three-fold taxonomy of care (Lynch)

- Primary care relations
- Secondary care relations
- Tertiary care relations

Discourse of care

- The affective domain, or caring about children, is fundamental to teacher professional identity (Barber)
- Ethic of care embedded in Codes of Professional Conduct of Teaching Council (Ireland): “As well as the legal duty of care which teachers exercise, their role as carers is central to their professional value system”

Care

- Understood in many different ways by teachers - caring as commitment, caring as relatedness, caring as physical care, caring as expressing affection, caring as parenting and caring as mothering (Vogt)
- A moral perspective
- An ethic of care understood as responsibility for and relatedness to their pupils
- Ethic of care should be an integral element of quality in teaching and in teacher education

Discourse of performativity and ‘new managerialism’

- Neo-liberalism
- Audit culture
- Removal of locus of power from practicing professionals to auditors
- Surveillance
- New? - “payment by results” 19th C. Irl
- Research on negative aspects of performative pressures in teaching
**Discourse of professionalism**
- Managerial and democratic professionalism (Sachs)
- Managerial discourse dominant
- Associated with neo-liberalism
- Involves re-organising the public sector according to ‘best’ commercial practice
- Involves ‘masculinising’ school cultures

**Democratic professionalism:**
- Emerges from the profession itself
- Relies on trust rather than performance ranking
- Emphasis on collaborative, cooperative action between teachers and other educational stakeholders

**Teacher Education, Universities and Performativity Cultures**
- Teacher education mainly located within universities in Europe
- Rise of the ‘entrepreneurial’ university
- Development of performativity, managerialism and audit cultures
- Advantages to states of performativity cultures in higher education
- Research on problems emerging
- Tensions between cultures of teacher education and performativity cultures

**Teacher Education in Changing Environments**
- Role of universities in the deepening of democracy, the fostering of social justice and the public good
- Teacher education, educational sciences, educational research a very important element of university’s role
- Role of teachers in daily lives of entire populations
- Importance of higher education in initial and continuing education (Commission of EU)

**International Policy on Teaching and Teacher Education**
- Lisbon, Bologna, Bergen implications
- Commission of EU – common principles, statement to parliament:
  - Teaching: high status, high reward, well-qualified profession with opportunity to continue studies to highest level
  - Teachers: lifelong learners who understand social cohesion and exclusion in society and ethical dimensions of the knowledge society; reflective, analytical and critical practitioners
- Teacher education: an object of research
International Policy on Teaching and Teacher Education

- OECD – Teachers Matter
- Economic competitiveness and efficiency, high quality in teaching
- Enhance the status of teaching
- Language: performativity, performance indicators, standards, evaluation and appraisal
- "Concern" at decline of males in the profession, based on supposed benefits of male role models and decline in appeal of teaching

Conclusions

- Teaching highly feminised in Europe
- Disjunction between performativity discourse and discourses integral to teaching, such as an ethic of care
- Universities now imbued with performativity cultures yet retaining university involvement in teacher education is fundamental to professional status
- Need to align professional agendas with EU policy
- Need to add an ethic of care, social justice and solidarity to teacher education policy in Europe
WORKING GROUPS COMPOSITION

WORKING GROUP 1 (Advancing Research in and on Teacher Education)

Chair: Sven Erik Hansen  
Rapporteur: Judith Hardford

I.-1. Bulunuz, M. and Jarrett, O. S.: Development of positive interest and attitudes toward science and interest in teaching elementary science: influence of inquiry methods course experiences
I.-2. Bjekić, D., Zlatić, L., Ćaprić, G.: Research (evaluation) procedures of the pre-service and in-service education of communication competent teachers
I.-3. Elton-Chalcraft, S.: How Children see Diversity, the Effects of Schooling, and Implications for Initial Teacher Education.
I.-4. Garland, P.: Action theory in Habermas and educational practices
I.-5. Kangro, A. and Kangro, I.: Recent Developments in Teacher Education in Latvia
I.-6. Loveless, A.: ‘Retooling or renaissance?’: teacher education, professional knowledge and a changing landscape
I.-10. Stewart, Y.: Mainstreaming the European Dimension into Teacher Education in England – enabling and disabling factors

WORKING GROUP 2 (Mobility and the European Dimension in Teacher Education)

Chair: Jens Rasmussen  
Rapporteurs: Eve Eisenschmidt and Erika Löfström

II-1. Ash, A. and Burgess, L.: Transition and Translation: Increasing Teacher mobility and extending the European Dimension in Education
II-5. Kevereski, L.: Professional development of teachers in the Republic of Macedonia conditions - trends
II-7. Michalak, J. and Jones, S.: The Task of Raising Social Capital and Educational Outcomes in
Highly Disadvantaged Communities in Poland and England: School Leadership Teacher Education Implications

II-8. Papadakis, N.: “The future ain’t what it used to be”. EU education policy and Teachers' Role: Sketching the political background of a paradigm shift.

II-9. Rasmussen, J.: Nordic teacher education programs in a period of transition: The end of a well established and long-lasting tradition of seminarium-based education?

II-10. Rimsane, I.: Main Trends in Foreign Languages Teacher Education in Latvia

WORKING GROUP 3 (Evaluation cultures in Teacher Education)

Chair: Sonia Blandford
Rapporteur: Vlasta Vizek Vidović

III-1. Abazi, A., Dika, Z., Kareva, V., Henshaw, H.: Enhancing the Quality of Higher Education Learning and Teaching - A Case Study from South East European University


III-3. King, S.: The introduction of M level credits to the Secondary Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) at the Institute of Education, University of London: the story so far

III-4. Odina, I.: Mentoring Courses in Enhancing Quality of Teacher Pre-service and In-service Education

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PAPERS
Teacher Education in Europe: mapping the landscape and looking to the future

Enhancing Quality through the renewal of evaluation cultures in Teacher Education

Title of the Paper:

Enhancing the Quality of Higher Education Learning and Teaching
A Case Study from South East European University

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Abstract

This case study provides an active example of how a higher educational institution has sought to enhance self-reflection, focusing on the quality of learning and teaching, staff teaching performance and training and development. The paper summarizes the key historical, socio-economic and educational factors which have shaped the current position in the university and which have influenced the university’s drive towards continuous improvement. It also refers to external guidance which has supported development. The study touches on the university’s strategies for academic staff appointment, performance management, individual and institutional processes and their influence on evaluative practice. It describes the current Teacher Education offered by the university which includes embedded pedagogical undergraduate courses linked with languages, Master’s studies in Educational Management and external training for school Directors. It demonstrates how Teacher Education is integrated with whole institution change through the development and implementation of a Teaching Observation Scheme, describing the scheme’s rationale and intended outcomes, the process of development, the pilot project and implementation and monitoring. This is intended to contribute to the debate on renewing evaluation cultures within education and to support the university’s mission of high quality teaching and learning as a key pre-condition for the university’s success within a competitive educational market.

KEY WORDS in Abstract: quality, learning, teaching, self-evaluation, observation
Introduction

‘High quality education and training are regarded as being indispensable in establishing a Europe of knowledge; in transforming European societies into dynamic learning societies; and in assisting the process of European integration for economic prosperity and social cohesion.’ Buchberger, F., Campos, B. P., Kallos, D., Stephenson, J. (2000, p. 2). High quality teachers are seen as one essential component of these educational priorities and South East European University (SEEU) provides an example of how a higher educational institution has sought to enhance critical thinking, self-reflection and evaluation as an institution both within Teacher Education and across every Faculty and Department with a specific focus on the quality of learning and teaching, staff teaching performance and training and development. This focus is endorsed by the Eurydice education network on education in Europe: ‘Concern for Quality Assurance in Teacher Education is closely linked to the broader context of the development of Higher Education and the follow up to the Bologna Process.’ Eurydice (2006, p. 3).

Background

The challenge of developing such an evaluative culture was one of many faced by the university and was not given initial priority in the circumstances surrounding the university’s opening. The first 900 students enrolled in South East European University (SEEU) in October 2001. The establishment of the university was only made possible by an amendment to the Law on Higher Education of the Republic of Macedonia which allowed instruction in the Albanian language in Higher Education for privately funded universities. Its foundation had been initiated in the spring of 2000 by the then OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities, Max van der Stoel. This so called ‘private’ higher education institution was to operate in the public interest, for academic and social purposes rather than for economic ones, and help to overcome the limited opportunities for access to higher education by native speakers of Albanian. From its establishment, it consisted of five, socio-economic and contemporary science disciplines: Business Administration, Communication Sciences and Technologies, Law, Pedagogical and Methodology Training and Public Administration.

The government supported this initiative and granted the site for the SEEU campus, but still its creation happened in very turbulent times. It was a period of armed conflict in the country, and the focus of these activities was in Tetovo where the university is based. The Council of Europe’s Report on ‘Higher Education in South Eastern Europe’ stressed the need for ‘a satisfactory solution to the issue of higher education provision in the two major languages of the country’ The main aims in this period were security, attracting and retaining students whose education had been disrupted, appointing staff with relevant academic and language skills and qualifications and the production of appropriate curricula and site development.

The country was also passing through a transition period in all spheres of existence, with great difficulties. Significantly, the student body was coming from unreformed schools with teacher-centered instruction in which memorization of facts was prioritized and with teachers being the only and ultimate source of knowledge and authority. Critical thinking skills were neither promoted nor valued. The teachers had the same educational background. They were products of the same educational system and were used to practicing it in the same traditional way. Teacher Education itself was still shaped by an ‘imbalance between the vocational-
scientific and professional-pedagogic components’ which led to ‘the future teacher studying
the scientific content but not sufficiently preparing for its modeling and application in the
teaching process (they teach physics, but are not professional in helping students cope with
Moreover, the law on Higher Education in the Republic of Macedonia, mirrored by university
policies, focused on the value of acquiring qualifications in terms of career and reward rather
than on a wider range of professional skills, including the ability to reflect critically and deliver
competently. Taking also into consideration the perception that political and family affiliation
were crucial in acquiring and keeping any position, the atmosphere was not favorable for
developing an evaluative ethos.

In both the specific and wider context, therefore, SEEU was seen as ‘a great experiment not
only in resolving an old Balkan quarrel but also introducing new ideas and methods of higher

Initial developments and external influences

Despite the challenging social, economic and educational environment, the university sought
to model itself on internationally established good practice and aspired to initiate, develop and
lead forward educational thinking within the Republic of Macedonia and the region. It has
worked towards this by both internal and external means. For example, the first teaching
offered by the university was in English Language. This was chosen purposefully in order to
foster the university’s mission on language, equality and integration and to promote new
models of learning and teaching and a change to a more interactive teaching/learning
approach. This work was supervised by Indiana University, which has been a partner of
SEEU from the very beginning. Indiana University also organized and sponsored professional
development opportunities for SEEU teaching staff, offered on site seminars led by their
professionals and facilitated visits to IU campus and student exchange. This use of external,
collaborative partners exposed SEEU to different approaches and strategies and helped to
create an environment where new ideas and concepts were considered and accepted.

The Department for Pedagogical and Methodological Training was also a part of this from the
beginning and has sought to put in practice ‘expert training whose goal is to build the
professional competency of teachers’, including the ‘nurturing of innovative spirit and creation’
and having’ a positive direction leading towards educational changes’ in which ‘human
potential involves a process which continuously gains in quality.’ Delceva Dizdarvevic, J.,
primary and secondary schools. The curricula for these studies were created in cooperation
and consultation with experts from Indiana University to be in line with the latest
developments in teacher education. Methodology courses, for example, first define
theoretically the most important pedagogical areas but then crucially, apply these theories in
practice. For example, students and teachers create forms that are used for analysis and
evaluation when they observe the language teachers in the Language Center. The purpose of
the forms is to develop in these future teachers an awareness of the necessity of critical
reflection about someone else’s teaching, and a positive commitment to self-monitoring and
self-evaluation of their own teaching at a later stage. Then, these students prepare one
language class for the students at the Language Center, with the teacher being there to
comment on their teaching. The final stage is teaching a real language class in a local
secondary school. In this way, future teachers not only learn by seeing how other teachers
are doing their job, but also get used to constant monitoring of quality as part of self and institutional improvement. It is a powerful partnership between trainee and experienced teacher based on collaboration and trust.

This modeling of an evaluative culture with future teachers is further developed through peer observation on the Master’s program in English Language Teaching. At this stage, the students, some of them being teachers already, observe their peers using the same procedure of writing comments and reflecting critically on their own teaching, through observations of somebody else’s practice.

The university also offers a successful external training program for School Directors. The Certificate Program for Professional Leadership of school directors offers a specific module on teaching observation good practice. With this, the aim is to get school directors acquainted with the benefits of the observation process and the teaching strategies they need to observe and promote. The module supports their own plus their staff’s development in critical thinking and quality management. In this way, they can implement an active observation process in the schools they manage and contribute further to creating a culture of teacher evaluation.

However, ‘initial teacher education can only provide a basis for the development of a teacher’s competencies, which may be further encouraged in the framework of in-service teacher education’; ‘neither initial nor in-service teacher education is solely responsible for creating ‘good’ teachers’. Quality control is also seen as crucial, though such measures are ‘relatively new, so their actual effectiveness and impact in maintaining and improving the quality of provision still remains unclear.’ *Eurydice (2006, p. 70).* South East European University views the development of such quality assurance and management systems as a key strategy.

**An institutional approach**

So, how does an institution such as SEEU continue this development of evaluative cultures both in its teacher education programs and with its teaching staff in general? The answer lies in the approach taken above, that is, in a commitment to training both teaching staff and managers and in developing an integrated institutional approach. The analysis and promotion of evaluative educational theories, and the teaching of how to implement these in practice within the teacher education field is of crucial importance, but it is not enough, especially in a situation where theories are often described and analyzed but not demonstrated or activated in practice, or where the implementation lacks objectively and the support of established procedures. Crucially, for the effective renewal of an evaluative culture, reflective practice must be developed and modeled across the whole organization; owned actively by the staff, students and external stakeholders not only in one department like Teacher Training but also in every other department, Faculty and section. Teachers cannot grow a reflective approach in isolation. Neither can they teach and support their students effectively using the new curriculum focus on learning outcomes which include skills, attitudes and application as well as knowledge and understanding without modeling such skills and attitudes themselves. All stakeholders are involved. A whole institution approach is also consistent with the European-wide Bologna declaration and SEEU has benefited from placing these guidelines at the centre of its function and practice. This has helped to create an institution which has equality, language diversity, high quality and evaluative practice as part of its central mission.
Strategic approaches

Thus, South East European University has committed itself to a total quality culture with evaluation and self-improvement at its heart. This is firstly a matter of strategic direction from the Rectorate. Senior managers are developing an evaluative leadership and management style. They have specifically considered advice from the University’s external Quality Champion, whose twice annual visits form key points in the annual review cycle. This quality champion elicits information from all levels of staff both formally and informally, meets with specific university bodies and the Student Union, and reports on the quality of academic, administrative and support systems. The report is published and used to identify improvements, and to initiate developments at Faculty, Departmental and University level. Just recently, the university has formalized its forward planning process with the introduction of Action Plans for all Faculties and Departments. These have been produced by Deans and Heads of Department, validated by the relevant Senior Manager, and are being monitored for successful implementation. Crucially, staff teams were asked to contribute to their production and implementation and they have proved useful in highlighting key achievements, areas for improvement and development and action planning. The plans have been evidence based, and focused on what can be achieved realistically within the academic year. The Department for Pedagogical and Methodological Training is currently implementing its own plan and the university Quality Assurance and Management Commission has itself presented an overall planning document to the Board. This has proved beneficial in focusing the university’s priorities for the year. In October, 2007, SEEU was also successfully validated under the international ISO 9000 standards which have been an effective mechanism for strengthening our evaluative procedures, particularly in administrative areas. One requirement is a procedure for effective review and change management. Thus, developments have been actively led by senior management, evaluation has been embedded in an annual review and planning cycle, and the processes devised have sought to involve all levels of staff, for use across both academic and administrative faculties and departments to create an institution-wide culture of self-improvement.

Performance management processes have also been used in order to shift the ethos of the university, keeping in mind the fact that ‘there is a risk of bureaucratic overregulation’, *Eurydice* (2006, p. 4). Practice is still primarily shaped and influenced by the requirements of the Higher Education Law and the statutes of the university which mirror this legal framework. However, developments within and beyond the legal framework are moving the university forward. An example of this is the creation and review of Job Descriptions for academic staff. The University used external facilitators in order to carry out on the ground job reviews of key positions, analyzed what they and staff themselves said about their work, and produced Job Descriptions which formalized job roles, ranking, workload and career progression. For teaching staff, they include specifics regarding effective teaching, skill in communication with and support for students and the commitment to individual and institutional review and development. This work is currently being completed for all levels of work, both academic and administrative and will be vital in providing structured evaluative management. The university is also currently re-vamping its appraisal forms and process in order to create a more active, evaluative process. Furthermore, it recently reviewed and changed its bonus scheme which until recently has been given on a ‘flat’ basis. This revised process encouraged more staff involvement against specified criteria. The review from this has been mixed, and further work may need to be done but it is seen as another step towards better staff motivation and quality
management. The value of the consultative nature of developing such quality processes and the growing confidence in review, evaluation and development is central to their being accepted and used positively.

Professional development and training has grown in importance. There has always been support and encouragement for staff to complete academic qualifications; and a focus on offering seminars, conferences, workshops and external and/or international courses in order to support high quality curriculum development, review and accreditation. However, in March 2005, the University established the Instructional Support Center (ISC) under the umbrella of the USAID-financed Higher Education Linkage Project between Indiana University (IU) and SEEU. The main goal for setting up the ISC was to create an opportunity for additional professional development of teachers working at SEEU by providing training sessions in three specific areas: English language, current teaching methodology and the incorporation of technology in teaching, IT skills (MS Excel, MS Power Point, MS Access, etc) and the usage of ANGEL software. ANGEL is an online course management software (CMT) introducing an online environment for learning and teaching. The goal was for SEEU instructors to be able to: post an online syllabus, create and edit a course calendar, upload files for student use or download student assignments from previously created drop boxes, develop online quizzes and surveys, communicate with students through ANGEL, create lessons by combining lesson elements into a logical order, track student progress, create an on-line grade book, create discussion forums, and set a time limit for assignment submission. Though ANGEL is still a fairly new tool at SEEU, the statistics indicate great success in terms of number of users over a relatively short period of time (71.63% of full-time teachers and 35.04% of part-time teachers). Zlatkovska, E. (2007). This was perceived by teachers as a useful tool for data sharing but also as mechanism for changing the approach to learning and communication with students. For the Department of Pedagogical and Methodological Training, the ISC has organized video-links with experts from Indiana University on current issues in teacher training. These and other training initiatives are linked closely to the observation process described below.

Teaching Observation – the pilot

The quality of teaching and learning in all Faculties at the university is evaluated against student achievements and a yearly student evaluation and these indicators are taken into consideration for the purposes of staff performance management, in particular with regard to contractual issues. Some informal observation of learning and teaching took place, in particular for staff new to teaching or where issues had been identified. These tended to focus on negative aspects. The university wished to move to a more positive, developmental approach for all teaching staff, in line with recommendations for ‘future teachers’ in initial teacher training in Macedonia, which was to promote the development of ‘their skills to share the fundamental knowledge with their students within the framework of their understanding and abilities.’ Delceva Dizdarvevic, J., Adamceska Damovska, S. (2007, p. 343). Thus, the aims and outcomes of how the university is developing an evaluative culture for the education of teachers both in its Teacher Education department and across the institution is clearly reflected in the creation, implementation and first review of its procedure for the Observation of Learning and Teaching which was established during the academic year 2006-7. In line with the Bologna quality assurance guidelines which require that ‘institutions should have ways of satisfying themselves that staff involved with the teaching of students are qualified and competent to do so’ European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education,
the University’s Quality Champion recommendations, *Bource, M.* (2007) and its own internal plans and Implementation Report, the university decided to focus on the enhancement of the quality of the students’ learning experience in lectures and practical workshops. This included the delivery of teaching on teacher training programs.

Academic and Administrative leaders were very clear that the rationale was:

- to support the University’s strategic aim of continuous improvement and development of learning and teaching
- to provide evidence of quality assurance at Faculty and University level
- to ensure that the students’ learning experience is of the highest quality across each Faculty
- to acknowledge excellent practice and facilitate the sharing of good practice across each Faculty and the University
- to support continuous, individual staff development
- to inform other relevant processes, specifically, the annual self-evaluation process and the allocation of staff bonuses
- to ensure that learning and teaching is inclusive and addresses the University’s commitment to equality of opportunity

This was a scheme which was to be supportive, positive, in line with the university’s mission, led and promoted by senior managers and implemented objectively in order to train and develop the whole range of teaching staff, from assistants to professors, both full and part time, in every learning setting and across all Faculties and Centers. It aimed to make a difference to the quality of learning and teaching and not merely be a management tool. This again mirrored the approach recommended for teacher training in Macedonia where the way that evaluation results were used was seen as ‘crucial for the ‘acceptance of quality control within a system’ and to avoid the danger that ‘evaluation reports may also be produced only ‘for the sake of producing them’, in order to respond to an administrative demand without having any real implications for the providers. They may not be given back to those whose work was evaluated. In this context, the way in which these results are expressed also seems quite important.’ *Eurydice* (2006, p. 69).

The findings of the research paper, ‘Teaching Observations: A Meeting of Minds?’ *Hatzipanagos, S., Lygo-Baker, S.* (2006) proved useful, specifically detailing the advantages and disadvantages of peer observation schemes and their impact on staff thinking and performance. This useful journal paper outlines current research literature, details the perceived positive and negative outcomes, compares the observers’ views with the views of the observees and draws conclusions about the most positive aspects of such schemes - the formative and developmental aspects with trust being the most important underpinning factor. The paper also offers different models of implementation and concludes that ‘observations within an educational developer observation framework (that is, with external, objective observation) do provide a time to consider knowledge and deepen understanding’. ‘All recognized the importance of constructive and supportive feedback. The formative nature of such feedback determined the attributes of the relationship between observer and observee being non-intimidating and supportive and will potentially contribute to development and improvement.’ *Hatzipanagos, S., Lygo-Baker, S.* (2006) p. 103 The positive points identified were relayed to observers and observees during training and briefing meetings, and contributed towards the formulation of the scheme at SEEU. This use of research within a
research based institution has supported the development of critical thinking and aided acceptance of the observation process.

The scheme was developed in a similar thorough and consultative manner, to meet the current situation, needs and aspirations of the university and its stakeholders. Schemes and approaches from other Higher Educational institutions and from other sectors were considered. There was initial discussion amongst the Rectorate and Faculty Deans and Pro-Deans about whether to use ‘peer’ or colleague observers, observation by senior Faculty members, or by members from other Faculties, or external observers. There was debate how to report and standardize observer judgments and whether to use a grading system or provide feedback through the use of specific language. There was further discussion about the link to performance management, to contracts of employment, the university’s bonus scheme, the right balance of teaching, research and administration in Job Descriptions. There was, very importantly, a lively debate about what would work at the university and whether staff would accept, respect and use the observation process positively. There were very specific concerns:

- Would the scheme be objective and free from personal, political and other influences?
- Would it be accepted, especially by established professors who saw their qualifications and experience as synonymous with teaching skill and felt that such a scheme was not appropriate for them?
- Would staff view observation only from a negative point of view, and as unwarranted criticism which might impact on their job security or reputation?
- Would observers have senior management backing and would they have the skills to carry out the observations with accuracy and sensitivity?
- Would it just be a paper exercise, to be used by ‘management’ as a measuring tool but without impact on actual teaching?
- Would it be logistically feasibly, given the number of staff involved, and would observers receive ‘remission’ to make the scheme workable within their existing responsibilities?
- Would reports be linked to training opportunities?
- Would the scheme be appropriate to the established ways of working within a post-communistic country?

The initiation of a pilot scheme had, if nothing else, generated a significant level of institutional reflection even without a written scheme in place, and all these points were noted in a review report and considered in the production of the draft Procedure and Forms which were circulated to the Rectorate, Faculty Deans and Pro-Deans and the university’s staff development unit, the Instructional Support Centre, for consideration and refinement in May 2007 in Albanian, Macedonian and English. The scheme provided for annual, supported observation, an optional unannounced observation; all observations co-observed; pre- and post-observation meetings, a written report supported by guidance about what language to use; a training analysis; an opportunity for observee input; and sections detailing how to deal with possible issues, observer conduct and appeals. It was agreed by all stakeholders in early June 2007 (Appendix 1).

In addition, and seen as crucial by both observers and observees, staff were provided with notes on the criteria for excellence which observers might expect to see. These were developed in grid and note form, with reference to a number of published good practice lists.
They were to be used during the pre-observation meeting to support the discussion of the lesson plan, for observers to refer to during the observation and when writing the feedback report, and again for shared use in the feedback discussion.

Templates recommended for standard use were:

- Teaching Observation – the Characteristics of Excellence (note and grid form)
- Teaching Observation Confirmation Request (an invitation form for staff)
- Lesson Plan Form (for observed lesson only)
- Teaching Observation Feedback Form
- Co-observation and Support Feedback Form
- Use of Language in Providing Teaching Observation Feedback (guidance notes which support thoughtful, accurate and standardised feedback)

The draft Procedure and Forms were circulated to all teaching staff, via Faculty managers and email, and briefing and consultation meetings were offered to each of the five faculties, with a focus on full time staff. Comments were again noted and considered.

In early June, 2007, Faculty observers and co-observers, including members of the Rectorate, received training. In all, eighteen members of staff were trained in the scheme’s context and purpose, the research base, the procedure and forms and how to produce effective feedback reports. The training sessions employed active learning techniques and evaluative opportunities to model good practice.

The pilot project then begun in earnest. Within a two week period at the end of May and the beginning of June, 2007, eleven observations took place. The draft SEEU procedure and paperwork were used and every observation was co-observed. The co-observer commented on both the lecturer’s performance and on the objectivity of the process. The observees included professors, assistants and one international member of staff, and included both new and experienced teachers. Feedback was given to the observee within the proscribed five day time limit, recognizing good practice and identifying areas for development and/or training. Observees were invited to participate actively in the feedback and to note their comments on the Feedback Form. Copies of each report were provided to the observee, observer, the Faculty and to the Rectorate for overall quality assurance. Copies were also seen by the Instructional Support Centre, and formed a basis for identifying professional development needs. This resulted in the circulation of a Needs Analysis Training Menu and in the development of training sessions in 2007-8.

At the end of the pilot, both observers and observees were asked to evaluate the procedure and a report was published in three languages. Comments included:

- An endorsement of the procedure so that its use for 2007-8, with some minor adjustments, could be confirmed;
- Confirmation that the forms were easy to use and supported useful, evaluative feedback;
- Full acknowledgement that the pilot process was operated objectively;
- A very high level of satisfaction with observer training, with useful evaluative comments;
9 out of 11 observees made comments on their Feedback Forms indicating a willingness to participate in the feedback process. Most observee comments endorsed the useful of the process and what individuals had learned, but some staff used the opportunity to put their point of view or disagree.

Positive and useful evaluation responses by observers and observees. Specifically, they stated that the paperwork and criteria for excellence supported the observer and one-co-observer felt that the pilot process had helped with identifying and dealing with potential problems. The observees stated that they felt the process had been supportive and helpful in acknowledging their good practice, boosting confidence, and in identifying areas for development. One or two pointed out that they had felt nervous and that they would almost have preferred not to know that anyone was coming. All observers and observees felt that the pre-observation, observation and post-observation elements were all useful, but the observees said that the post-observation feedback was the most valuable part. Observers also stated that they had gained valuable insights during the process. Observers felt that continued central support was needed in order to operate the process effectively next year. Mechanisms for sharing good practice and identifying staff training needs should be developed in Faculties and across the University. Further consideration also needs to be given to use of languages in the pre-observation and post-observation process to ensure that detailed feedback is received which is accurate and mutually understood.

Useful critical comment resulted in adaptations to the scheme for 2007-8 which also raised awareness of possible future issues, for example, with the standardisation of judgements and the workload of observers.

Operation in 2007-8

In the four months since the start of the 2007-8 academic year the observation procedure has operated fully for both full and part time academic staff (293 in total, 149 full time and 144 part time teaching staff). The university has sought to implement the scheme positively, with careful attention to detail and staff and Faculty requirements. Thus, all staff were re-notified in September about the process and each Faculty was again offered the opportunity to discuss the process with lead people and staff teams. The names of all Faculty observers were confirmed with the Rectorate and a small number of new observers were trained using the same materials and active follow-up. To ensure that staff knew the scheme was fair and equal, a schedule was drawn up and circulated which identified an observation date for each member of staff in the first semester and provided notification to those staff who would be observed in the second semester. Careful consideration was given to the co-observation schedule to ensure that the ‘external’ observers worked equally between faculties, faculty observers and levels of observed staff. Individual issues concerning sensitivity to rank and expertise were resolved with the aim of maximizing the usefulness of the process.

In all, 100 feedback records were received from mid-October until the end of December 2007, including Professors, Assistants, two Deans out of five and one Pro-Rector (34% of staff total). These were spread across every Faculty, including 26 from the Department of Pedagogical and Methodological Training. Each person was given the opportunity to talk about their lesson plan in advance of the lesson, with the criteria for excellence, and to discuss their syllabus, roster and other records and therefore to feel well supported and prepared. A small number of observations were delayed or postponed because staff were not prepared or because of sickness or the unavailability of observers. Feedback meetings
(sometimes with the main observer and sometimes accompanied by the co-observer) took place in most cases. Written reports, using carefully advised language, were provided to observees and 31 lecturers took the opportunity to add their own comments, about the process and with regard to their feedback. Copies of these reports were given to the observee, observer, a copy lodged in a quality folder in each Faculty and copies logged centrally for quality assurance and monitoring purposes. There has been 1 re-observation because the first one was less than satisfactory and this have resulted in improved observed performance. Other re-observations are planned from the first semester. There have been 3 disputed observation reports which were followed up with central support. Summary information concerning the observations has been logged including the number of observations carried out by each observer (Table I). A first semester review has been produced which provides a teaching observation profile (Chart I) An observee questionnaire was also circulated and the responses analyzed.

Table I – Completion of Observations by Observers from October to December 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Observer</th>
<th>No. of observations (from Quality Assurance and Management Office records to 14.01.08)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observer A</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer B</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer C</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer D</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer E</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer F</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer G</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer H</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer I</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer J</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer K</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer L</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer M</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer N</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer O</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer P</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer Q</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer R</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observer S</td>
<td>2 (plus 18 co-obs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Each Faculty was presented with a breakdown of their own observation profile. Below is the example from the Pedagogical and Methodological Training Faculty (Chart II).

Chart II - Example Faculty Observation Profile

Faculty of Pedagogical and Methodological Training
The review has indicated the following:

- Compliance with the requirements and spirit of the procedure has been good but there are a number of issues about the operation of the process which will need to be addressed by discussion and further training and support for observers. These issues are partly to do with availability and workload and may partly be accounted for by the current level of commitment within a culture that believes processes can be circumvented or completed ‘on paper’ without maximizing their value and usefulness.

- The teaching observation profile indicates a small number of outstanding lessons and a small number of unsatisfactory sessions which the majority of observations being satisfactory or good or a mixture. This indicates that there is a solid base of competency but that there is plenty of room for further reflection, training and development.

- With regard to lecturer comments, 41 members of staff out of 100 observed wrote something on their feedback form. 10 commented on the process, mostly positively. 18 noted how they might improve as a result of the process which demonstrated that this had contributed to active self-evaluation. 15 made self-justifying comments which implied that they did not feel that they had learned anything which would improve their teaching skills.

- Key areas for training were identified including lesson planning with specific objectives and student activities, questioning techniques, management of large size lectures to maximize concentration and participation, quality use of resources.

Questionnaires about the procedure were received from six members of staff. This low response rate may indicate a lack of interest or willingness to complete the form but it was issued at the end of the semester and further forms may still be received. Staff were asked to comment in one of three languages on the process, on the relative value of the main parts of the procedure, how it had helped their practice, whether it was supportive, training identified, would they recommend it to other colleagues and other comments. All expressed positive support for the process and 4 out of 6 indicated that it had helped with their practice, although there was a focus on improving weaknesses rather than recognizing good practice. All felt the process had been supportive and would recommend it to colleagues. Critical comments included points on the efficiency of the system, the experience and abilities of the observers and the quality of the pre- and post-observation advice.

What is also very important is the contribution the procedure has made to the quality of learning and teaching and its effectiveness in helping to shift the university’s culture and ethos. Whilst it has been in operation only for a short time, the following benefits may be identified:

- the successful introduction of a formal, evaluative procedure which supports both individual, critical thinking and institutional quality assurance;
- a greater focus on what makes excellent teaching in a higher education institution which can be shared across all Faculties including teacher training;
- lively debate amongst academic staff, for example, about what is possible in a large size lecture as opposed to a small, practical group;
useful support for the development of management skills in being able to observe, evaluate and accurately describe teaching practice, and more actively manage staff performance;

- Identification of good practice seen and increased opportunity to share and discuss teaching strategies, for example, from follow-up Faculty training workshops and summary guidance notes circulated;
- Additional evidenced follow-up where teaching was seen as unsatisfactory;
- a greater awareness of issues still to be tackled, for example, reviewing some syllabi, some student results;
- increased individual opportunity for self-reflection in a supportive, non-intimidating environment;
- feedback meetings which have acted as training sessions for staff; and the identification of other general training needs, for example, the use of questioning techniques;
- a positive response from students to the scheme, including a request for any reports to be made available to the Student Union Executive;
- Support for other processes, for example, appraisal, staff bonus scheme, the development of Job Descriptions for Academic Staff.

Conclusions - Evaluation and lessons learned

South East European University has had to face serious challenges, deal with rapid development within a transitional educational system and lead and motivate its staff to aspire to the highest quality within and beyond the current culture and educational mentality. It has made the enhancement of the quality of its provision and its staff a central part of its strategy and has recognized that using evaluative mechanisms to create a real learning community is the key to success. It believes that an evaluative approach must be integrated into the whole institution and that all procedures and stakeholders must be actively involved. The link between quality and the continued success of the institution is recognized as is the importance of the ethos of the university with its commitment to inspiring its staff and students with the motivation to learn and the desire for lifelong self-development.

The introduction and initial implementation of the Annual Observation of the Learning and Teaching Process has demonstrated that a carefully constructed and thoughtfully implemented procedure can be an agent for change towards a more evaluative culture. The aim was to combine an effective tool for quality management with a system which would improve teaching practice within a positive and supportive environment. In order to do this successfully, the procedure should involve some key characteristics:

- The purpose and use of any procedure must be clear and explicitly agreed and communicated to all participants, for example, whether it is for internal or external measurement, for institutional or personal development, and how it is related to performance management processes.
- In a research-orientated institution, it is useful to consider relevant research and to analyze other procedures and systems, but then adopt a model which is tailored to institutional and staff need.
- It is imperative that evaluation must be evidence based, specific, measurable and achievable and that staff understand the criteria that they will be observed against.
• Effective consultation, communication and review involving all participants maximizes effectiveness;
• Teaching staff should be encouraged to evaluate their teaching in a reflective way and need be willing to discuss their teaching and accept constructive advice for the process to work. This is part of a process of developing both staff and manager’s skills in analysis and evaluation.
• Staff in the Pedagogical and Methodological Faculty need to ‘model’ the good practice and strategies they teach in theory, and be able to share the benefits of their expertise across the institution.
• Approaches to teaching must mirror the learning outcomes in the new curricula delivered to students in terms of skills, application and attitudes as well as knowledge.
• Evaluation is a skill, honed by gaining a qualification, but not necessarily sufficiently developed as part of that qualification. New skills and techniques for teaching need to be learned and should be continually developed and reviewed.

South East European University is an individual example of how an institution can progress towards renewing evaluative cultures so that what we do is of the highest quality and how we try to inspire the teachers we train, the lecturers in every faculty and the students we teach.
REFERENCES


Appendix 1

Annual observation of the learning and teaching process

1. Background

One of the most significant factors in ensuring that we are continuously improving and developing what we are providing to students is the quality of our teaching. There is a great deal of good teaching and learning within the University. We need to ensure that we are sharing good practice and supporting staff in the continuous development of skills and methodology.

2. Purpose

The focus of the observation process is:

- to support the University’s strategic aim of continuous improvement and development of learning and teaching
- to provide evidence of quality assurance at Faculty and University level
- to ensure that the students’ learning experience is of the highest quality across each Faculty
- to acknowledge excellent practice and facilitate the sharing of good practice across each Faculty and the University
- to support continuous, individual staff development
- to inform other relevant processes, specifically, the annual self-evaluation process and the allocation of staff bonuses
- to ensure that learning and teaching is inclusive and addresses the University’s commitment to equality of opportunity

3. What should be observed?

As far as possible, a range of all the activities which constitute ‘teaching’ should be observed. This could be lectures, small group lessons, practical classes and classes in specialist rooms. The observer and observee will agree on the most appropriate session when they confirm observation dates.

4. Frequency of Observation
All staff will be observed once per year as part of the formal, supported process. Each Faculty may consider other ways of supporting learning and teaching, such as colleague observation, shared workshop sessions, good practice guidelines, training.

Staff who are newly engaged to teach at the University will have two supported observations, using the University scheme and proformas.

Observers should also carry out an additional un-announced observation for each member of staff during the academic year, in order to monitor teaching delivery, or follow-up on issues discussed during the formal, supported observation.

5. **Who will do the observations?**

- The Deans and the Pro-Dean for Academic Issues in each Faculty, with Deans coordinating the process. In order to ensure that the process is carried out effectively, each Faculty must nominate the observers annually and this will be agreed by the Pro-Rector for Academic Issues. This annual process may include alternative or other nominations for observers as appropriate.
- The Pro-Rector for Academic Issues or Rectorate nominees.
- Staff in the Instructional Support Centre with pedagogical expertise will co-observe in order to support the process and to collaborate with the Faculties in producing a coherent staff development plan and in disseminating good teaching practice.

NOTE: All staff will undergo training prior to carrying out observations or being observed

6. **Support and monitoring process**

Where possible, it is recommended that two people carry out each observation and

- all new observers will be supported by co-observation in the first year
- a percentage of observers will be supported by co-observation annually
- all re-observations will be supported by co-observation

7. **Can a lecturer object to an observer?**

It is anticipated that such situations will happen only in exceptional circumstances.

However, for the process to be effective there needs to be some trust and credibility between the observer and the observee. For this reason, if a lecturer objects to a particular observer, they should put these concerns in writing and discuss them with their Dean so that the Faculty can address the issue. If no satisfactory outcome is reached, then the matter should be referred to the Pro-Rector for Academic Issues, who may be asked to carry out the observation. A member of staff from the Instructional Support Centre or from outside the Faculty may also be asked to co-observe in such circumstances.

The choice of which class is observed rests with the observer but is subject to final agreement with the member of staff being observed.

8. **How much notice will be given?**
Observers will plan observation dates with staff well in advance but at least 5 working days notice of the observation must be given.

9. **The length and conduct of the observation**

Observations will last for between 45 to 60 minutes.

With prior agreement, either the observer or observee should explain to the students what is happening so that they understand and are comfortable with the process. During the observation, the observer should place themselves so that they can see what is going on but should not interfere in any way with the lesson, except on exceptional grounds where health and safety is threatened.

Where appropriate and practicable (for example, during practical lessons or where there is group work or project activity) the observer may look at students’ work. At the end of the lesson, they may discuss the lesson with students.

10. **Will there be an opportunity to discuss the observation beforehand?**

It is essential that the observer meets with the observee before the observation to:

- discuss criteria to be used
- discuss the session plan for the observed lesson
- review documentation, for example, syllabus, student roster, records, bibliographies
- discuss any issues relating to the session/group/learner evaluation/students needing support
- clarify any organisational issues
- establish a time for feedback to be given

11. **How will feedback be given?**

The feedback meeting will take place as soon as possible and within 5 working days of the observation, and will take the form of a written Feedback Report and a dialogue between the observer and the observee. This should be conducted within a confidential and mutually respectful environment with the aim of recognising good practice and developing individual teaching skills. The details of this feedback remain confidential between the observer and observee. The report and dialogue will cover areas of strength, areas of development/action points, and staff development needs. The observee may add their own comments concerning the observation and then the Feedback Report will be signed by both observer and observee to confirm that the process has been completed and accepted.

**What happens if there is no agreement on the feedback?**

This should happen only on very rare occasions, but where there remains a difference of view or interpretation between the observer and the observee, then the observer’s comments are final but the observee may attach his/her comments to the record of the observation. If the observer and co-observer fail to agree on the feedback even after discussion, this should be referred to the Pro-Rector for Academic issues for resolution prior to feedback to the observee.
12. Follow up action and support

It is important that if the aims of improving the quality of students' learning experience, of sharing good practice and of supporting staff to facilitate learning are to be achieved, that comprehensive and accessible support is put into place, such as:

- an ongoing programme of professional development on Learning and Teaching, provided both by the Faculty and the Instructional Support Centre. All staff should be offered access to relevant professional development opportunities but if training is identified as essential on the Teaching Observation Feedback Report Form, then attendance and follow-up will be mandatory.

- support provided by the Dean's Office or a colleague

- where training needs have been identified and are common to several staff, specific group training

- good practice reports, workshops and team meetings

13. Where does the record of observation go?

The record of observation and any action points will be held by the Dean in a confidential Quality Assurance Folder in each Faculty. The observer and observee will retain a copy and a copy will be sent to the Pro-Rector for Academic Studies for quality assurance purposes. These will be checked centrally by the ISC for training issues. With co-observations, the Instructional Support Centre or other co-observers will retain copies of notes made and may forward these to the Dean of the relevant Faculty and to the Pro-Rector for Academic issues in confidence.

14. What happens if the session observed is inadequate?

The observer and the observee will discuss the significant areas where there is need for development and an action plan/time scale will be drawn up, including support to be provided. Staff will be supported by:

- The Dean’s office and/or other relevant subject specialists
- the Instructional Support Centre

A re-observation will be carried out by the Dean or Pro-Rector for Academic Issues or a Rectorate nominee, co-observed by the Instructional Support Centre. The timing of this observation will reflect the nature of support identified. However, this would normally be within 8 weeks. The procedures for the second observation will be the same as those used for the first observation with the following difference:-

- The written feedback/action points produced following the first observation will be discussed during the pre-observation meeting.
In those instances where teaching performance remains inadequate following a second observation, then the issue will be referred to the Pro-Rector for Academic Issue for a decision about further support or action. As a last resort, the Pro-Rector for Academic issues may refer the matter to the Rector for contract review. This will only happen in exceptional circumstances and after a support process has been exhausted.

15. Relevant Documentation

The following guidance and forms should be used as part of the process:

- Teaching Observation – the Characteristics of Excellence (note and grid form)
- Teaching Observation Confirmation Request
- Lesson Plan Form (for observed lesson only)
- Teaching Observation Feedback Form
- Co-observation and Support Feedback Form
- Use of Language in Providing Teaching Observation Feedback (guidance notes)

16. Comment and Review

This procedure will be overseen by the Pro-Rector for Academic Issues, in liaison with the Deans of Faculty and the Instructional Support Centre. Staff will be consulted and trained on its implementation and review.

It will be reviewed annually so that it remains active and effective. Staff should make constructive comments (confidential if preferred) via their Faculty Dean or the Rector for Academic Issues for consideration.
Transition and Translation: Increasing Teacher mobility and extending the European Dimension in Education

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Abstract
This paper draws together the experience of tutors and students who took part in an inter-institutional pilot project between the secondary initial teacher education (ITE) course at the Institute of Education (IoE), University of London, England and the Faculty of Education, University of Turku, Finland. The project set out to examine critically the pedagogic approaches of the two institutions, share reflections and identify possible implications for future practice. Finland was selected because of its excellent educational achievement in comparison with other European countries; namely, the fact that it continues to excel in the PISA ratings (OECD, 2001; OECD, 2004; OECD, 2007). IoE participants were keen to identify both the pedagogic and cultural reasons for this success and consider how this could both challenge and inform Beginning Teachers’ (BTs) developing pedagogic practice.

Turku has a higher proportion of ethnic minority pupils in its school population than any other city in Finland and this number is set to increase. Therefore ITE tutors (IT) at Turku University are keen to understand how they can enable student teachers to develop their pedagogic practice in response to this changing cultural context. They believe that what happens in Turku will inform future policies and practices in other parts of the country where immigration continues to increase but at a slower pace. It is their perception that IoE student teachers working in London’s multi-ethnic schools are developing a more secure understanding of interculturalism and could help their Finnish counterparts identify relevant pedagogic strategies in response to their changing school population - a transition in their practice.

This paper reflects critically on the first part of this pilot project namely the observations of learning and teaching in Turku ‘Normal’ School by IoE students and tutors. These initial observations are informed by a comparative study carried out by IoE students highlighting their developing understanding of the relationship between pedagogy and political/social/economic ‘drivers’ in the development of educational policies and practices - a translation of different experiences.

Key words: Initial Teacher Education, pedagogic practice, student mobility, Europe and cultural context

As with football, we in the UK find it hard to accept we might be middling in international education comparisons. But now that the latest Programme for International Student Assessment (Pisa) survey shows that this is the case - in maths and science as well as reading - it is time to start taking a measured interest in what we could learn from other countries. (Hirst, 2007)

When we started writing this paper in December 2007 we had just received the news that the UK’s rating in the 2006 OECD Pisa survey of 15 year olds in 57 countries had dropped significantly from 7th to 17th in reading, 8th to 24th in mathematics and from 4th to 14th in science. As a result we were presented with these dispiriting newspaper headlines:

- OECD gives UK teenagers only ‘average’ marks. (Turner, 2007)
- Britain slumps in world league table for maths and reading. (Woodward, 2007)
- UK plummets in world rankings for maths and reading. (Lipsett, 2007)
- Reading and maths standards falling in Britain, says OECD. (McSmith, 2007)
- UK children plummet down science league table. (Taylor, 2007)

A few weeks later as we agreed the final draft we were confronted with this image and headline emblazoned across the front page of another national newspaper - painting an even grimmer picture of our urban schools.

Plate 1 The Observer newspaper
Knife scanners at school gates to curb attacks
Airport-style metal detectors will be installed at hundreds of school gates under sweeping measures to confront the growing problem of teenage knife crime. (Townsend, 2008)
Middling, mediocre and menacing

It seems that state education in the UK is not only middling and mediocre but also menacing! Inner-city comprehensive schools rarely get a good press indeed urban schools\textsuperscript{ii} are often vilified by the Media. Clearly some of this can be dismissed as ‘media hype’ even ‘moral panic’, nevertheless such constant criticism can be both demoralizing and de-motivating for teachers - especially beginning teachers (BTs)\textsuperscript{iii}. The view that journalists present is typically sensational and often superficial. However, it is also insidiously powerful in the way that it influences the attitudes and values of the general public\textsuperscript{iv}. It is hardly surprising that UK teachers are rarely afforded the respect and trust enjoyed by some of their counterparts in other European countries.

This pilot project afforded the opportunity for IoE Tutors and BTs to experience first-hand learning and teaching in Finland - the country our Media defines as ‘top of the Global Class… among the super powers of education’. (BBC, 2007)

And muddled and misguided

Peter Mortimore (2007) claims that there is no coherent philosophy among policymakers in the UK suggesting that they remain unsure whether they want to promote an education system that continues to focus on young people who are ‘socially, economically and culturally advantaged and find learning easy’, or whether they want to enable as many young people as possible to succeed. He points out how:

Discussions of this issue often reveal a deep division between those who passionately believe that more must mean worse - whether in relation to the proportions passing exams or gaining university places - and those who believe that many more could succeed and that equity is as important a goal as high academic standards. (Mortimer, 2007)

Mortimore suggests that educators should examine the system in Finland where no such divisions exist. He claims that it is the Finnish system's twin objectives of securing adequate equity in education and the promotion of high standards as the reasons why it achieves such high PISA ratings; objectives that ensure that its average and below-average pupils achieve results gained by the most able in other countries (ibid).

There is evidence to suggest that UK policymakers recognise the value of
‘twinning’ these objectives. For example, the 2020 Vision the Report of the Teaching and Learning (Gilbert, 2006) insists that in the UK, schools, local and national government need to work together towards a society in which:

- a child’s chances of success are not related to his or her socio-economic background, gender or ethnicity
- education services are designed around the needs of each child, with the expectation that all learners achieve high standards.


However, despite these initiatives, segregation and class division have historically been, and still remain, endemic (and well rehearsed) (Ball, 2003b; Apple, 2004; Reay, 2005). We suggest that this is not really a muddle, a lack of clarity from the government, but a deliberate attempt to ‘reshape’ education to support the now dominant neo-liberal economic policies. Stephen Ball (2007) draws attention to the impact of (post)-neoliberalism on UK state education; he defines this as the shift away from state control to a ‘deregulation, liberalisation and privatisation’ (Ball, 2007). He explains how private sector intervention into state education championed by consecutive Conservative Governments in the 1970s and 1980s resulted in Local Management for Schools (LMS), Compulsory Competitive Tendering, City Technology Colleges (CTC) and regulated by a restrictive and often punitive inspection regime - all promoting an education system predicated on a market led culture. In the wake of this, during the 1990s the ‘New’ Labour Government introduced their ‘Third Way’, an approach that is:

much more interventionist and considerably more managerialist. Outcomes remain the focus but they are now constituted as targets and benchmarks. (Ball, 2007)

Ball cites Giroux (1992) who describes this same approach in the USA as ‘steering at a distance’:

It allows the state to insert itself deeply into the culture, practices and subjectivities of public sector organisations and their workers, without appearing to do so. It changes meaning; its delivers re-design and ensures
‘alignment’. It objectifies and commodifies public sector work: the knowledge work of educational institutions is rendered into ‘outputs’, ‘levels of performance’ and ‘forms of quality’, that is this process of objectification contributes more generally to the possibility of thinking about social services like education as forms of production, as ‘just like’ services of other kind and other kinds of production. The ‘soft’ services like teaching which require ‘human interaction’ are re-made to be just like the ‘hard’ services (book supply, transport, catering, instructional media). They are standardised, calculated, qualified and compared. More generally performativity works to edge public sector organisations into a convergence with the private sector. (Ball, 2007)

This ‘Third Way’ advocates ‘flexibility’, ‘growth’, ‘creativity’ and ‘enterprises’ that work in ‘partnership’. Much is made of consumer ‘choice’ but this choice has produced consequences that have impacted on those who have less opportunity to choose. One consequence of the neo-liberal agenda in the UK is the highly politicised and publicised effect of ‘parent choice’.

Privilege and Parental Choice

International comparison has shown, English schools are more socially differentiated than any in Europe. Some hardly warrant the description of ‘comprehensive’ at all, thanks to the parental choice policies pursued by successive governments. They may even be more socially stratified than the old grammar schools and secondary moderns they replaced.(TES, 2002)

Within the UK the number of different types of schools is complex and confusing: public, private, independent, grammar, comprehensive, grant maintained. Within state ‘comprehensive’ secondary education there exist: Academies and City Technology Colleges (independently funded state secondary schools), Specialist Schools (85% of all schools have a specialist status), Faith Schools, Foundation Schools, Community Schools, Grammar Schools, Fresh Start, Beacon and Leading Edge Schools - the list goes on. While some parents seek out single sex schools or single denominational (Faith)
schools, others move location to secure a place for their child at a state comprehensive school that ranks high in National League Tables, still others (7%) are prepared to pay high fees to send their children to independent schools outside the state maintained sector.

Gorard and Fitz (Gorad and Fitz, 2006) caution against uncritical assertions that parental choice automatically leads to ‘the polarization of schools, with those in more working class areas sucked in to a spiral of decline’ (MacLeod, 2001). However, in line with others (Ball, 2003a; Power, 2004; Reay, 2005) we believe ‘parental choice’, largely remains the privilege of those who have the cultural capital to work their way through this complexity or the economic capital to buy their way out of it. Such choices are too often based on self-interest rather than altruism. This can be seen to reinforce inequality and class social divisions, equity remains undervalued and there is still a stark gap between the achievement of pupils in affluent and deprived communities. Add to this league tables, Ofsted Inspections, and the constant assessment of young people against externally set national standards (starting at the seven years of age) and the result is a system where:

…school performance is more important than student involvement in that it doesn’t matter how students “feel” about their education as long as they end up with the necessary qualifications. (Power et al., 2004)

All this makes it difficult to see how Gilbert’s Vision for 2020 or other recent Government drives such as Community Cohesion (DFES, 2007) can be made to fit into a system predicated on a divided and divisive top-down approach to education. Given this somewhat ‘dystopic’ view of the situation in the UK, the opportunity afforded by this project to visit Finland and witness first hand how they maintained the balance between equity and achievement was received with enthusiasm.

**Pilot project aims**

The overall aim was, in line with the Bologna Declaration 1999, to promote a ‘European dimension …in HE through curricula, inter-institutional co-operation and mobility schemes for both students and teachers’ (EHEA, 1999). The
project set out to provide new stimulus for the PGCE course (for both BTs and ITs) and to develop:

- tutor skills in another socio-cultural context
- knowledge and understanding of teacher training in another European country building on links already established with the IoE
- a European experience to inform pedagogy and practice on the PGCE course
- research collaborations between the two Universities; and enable Further Professional Development for the IoE tutors in an innovative way
- the role of the PGCE in the IoE’s International Strategy - marketing and recruitment
- two actions of the Bologna declaration: the second cycle (Master) and the system of accumulation and transfer of credits which could contribute to the current re-modelling agenda

One of the main vehicles for achieving the pilot’s aims and objectives was to send IoE ITs and BTs on a weeklong visit to Turku University. The focus of the visit for both ITs and BTs was to be comparative. The visit took place in January 2007 and was intended to generate a number of opportunities for all parties based around a simple pattern of:

- visiting training in Turku University
- visiting trainees in Turun normaalikoulu Turku University’s training school
- meetings BTs, ITs and school staff to discuss and share experiences and insights.

The early discussions at Turku University enabled us to identify similarities and differences between the two countries’ teacher training systems, below is a summary (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contrasting Structure of Initial Teacher Education</th>
<th>London</th>
<th>Turku</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate course (90 credits towards a 180 credit MA)</td>
<td>Integrated with Degree Master qualification a pre-requisite for teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive 1 year course (36 weeks) addressing clearly defined Standards</td>
<td>Less intensive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two placements in contrasting ‘partnership’ schools Total of 24 weeks in school, 9-11hrs teaching per week.</td>
<td>Single placement in a ‘Normal’ (university training) school Teaching organised more flexibly to meet individual needs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successful completion of an Induction year is required before full QTS is conferred</td>
<td>No induction year but an emphasis on continuing professional development (CPD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on subject studies, pedagogy &amp; wider professional issues (Inclusion, equal opportunities, school and the community, learning beyond the classroom, citizenship)</td>
<td>Focus on subject studies and pedagogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gap between sociology of education/research in education and Initial Teacher Education. The former influencing policy the latter mainly limited to small scale action research projects</td>
<td>Gap between education and teacher training within the university - different faculties with former much more likely to be involved in funded research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Contrast in Teacher Education
IoE Student Teachers

Interested BTs were asked to write a short statement saying why they wanted to be involved in the project and how they thought they would develop personally and professionally from this engagement. Predictably, most claimed that they were interested to find out why Finland achieves such ‘high ranking OECD PISA ratings’ and to ‘identify the pedagogic and cultural differences that made such high standards possible’, others said they were keen to ‘observe teaching in another EU education system’ and ‘to have the opportunity to compare and contrast English and Finnish ITE programmes’. They thought it would ‘provide insights,’ ‘prompt questions’ and ‘unsettle assumptions’ and ‘help encourage them to critically reflect on their own developing pedagogic practice by testing it out in a system that was unfamiliar to them’. Other reasons they identified were ‘to experience its extreme climate’, ‘identify the extent to which Finnish design had an impact on individuals and environments’, ‘visit the home of Nokia and the Moomins’ and ‘have a real sauna (complete with outdoor ice plunge-pool!) and go to a proper ice hockey match’.

A total of 9 students were selected, 3 from each of the following subjects: Art & Design, Business & Economics and Mathematics. The intention of the pilot project was to encourage students to respond critically to their (5 days) experience in a Finnish University Partnership Training School (‘Normal School’). Tutors worked alongside students, observing learning and teaching and participating in discussions, they were keen not to establish a hierarchy and kept interventions to a minimal; aware of the power relations implicit in any student-tutor relationship they acted as ‘critical friends’ questioning BTs’ initial perceptions and encouraging further critical analysis. All the students were encouraged to keep reflective diaries, share perceptions with each other and to discuss their developing understanding with host students. On the final day they presented their reflections/findings to the host students and tutors. These are summarised in the following chart (Table 2):
### London BTs’ Findings and Observations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Turku</th>
<th>London</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Structure</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>School Lesson</strong></td>
<td>Pupils remain together in the same comprehensive schools from the age of 7–16 (with Class teachers till 11; subject teacher 13-16)&lt;br&gt;Emphasis on ‘didactics’ at beginning of lessons&lt;br&gt;Freedom and flexibility&lt;br&gt;Relaxed pace&lt;br&gt;Responsive to local needs</td>
<td>School starts at age 5/Nursery from 3/ Sure Start&lt;br&gt;Four key stages between 5-16&lt;br&gt;Pupils move to secondary schools at age 11&lt;br&gt;Formulaic approach e.g. increasing emphasis on a three-part lesson structure&lt;br&gt;Informed by National Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Differentiation</strong></td>
<td>Setting by interest&lt;br&gt;Personalised learning embedded&lt;br&gt;SEN – focuses on re-integration&lt;br&gt;No scheme for G&amp;T</td>
<td>Setting by ability&lt;br&gt;Prescribed, imposed by central government e.g. Gifted and Talented (G&amp;T)&lt;br&gt;Individual Learning Plans (IEP)&lt;br&gt;Monitoring and tracking&lt;br&gt;Personalised Learning Streaming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural diversity</strong></td>
<td>Displays reference local, national and European concerns&lt;br&gt;No evidence that content of teaching takes into account cultural diversity except 2nd language teaching&lt;br&gt;Evidence of diverse pupil intake</td>
<td>Multicultural displays&lt;br&gt;Cultural diversity informs teaching&lt;br&gt;Ethnically diverse intake wide range of cultural and religious backgrounds&lt;br&gt;1st, 2nd, 3rd generation immigrants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environment</strong></td>
<td>Open, ‘soft’ community spaces within the school&lt;br&gt;ICT used more judiciously and usually in computer labs</td>
<td>Victorian moving towards ‘Schools of the Future’&lt;br&gt;Rush towards new technology – but still grappling with relevant pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assessment and accountability</strong></td>
<td>Test free zone!!&lt;br&gt;Focus on Formative, Self-evaluation &amp; Ipsative&lt;br&gt;Negotiated between teacher and pupil&lt;br&gt;Relaxed, less stressful&lt;br&gt;Accountable to parents&lt;br&gt;No numerical grades - in fact prohibited by law until Matriculation!</td>
<td>Highly structured and regulated Assessment at ages 5, 7, 11,14,16,18 results inform league tables published in national and local press&lt;br&gt;Paperwork burdensome&lt;br&gt;Tensions, pressure to achieve for both teachers and pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School ethos/atmosphere</strong></td>
<td>No uniform&lt;br&gt;Self motivated&lt;br&gt;Pupils keen to learn - empowered&lt;br&gt;Communities&lt;br&gt;Relaxed&lt;br&gt;Negotiation&lt;br&gt;Confident</td>
<td>Range from highly competitive to more community focused but always with a focus on results – testing &amp; accountability&lt;br&gt;Some schools segregated on grounds of religion, sex and class. Increasing emphasis on uniformity – dress code, keep left, keep off the grass, don’t touch, be on time&lt;br&gt;Under surveillance – police/camera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relationships</strong>&lt;br&gt;Teachers and Parents, Teachers and Government, Teachers and Pupils, Teachers and wider Society</td>
<td>Teachers are trusted to be professionals. Allowed the freedom to develop curricula in response to perceived local needs.&lt;br&gt;Teachers self regulating&lt;br&gt;National curriculum forms the basis but is open to wide interpretation&lt;br&gt;Parents respect teachers&lt;br&gt;No threat of Inspections&lt;br&gt;Valuing of the teaching qualification as something transferable – relevant to other professional occupations&lt;br&gt;Good pupil attendance</td>
<td>Assessment has a high profile Accountability&lt;br&gt;Clearly defined National Curriculum Programmes of study&lt;br&gt;Continuous monitoring&lt;br&gt;Swamped with paperwork&lt;br&gt;Evidence based - criterion referencing&lt;br&gt;Teachers under enormous pressure&lt;br&gt;OFSTED: inspections HMI by senior management, LEAs, student self-evaluations&lt;br&gt;Peer reviews&lt;br&gt;Teacher undervalued – low status&lt;br&gt;Pupil truancy high in some areas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 BT observations
It is important to point out that we did not go to Finland with a finely honed research question, rather we saw the visit as a pilot that would enable us to identify how we might engage in collaborative research in the future. Emphasis was placed on the experiential and the dialogic with observation, reflection and discussion informing BTs' initial findings. This 'grounded' approach (Charmaz, 2003) helped to develop an understanding of the holistic overview or big picture, whilst the reflection in and on action (Schon, 1983) pointed towards a need for a more detailed, 'fine-grained analysis', informed by contextual information.

It is anticipated that each cycle of this project (this is only the pilot stage) will elicit various kinds of data which will help to build a 'richer' understanding. As Ryan and Bernard (2003) point out the power of this type of ethnography lies in its embrace of context, complexity, meaning, and emphasis on the everyday lives of individuals (and in this case the IoE/Turku teachers/tutors). What is more, there is a looseness to this approach, which begins with a broad-brush approach and gradually produces more focused questions based on insights which arise within the particular research context. It is:

… an iterative process by which the analyst becomes more and more “grounded” in the data and develops increasingly richer concepts and models of how the phenomenon being studied really works. (Ryan and Bernard, 2003)

**Educational Pilgrims?**

We were aware that our visit to Finland could be seen as just part of a steady stream of ‘educational pilgrims’ keen to get a first hand look at how Finland has ‘created a well-performing education system and sustained the main features of a welfare state’ (Sahlberg, 2007). Sahlberg is critical of those who simply make comparisons by examining the PISA rankings of different countries, rather than trying to learn about national underlying characteristics that might explain performance (ibid: 163). In the table below (Table 3), she highlights significant differences between the Finnish system and the way in which other countries, (including the UK), have developed since the 1980s under the influence of market-orientated neo-liberalism. The table she produced, although couched in more considered language, accords with many of the observations made by the BTs.
Global Education | Finland
--- | ---
Standardization | Flexibility and loose standards
Setting clear, high and centrally prescribed performance standards for schools, teachers and students to improve the quality of outcomes. | Building on existing good practices and innovations in school-based curriculum development, setting of learning targets and networking through steering by information and support.

Focus on numeracy and literacy | Broad learning combined with creativity
Basic knowledge and skills in reading, writing, mathematics and natural sciences as prime targets of education reform. | Learning and Teaching focus on deep and broad learning giving equal value to all aspects of an individual's growth of personality, moral, creativity, knowledge and skills.

Consequential accountability | Intelligent accountability with trust-based professionalism
School performance and raising student achievement are closely tied to the processes of promotion, inspection and ultimately rewarding or punishing schools and teachers based on accountability measures, especially standardised testing as the main criteria of success. | Adoption of intelligent accountability policies and gradual building of a culture of trust within the education system that values teachers' and headmasters' professionalism in judging what is best for students and in reporting their learning progress.

Table 3. Some aspects of global education reform trends and education policy principles in Finland since the 1980s (adapted from Sahlberg 2007)

**Raw data: (The danger of) Jumping to conclusions!**

On closer analysis, UK BTs’ observations appeared to confirm their preconceptions; they tended to seek out evidence to support rather than ‘unsettle assumptions’. For example, lessons in Turku were identified as ‘flexible’ and ‘relaxed’ whilst in London they were ‘formulaic’ and ‘highly structured’; teachers in Finland are ‘trusted’, ‘respected’ and ‘allowed freedom’ whilst in London they are ‘undervalued’, of ‘low status’ and ‘under surveillance’. Clearly this fails to do justice to the complexity of the two systems. More worrying is the fact that UK BTs failed to recognize their role in this discourse, and do not identify themselves as being in a position (as new entrants into the profession) to affect change or challenge the situation. Rather than seeing their roles as *agents of change* they appear as victims of the system – a worrying negativity comes through. There is a sense that they are powerless against their inevitable control by central government policy, dominated by managerialism and anti-intellectualism. This supports Ball’s claim that the UK government has effectively reduced the role of teachers to that of *classroom technician*. He insists that ‘the politics of education since the 1980s can be interpreted as centering upon a primary concern – taming the teacher’ (Ball, 2003b). He suggests the teacher is being both silenced and de-centred:
What is being achieved is the redistribution of significant voices. As always it is not just a matter of what is said but who is entitled to speak. The teacher is increasingly the absent presence in the discourses of education policy, an object rather than a subject of discourse (Ball, 2003b).

What also became clear is the extent to which BTs’ observations of the Finnish system and their reporting on their own was limited to current policies and practices – a postmodern reading off the surface – and very matter-of-fact. There was limited critical reflection and little evidence of *epistemological curiosity*. They appear to be in the grip of the government rhetoric reinforced by negative media hype; the hype and rhetoric that we introduced you to in this paper. As tutors we are particularly anxious to ensure BTs resist any suggestion that teaching *can* be reified in this way. It encourages a reductive, mechanistic approach to education and ignores the idiosyncratic, contingent aspects of learning and teaching (aspects such as pupil intake, teachers’ preferences, and prevalent socio-economic relations). The shift towards M level (King, 2008) for ITE courses in the UK will encourage further critical engagement including the epistemological curiosity that Friere (1999) recognizes as essential.

**Changing Contexts**

In our attempts to understand education policies comparatively… the complex relationships of ideas and the dissemination of ideas and the recontextualisation of ideas remains the central task. (Ball, 1998)

Sahlberg 2007 points out that although education policy discourse in Finland has been subject to ongoing changes since the 1980s, Finland has been slow to instigate the market-oriented (neo-liberal) education reforms that have dominated policies elsewhere in Europe. Instead a:

…steady improvement in student learning has been attained through Finnish education policies based on traditional values of equity, flexibility, creativity, teacher professionalism and trust. (Sahlberg, 2007)

She quotes from Lewis (2005), who agrees that traditional values have endured including ‘cultural hallmarks as a law abiding citizenry, trust in authority, commitment to one’s social group, awareness of one’s social status, position, and a patriotic spirit’. A view that seems to validate the claim about the Finnish system made by Mortimore (2007) earlier.
However, we note with interest that Sirkka Ahonen (2006) paints a different picture of Finnish society. In contrast to the impression given so far, she suggests ‘a crisis is looming’ (Ahonen, 2006) and that Finns would be wrong to be too complacent. She points out that the number of young people bothering to vote is declining, as is the number engaging in volunteer work. She suggests that this can be seen as the result of a gap in their education which she defines as a lack of ‘active citizenship’. Although the culture of the classroom can be recognised as ‘democratic’, young people in Finland, like their teachers, don’t have a ‘voice’ more widely; for example, their representation on school councils is not the norm but is looked upon with suspicionvi. Sirkka suggests that schools have become ‘more and more skills dispensaries than cradles of homogenonous citizenship’ (Ahonen, 2006) with very little emphasis on society per se. Simola (1995 in Ahonen 2006) claims that Finnish teachers… ‘appear to be pedagogically conservative and somewhat reserved in their relations with pupils and their families’.

Ahonen contends that teacher education in Finland focuses too exclusively on developmental and social psychology and subject specific knowledge as the basis of teacher expertise without recourse to the changing nature of society. She claims that the culture of teacher education is one that promotes the notion of the teacher as ‘a tool of the state to maintain necessary political conformity and harmony in the country’ (in Simola 1995). Not that dissimilar to the description Ball gives of the UK government’s policy of ‘taming… the teacher’ (Ball, 2003b).

Our reading of recent texts by Finnish academics (Jakku-Sihvonen and Niemi, 2006; Kallo and Risto, 2006) suggest that education in Finland has not been isolated or protected from the neo-liberal views of society. Like their European counterparts, they are being affected by demands of cost effectiveness, the growth of parent choice encouraging competition between schools; albeit at a slower pace. Equality of opportunity is starting to change and educational achievement is becoming more differentiated. Giroux’s description of how ‘performativity works to edge public sector organisations into convergence with the private sector’ (op cit) applies in Finland too. The ‘soft’ services of teaching
being turned into the ‘hard’ services to be standardised, qualified and compared. However, Ahonen insists;

On the basis of their education, teachers are not too well prepared to elaborate the new corporate ways of running schools not to speak of questioning them… Neither are they enlightened to see the broad spectrum of social changes in society… the minimal share of studies towards social awareness in teacher education must be deplored. How can a teacher relate his or her work to the social situation of the country, if he or she has not reflected on what is happening in society? (Ahonen, 2006)

It appears that Finnish student teachers are not well prepared to deal with changes in society, they are not encouraged to reflect and discuss social and political affairs as part of their training, in turn their teaching can be seen to elide references to these issues. As Ahonen points out Finnish students ‘live amidst a flood of information from the ubiquitous media while perhaps missing the capacity for multiperspectival views of her or his time and world’ (Ahonen, 2006)

Perhaps Finnish student teachers’ conservatism, and their lack of critical engagement with changing social issues goes some way towards explaining why UK BTs found little evidence of curriculum materials or teaching methods developed to meet the needs of a growing immigrant population (beyond Finnish as an additional language). Unlike the UK, Finland is not steeped in post-colonial histories nor does it have the same immigration patterns that make UK the rich pluralist society it is today. It is worthy of note that 'more than 30% of pupils in the teacher training school in Turku (Turun Normaalikoulu) speak another language than Finnish as their home language, pupils speak 29 different languages. The largest language groups are Russians, Albanians, Arabs, Kurds and Vietnamese, pupils.' (Vesa Valkila, Principal). University Tutor Heine-Marja Jarvinen recognises the need to address the paucity in provision for these young people:

Finland is such a young country [in terms] of immigration and we have not received immigrants for long we don’t have any rules, curricula or syllabi in that field. This is something we should do more of. It is actually Turku that has exception in that it has so many immigrants here. Some parts of Finland have none at all. We should actually initiate the development, originate these materials as leaders of educational research we have a responsibility to do more. We have been focusing on Finnish as a second language and moving education towards internationalisation which is linked to Finish as a Second language. We need to think about how we
can explore culture, what culture conveys and how they can enrich what we already have.

As already noted it is important to recognize that the formation of attitudes and values towards cultural diversity is not restricted to schooling, the ‘ubiquitous media’ in its various manifestations is helping to (re)form the attitudes and values of young people. For example, a research project carried out on the way cultural diversity is represented on the websites of large Finnish companies found that they were the least likely of eight European countries to present diversity statements (Bairoh, 2005). She points out that her findings coincide with those of Trux (2002) and Forsander et al. (2004) who claim that diversity and/or diversity management has not (yet?) entered the discourses of Finnish companies.

However, it was not part of our remit to explore cultural diversity (immigration/interculturalism) and its implications for pedagogy. Just as we have tried to unpick the reasons why Finland remains ‘top of the global class’ the Finnish visit to the UK will give them the opportunity to identify the different strategies for inclusion being employed in London schools and consider the relevance for their own practice.

**Conclusion: bemused and bewildered**

The opportunity afforded by this project to experience learning and teaching in Finland has resulted in more questions than answers, and perhaps it is not surprising that we find ourselves entering the next phase of the collaboration more than a little *bemused*. It is important to reiterate that this is a pilot project and was only set up to establish links and identify areas for future development. The BTs’ responses were not pre-determined by a clearly defined research agenda, as such they should be recognised as experiential in nature - first impressions and a springboard to the next cycle. It would be reasonable to say that we find ourselves slightly *bewildered* by the conflicting and contradictory views on the Finnish success story and draw comfort from Zagar who advocates that we continue with the dialogue:

> Not surprisingly – as it is with weather or football – everybody has an opinion... Often these views differ; they can be conflicting and, sometimes, exclusive. In a way, these discussions and different, sometimes, dissenting
views reflect the complexity of the phenomenon itself. (Zagar, 2008)

We started with a newspaper headline and would like to end with an equally thought provoking recent image to put the UK position into more of a context. Our press invest a lot of time nationally discussing the weather and football and more recently, like Finland, have been debating the effect immigration will have upon the country and its education system. We certainly have not found the solutions and with regards to teacher training we need to recognise and then resist the rhetoric, move away from the simplistic comparisons by layering findings with epistemological curiosity and a critical engagement with recent literature – identifying not only how another country is seen but also how it sees itself – changing.

Plate 3. The Daily Express 28th January 2008

We look forward to the next stage when Finnish students and tutors visit London to make their observations in our institution and partnership training schools and identify for themselves how, why and to what extent interculturalism is working.

Andy Ash and Lesley Burgess

2/19/2008
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i At the IoE student teachers are referred to as ‘beginning teachers’ (BTs). This is indicative of their status as new entrants to the profession and also references the fact that initial teacher education (ITE) is just the first step in their continuing professional development (CPD).

ii The educational literature relating to the theme of urban education is predominantly North American in origin and largely specific to a US context. In common with much UK literature on urban education there is a lack of clarity as to what exactly the term urban refers to and it is commonly used as an assumed term rather than one that is explicitly stated and defined. US literature on the preparation of teachers for teaching in city schools offers a number of insights that may be helpful in illuminating the UK context. Much of the literature takes as its central concern disparities between school populations in US cities and the teachers preparing to teach in them. US urban schools are increasingly being populated by black and Hispanic students, yet the teachers being prepared to teach in those schools tend to be white and suburban; a situation exacerbated by increasing social and housing segregation so that many training teachers’ first meaningful experiences of contact with black and Hispanic young people is on their teacher education programmes (see Olmedo, I. M. (1997), ‘Challenging old assumptions: Preparing teachers for inner city schools’. Teaching and Teacher Education, 13. Research conducted on the preferences of pre-service teachers suggests that few wish to teach in settings different from those with which they are familiar (see Gilbert, S. (1995), ‘Perspectives of rural prospective teachers towards teaching in urban schools’. Urban Education, 30.). The scale of the problem can be inferred from literature aimed at white, suburban teachers preparing to teach in urban areas (see, for example, Weiner, L. (1999), Urban Teaching. New York: Teachers College Press.).

Two distinct themes emerge from this body of US literature: First, the cultural, social and spatial distance between the pre-service teachers being trained to work in urban contexts and the young people and communities they will be working with. Second, the need to develop further aspects of pre-service teacher programmes to help prepare teachers training to work in such contexts.

iii The UK based literature specifically addressing the preparation of teaching for working in urban schools is significantly sparser although there are distinct parallels to themes addressed by the US literature. Such parallels are especially evident in the nineteenth century literature on the training of teachers to work with the urban poor (see, for example, Kay-Shuttleworth writing in 1862 and quoted in Cook, C. (1984), ‘Teachers for the inner city: change and continuity’. In G. Grace (ed.), Education and the city - theory, history and contemporary practice. London: Routledge.) and described subsequently by Grace (1978) as: ‘Social and cultural missionaries – a kind of secular priesthood dedicated to the work of civilization’ (Grace, G. (1978), Teachers, Ideology and Control. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul., p11).

iv It is not surprising that we have raised the question before ‘who will want to teach in them?’ Ash, A. and Hall, D. (2006), Urban ITT: Working with Urban Schools in Challenging Contexts. London: University of London.

v Epistemological curiosity – a curiosity that investigates the nature of knowledge, its foundation, scope and vitality: one that is not always present in dialogue Freire, P. and Macedo, D. P. (1999), ‘Pedagogy, Culture and Race’. In J. Leach and B. Moon (eds), Learners and Pedagogy. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

vi Since a radical experiment to introduce student democracy in this way in 1970s was abandoned when it became an acrimonious struggle between the political left and right.
Research (evaluation) procedures of the pre-service and in-service education of communication competent teachers

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Abstract: Communication competence is important teacher’s formative professional competence. The education of communication competent teachers takes various parts in teachers’ educational systems. The complexity of communication education in teachers’ pre-service education and teachers’ in-service education is caused by the structure of communication competence. Thus, measuring effects of communication skills, knowledge and attitudes development in teachers’ education curricula is a complex and multilevel process. The procedures of evaluating communication competence education and procedures of evaluating teaching communication have been developed. Some of these procedures have been applied to teachers’ communication competence education.

In the paper, we looked over characteristics of pre-service and in-service education of communication competent teachers. Also, we presented some methods of monitoring and evaluating communication competence education, as well as the specific instruments of evaluating communication competence and education. We considered the applicability of these methods and instruments and suggested some methods, procedures and techniques in evaluating teachers’ communication competence pre-service and in-service education.

Key words: teacher, communication competence, teachers’ education, procedures of communication education evaluation.

1. Introduction: Teachers’ communication competence

In the 20th century teacher professionalism was addressed through analyses of characteristics of successful and unsuccessful teachers as well as desirable and undesirable characteristics of teachers (the earliest phase of systematic research of teachers); then the research of the roles which the teacher had to recognize was dominating (the second phase), and the end of the century was marked by approaches to professional development as an integral process. It is only the 21st century in which professional competence of teachers is being explored more fully.

How can we describe a competent teacher? Teachers’ professional competence is the system of knowledge, skills, abilities and motivational disposition which provide the effective realization of the professional teaching activities. Three main domains of professional competence of teachers, which consist of a series of separate competences (Bjekic and Zlatic, 2006) are: educational competence; program (syllabus, content) competence and communication competence.

Communication competence is important teacher’s formative professional competence. It is the system of the knowledge, skills, abilities, properties and motivational disposition, which provide the effective communication in the teaching process and the others educational social interactions.

Communication competence is a more special, but widely overlapped construct with basic construct of social competence (Spitzberg and Cupach, 1989); it’s considered to be the focal aspect of social competence since the greatest part of social interaction is carried out through communication. The special aspect of teacher communication backed up with technological communication resources (multimedia systems, computers etc), is looked at, in this paper, only as one way of social interaction in teaching, and is not considered separately. We focused on the interpersonal and group communication.
Communication competence integrates two dimensions, cognitive and behavioral, and the basic communication skills. Keatlen Reardon (1998: 76) considers the cognitive dimension of communication competence as a broad concept. Cognitive dimension consists of the awareness process and cognitive processing of information (interpersonal awareness, social perspectives, capturing, cognitive constructs, self-monitoring, empathy, etc.). Behavioral dimension indicates different manifestations of communication competence (interaction involvement, behavior flexibility, listening, communication style, and other behavior components).

In the study of the professional development of education practitioners in South-East Europe (Zgaga, 2005), the teachers from SEE countries assessed that development of communication skills is very important (fourth place of 10 themes). Accordingly faculties and high schools of teachers’ education, these competencies and skills very rarely became the part of the programs of teachers’ professional improvement (at the end of the list of 10 themes in improvement programs); at the same time, institutions suggest the courses of teachers’ professional improvement about teaching methods, learning and assessment, content of academic disciplines etc. most frequently than the communication contents.

The teaching work doesn’t make spontaneous socialization of communication competence at the communication level formative to more effective teaching interaction (Bjekic and Zlatic, 2006). It’s necessary to teach teachers’ communication skills both at the initial education level for the teaching work, and continually in the professional domain.

2. Teachers’ pre-service and in-service communication education

Considering the teachers’ role, it’s obvious that we want to educate the teachers who will be capable of controlling and facilitating classroom communication, communication with colleagues and students’ parents effectively. Teachers should develop adequate social skills, conduct wide repertoire of communication strategies, learn and understand causes and consequences of their communication actions, develop abilities to find and apply the best communication alternatives and to make adequate improvisation and redefinition of action plan, taking into consideration new moments in a social situation.

There are similarities and differences between the students of teachers’ education institutions and the teachers-workers in schools: students-prospective teachers are preparing to teaching, teachers are practically realizing professional tasks.

In-service teachers have better outlook on their own professional needs since they are more acquainted with the means of professional realization and more aware of the difficulties; when they acquire new contents and skills within training programs, they also may test themselves directly how applicable these are in real situation. The longer they work as teachers, the greater the need for flexibility necessary for any change; thus, they strengthen existing behaviour repertoires and resist the changes. Consequently, correction of teaching behaviour is often necessary.

Teachers-students are more flexible and prone to change their behaviour. They are in the period that is formative for structuring the whole systems of professional behaviour. The programs may be primarily directed towards establishing, but not correcting, behaviour. The effects (the knowledge acquired) are accepted more eagerly in the beginning of professional development.

Therefore, it’s necessary to model specific curricula to improve communication competencies of teachers and specific curricula for teachers-students.

There are differences between students-teachers and current teachers, in terms of their educational needs, especially in their insight into social situations of professional teaching in which the communication competence is realized.

In pre-service teachers’ education (university courses, pre-service curricula) it’s important to develop general communication knowledge, skills, and attitudes. In in-service teachers’ education
it’s important to develop special communication skills, knowledge, and attitudes in specific school and learning situations.

Some authors differentiated the goals in pre-service education and in in-service education compared it with education and training. Education typically emphasizes the cognitive learning domain, whereas training focus more on the behavioural learning domain. Differences between pre-service education (analogues by Beebe’s concept education) and in-service training include the following (Beebe, 2007: 250): (a) education emphasizes knowing, training emphasizes doing; (b) education emphasizes achieving systematic communication knowledge and skills, training emphasizes achieving a certain level of skill attainment; (c) education operates more as an open system in that what is taught has multiple applications in a variety of context, training is more of a closed system in which there are certain right or wrong ways of performing a skill to accomplish a specific task; (d) education is typically linked to achieving wide range of behaviour, training emphasizes requirements to perform specific job; (e) training emphasizes analyzing how to perform skills following prescribed, step-by-step approach; education is typically less concerned with performing a linear sequence of behaviours. What are the differences between preparing for communication training presentation in in-service teachers’ education and teaching a university-level communication class in pre-service teachers’ education? Although both a classroom and training room may include similar instructional activities, what is presented in a training session should have a direct correlation with what trainees need to do on the job. Effective training should be based upon comprehensive assessment of trainee and organizational needs.

The education of communication competent teachers takes various parts in teachers’ educational systems. In the last ten years, there has been much interest in the higher education community to redefine teacher training curricula in order to implement new communication skills and competencies. The criteria according to which teacher training faculty are redefined are the demands that graduate teachers should have strongly developed communication skills, communication knowledge, communication awareness, teamwork skills, etc.

The complexity of communication education in teachers’ pre-service education and teachers’ in-service education is caused by the structure of communication competence.

2.1. Development of communication education and teaching communication

Teachers’ professional competencies are determined by the socio-interactive characteristics of the teaching process. The contents of communicology and the courses from communicology were included gradually at the university teacher education. The whole school systems come to be more awareness of teachers’ communication competence improvement as the one of the prerequisites of the teachers’ professionalisation. Based on the specific contents and great (essential) significance of the communication skills in learning communication, two models of communication curricula are developed. The evaluation of teaching communication is analyzed: especially we analyzed the difficulties of behavioural evaluation as the necessary part of the monitoring teaching communication effects.

At the beginning of teaching teacher’s communication competence, some programs are similar to the training in the field of business communication, and some programs are based on the direct transfer from socio-psychological knowledge to teacher’s professional dealing. The latest systematic curriculum development is based on the teacher’s job analyses, needs analyses, analyses of teaching social interaction and instructional goals and outcomes. Initialization and realization of these teaching communication activities are started at the middle of the 20th century. At the end of seventies, social-psychological perspective is more important to modify teaching communication. Afterwards, there was a prominent influence of different conceptualizations towards defining curricula and the selection of syllabi for the development of communication competence.
Learning communication skills of different professional groups became, at first, the segment of their professional improvement. It’s initiated by the business systems needs (Adler and Elmhurst, 2004). Learning communication competencies has been involved in regular educational process lately. These instructional contents became the part of the university education in the middle of 20th century (Barton and Beck, 2005; Morreale and Backlund, 2002). At the end of 20th century, when communicology became autonomous science, the course at university education level was named “communicology” (the course includes both the learning of the theoretical principles of communication, and learning of communication skills). Then, the specific courses are derived from and named after the specific communication skills to be developed (interpersonal classroom communication, team communication, mass communication, internal communication, external communication).

Realizing the need for more detailed operational communication competence, National Communication Association of USA (Larson et al. 1978; Quianthz, 1990) supported the development and further effectiveness of competences, which referred to communication aptitudes and speaking and listening skills. After the analyses at more than 500 universities, various vocational conferences and through different communication associations, communication competence was viewed as a system of essential and basic communication skills, which were expected as a result and demand of general education during first two years of university; that system was offered as a pivot for development of communication curricula.

One of the essential dilemmas in making a curriculum for development of communication competence of teachers and future teachers is the issue of ratio of the theory and skills presented in the curriculum. Nicholson and Duck (in Vangelisti, 1999: 85-99) solve this dilemma pointing out the advantages of the skills oriented curriculum, however not disregarding the impact and necessity of lecture oriented curriculum. The skills-oriented course is probably most effective with high levels of discussion of issues and ideas; students are encouraged to recognize the relevant communication processes and phenomena in their own relationships and interactions; they are encouraged to recognize, analyze, and respond to situations in their life more effectively; they are encouraged to participate, offer examples from their experience, discussed; students recognize the practical usefulness of these courses in professional activities etc. In such curricula, more time is devoted to activities and practice, as well as to self-evaluation of specific communication competences.

In setting up goals of curricula for encouraging communication competences Sprague (in Vangelisti et al. 1999: 15-31) brings up practical benefits and effectiveness of Bloom’s model of taxonomy. In teaching communication, a teacher has to direct the process of learning towards all the levels of recognition and fields of learning, then to observe and evaluate the hierarchical order of development of skills, also to evaluate what has been realized in the teaching process. The aims of the curriculum for development of communication competences are established through behavioral criteria, requiring the following conditions to be met: a) specific goals must be determined by concepts which represent the final expected behavior as a result of learning, b) conditions under which that behavior is presented must be defined and c) the criterion of attaining objectives must be defined.

Communicology curricula of teachers’ pre-service education include interpersonal communication level as the main part of the development of communication competent teachers. Mortenson (2007) emphasized that the curricula of interpersonal communication incorporate philosophy, ethics, and exercises geared toward personal growth and awareness; the most of interpersonal communication courses take a transformative approach. The use of ideas and exercises designed to promote personal growth, empowerment, and self-reflection is being incorporated into IP textbooks, and presumably IP courses as well.

The analyses of the curricula at different universities (Bjekic et al. 2007) suggested that the most frequent contents in these curricula are the following: model of communication, characteristics of messages in teaching, channel of teaching communication, verbal communication, nonverbal
communication, active listening, conversation, interpersonal communication, communication in a small group and class, teachers’ communication styles and styles of teaching management, communication boundaries, communication rules, assertiveness, empathy.

Specific contents in some courses involve: communicology and disciplines, theoretical issues of communication, written communication, discussion styles, group discussion, debate, group presentation, public speaking, critical listening, skills of problem resolving, strategies of conflict resolving, communication in school team, teachers’ communication and managing styles, non-violence and personalized communication, correspondence, etc. Some curricula emphasize the development of oral competencies of student–prospective teachers as the basic domain of communication professional development.

Some curricula suggest acquisition of communication skills, but most of the communication curricula suggest the complex approach to develop communication competencies.

2.2. Status of communication education in teachers’ education system in Serbia

The programs of development of communication competencies were gradually taking place in the system of teacher education in Serbia.

Today the development of communication competent teachers is also one of the objectives and outcomes of professional development courses of current teachers and university institutions, which produce prospective teachers. Teaching specific teacher communication competencies first began as a part of development program, which were special types of trainings. The integration of such programs into initial education of teachers gradually started to be implemented not before the beginning of the 21st century and specific syllabi with the intention of promoting communication competence of prospective teachers have been incorporated into students’ syllabi for the past 3-4 years. In six faculty of primary school teachers’ education in Serbia, only 9 courses of social and communication content are existed after 10 years ago. Now, there are 28 courses of the social and communication content at the same university departments.

At the faculties where primary school teachers are educated, the curricula about the field of development of communication competence are present twofold:

- They are included as special curricular fields in the courses: Educational Psychology, Developmental Psychology, School Pedagogy, Didactics, Teaching practice etc;
- There are separate courses whose main result is the development of communication competence: Fundaments of communicology, Communication, Mass communication, etc.

On the other hand, faculties which educate experts in education related jobs (school psychologist, teachers in vocational education level etc.) established student programs which define curricula whose objective is to develop communication science and skills. The faculties, which educate prospective teachers mostly, still do not pay enough attention to general teacher education; they neither pay any special attention to development of communication competence of prospective teachers. As at faculty of teachers’ education, some of the curricula related to the field of communicology, have been included in psychology and pedagogy for teachers as separate disciplines which empower professional skills of prospective workers in education, but specific subjects are developed as well (Communicology, Communication, Communication skills, Micropedagogy etc.)

The programs, which impel communication competence of current teachers in Serbia, are represented as programs of professional development of teachers authorized by Ministry of Education and proper institutions. The number of these courses (table 1) reflects the increase of awareness of education authorities as well as of the doers of teaching programs themselves about the importance of communication competencies for realization of various teacher roles but for the efficiency of the school as a whole.
Table 1. Communication knowledge and skills in the in-service teacher education (Serbian example)

| Development of communication skills in courses of professional development shown in catalogues of in-service educator professional development programs | Programs in catalogues |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| The name of the course indicates that it is designed to develop communication skills, competencies | f | % | f | % | f | % | f | % |
| In main objectives and topics of the course it is stated that the program also involves the development of communication skills | 16 | 12% | 24 | 7% | 19 | 11% | 28 | 8% |
| Objectives and the content of the course specify the development of teaching skills and knowledge which require the development of communication skills as a by-product of the program, but not explicitly pointed | 62 | 48% | 205 | 60% | 89 | 51% | 108 | 30% |
| Courses in which the development of communication skills is not neither explicitly nor implicitly pointed | 44 | 34% | 77 | 22% | 53 | 31% | 174 | 48% |
| Total number of courses | 129 | 343 | 173 | 360 |

Systematic observation of the effects of these courses during the undergraduate studies and during the in-service period still has not been established as a system, but single reasearches have been carried out.

3. Evaluation of communication education

Measuring effects of communication skills, knowledge, characteristics and attitudes development in teachers’ education curricula is a complex and multilevel process. Evaluation of communication education is caused by the locus of measurement, general research procedures, goals of investigations, instruments and specific demands etc. We presented some methods of monitoring and evaluating communication competence education, as well as the specific instruments of evaluating communication competence and education.

The evaluation of the teachers’ development communication skills and knowledge programs can be based on the analytic or holistic issues. The evaluation assesses process of development of communication skills curriculum or products of curriculum.

3.1. The methods and procedures of evaluation communication education

The general model of the evaluation teachers’ communication education didn’t develop. The general procedures of evaluation in teaching are applicable to evaluation of communication education. Than both experimental procedures and systematic observation are applicable to evaluation teaching communication.

The procedures of evaluating communication education and procedures of evaluating teaching communication have been developed (Rubin et al, 2005). Some of these procedures have been applied to teachers’ communication education.

A critical feature that distinguishes various measures of evaluation of communication competence education is the locus of measurement. What is the focus of evaluation: communication knowledge, or communication skills, or communication abilities, or communication behaviours, or…?

We can evaluate knowledge of communication education by the norm-referenced measurement and by the criterion-referenced measurement. Smythe et al. (in Vangelisti et al. 1999: 424) compared
norm-referenced to criterion-referenced measurement in communication classes and argued that predetermined criteria are necessary in classroom teaching and evaluation. Rebecca Rubin (in Vangelisti et al. 1999: 426) emphasized the next: post communication criticism stimulates creative thinking and interest in the communication process calls attention to student strengths and weaknesses, gives instructions for improvement, and motivates students to do better in future.

There are three different sources of data that researchers utilize to assess different aspects of communication competence, especially interpersonal competence (Spitzberg and Cupach, 1989): self report, partner’s judgment of actor, and third-party observation. None of these perspectives is inherently superior. Indeed, each is subject limitations. The most appropriate perspective depends upon: the researcher’s conceptualization of competence, the researcher’s purpose, and the researcher’s values regarding the trade-offs of benefits and drawbacks associated with each technique.

*Actor’s self-evaluation* - Clearly, the most common approach to assessing interpersonal competence (or its components) is the use of self-reports. The most significant advantage of self-evaluation is that an individual knows more about him or herself than does anyone else. A person’s knowledge of how self behaves both over time and across contexts is relatively comprehensive. Although self-evaluation measures can be stable over time and contexts, they are usually global in nature. Because actors are generally focused outward on the environment and other social participants, actors are not very adept at reporting about specific microscopic behaviors or details. Thus, the self-report of feeling (such as satisfaction) or general behavior pattern is more likely to be valid than the self-report of specific microscope behaviors.

Another problem with self-evaluation of communication competence is that interpersonal competence entails abilities involving accurate social perception (Hazleton and Cupach; Firth, Conger and Dorcey; according to Spitzberg and Cupach, 1989). Spitzberg (1986) compared the correlation between actors’ self-ratings of their conversational skills and partner ratings of the actor’s skills. When the sample of actors was split according to self-reported skill levels, there were no significant correlations for the actors who self-reported low skills.

*Partner’s evaluation of actor* - Partner reports about actor are analogous to participant observation. When studying interpersonal relationships and social interaction, sometimes the partner (“Other” or “Co-Actor”) is more valid judge of an actor’s competence then is actor. Because individuals tend to be outwardly focused, the partner is often a better observer than actor of actor’s behaviors. Another point favoring the use of partner reports is that they are consistent with the interactive nature of interpersonal competences. While one’s self-perception of competence may prove to be interesting in its own right, knowledge about the quality of one’s social performance is uniquely tied to the other social actors who constitute the interpersonal network. Stressing out the continuous professional development of teachers implies the general attitude that “a successful teacher sees him/herself as a student” (Coults, in: Cole, 2005:131), and they will be able to improve own teaching if they evaluate it continuously and if they learn from thriving experience of other teachers. This mutual teacher (horizontal) evaluation is possible to be implemented in everyday teaching, and it is a component of the feedback given in some interactive courses and seminars of professional development.

*Third-party observation* - Third-partner observation of an actor’s behavior are some preferred in order to mitigated the subjective biases associated with self and partner reports. Two general strategies are used to obtain behavioral observation: in vivo interaction and semi–naturalistic interaction in the lab. Observation of in vivo interaction is considered the ideal strategy for behavioral assessment. Ecological validity is maximized by observing behavior in its natural environment. Unfortunately, such research is rare because of its impracticality.
Semi–naturalistic interactions frequently are used to overcome the limitations of in vivo observation. Numerous variations of this method have been used. More structured form of semi-naturalistic interaction is role-playing. Subjects are given description of scenarios and hypothetical prompts. Subject is expected to respond as they think they normally would if actually involved in such situation. While a wide range of hypothetical situations can be covered in brief time, the external validity of subjects’ response is unclear at best. Variations of the role-playing methodology are numerous, and the strengths and limitations of this approach have been extensively documented in the literature (according to Spitzberg & Cupach, 1989).

An evaluation of a third–party can take place by systematic observation or by the method of behavioral simulation (which imply the presentation of different hypothetical situations to subjects, to which they have to respond through role-playing or statements about what they would do in such situations). Evaluating by behavioral criteria is considered to be the most adequate in measuring skills. It is clear that decisions are made according to the specific objectives: whether the course develops understanding of simple or complex principles; the use of principles for evaluating already set problems or new ones; or it is about the application of old principles in some new situations.

Goldfries and D’Zurilla (in Spitzberg and Cupach, 1989) have presented possible approaches to developing and structuring behavioral measures for evaluating development of communication competences. There are five steps in their behavioural-analitical model implemented in evaluation teaching communication:

1) situation analysis (to develop a list of descriptions of communication situations in a domain or set of domain relevant to the evaluation, example: situations of demonstration communication skills);

2) response enumeration (to obtain a representative range of responses to specific situations identified in step one);

3) response evaluation (to assess the relative efficacy of the responses to the situations described in step two);

4) construction of instrument format (based upon the data collected in steps one through three, a complete instrument package can now be constructed; example: select relevant answers, descriptions of hypothetical situations, coding, etc.);

5) instrument evaluation.

Blatt and Greenberg (2007) applied four evaluation techniques of program „Teaching and learning communication skills“: learners’ rating of teaching (students opinions of program and teacher using standardized inventory); teachers’ pre- and post- self-assessment questionnaire (to assess competence); interaction analyses of feedback skills using videotapes and other-assessment questionnaire (to assess teachers’ performance); standardized examinations (to assess communication skills).

Bearing in mind that the courses for impelling communication competences also target at developing knowledge and increasing awareness about communication, as well as communication skills, many research dilemmas have arisen, connected to different approaches to communication competences as well as to inconsistent use of terms. (Spitzberg and Cupach, 1989).

The course objectives determine whether skills or knowledge or combination of the two is the appropriate target for evaluation of communication education/teaching process and products. For the purpose of this paper, "successful outcome is defined as the development of the skills, knowledge and motivation required for independent learning and autonomous professional practice" (Dearnley and Matthew, 2007: 378).
3.2. The instruments of evaluating communication education and teaching communication

Since communication competence is the system of knowledge, skills, abilities, characteristics, attitudes, motivational dispositions that assure successful communication, the same system is the evaluation of programs, which are aimed at their improvement, the whole system of procedure for measuring changes.

Tests of communication knowledge are the occasionally instruments to evaluating cognitive domain in teaching communication.

A various scales apply in communication competence assessment. A most of these scales are usefulness for evaluation of communication competence education. Some of the scales apply as the self-report measures, some of them as other-report measures, but some of them can apply in the both situations.

Spitzberg and Cupach (1989) offer a summary of measures and measuring instruments for evaluating communication competence (81 measures), first of all in the field of interpersonal and group communication. Spitzberg and Cupach emphasize measures which are relevant for domains and skills which are closely related to communication competence or which are considered to be its components, and are necessary in teacher career (assertiveness, empathy, motivation).

Rebecca Rubin et al. (2004), systematically select, describe and analyze applicability of 62 measures for observing and measuring various aspects of communication competence. Grouping the measures in four categories (measures of instructional communication, measures of interpersonal communication, measures of mass communication and measures of organizational communication); they direct our choice of measures for observing, measuring and evaluating the development of teacher communication competence during and after various courses in education and trainings of communication science and skills.

Based on these two representative accounts, the aspects (table 2) of communication competence have been selected and they are relevant for teacher professional practice. For every aspect of communication competence, it is stated how many measures have been shown and analyzed by the above mentioned authors and for every aspect, one measure is given. Some instruments are adapted to use as self-report measurement and other-report measurement in different social context.
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<tr>
<td>Communication competence (nonspecified)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interpersonal competence</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>Communication skills</td>
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<td>Conversation dimension of communication competence, speech, verbal, written</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>Communication satisfaction</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>Communication adaptiveness and effectiveness</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>Social intelligence</td>
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<td>Social skills</td>
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<td>Self-esteem, assertiveness and conflict resolution</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>Social anxiety, and shyness</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>Motivation communication competence, affective dimension and empathy (there isn’t special instrument for empathy in these reviews)</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>Interaction awareness, interaction involvement, listening skills</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>Behavioral component of communication competence</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>Communication competence in specific groups (organizational, intercultural, family, gender, age), heterosocial skills, marital social skills</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mass and media communication</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
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</table>

| N | 143 | 96 | 47 |

### 3.3. The methods and instruments of evaluating communication competent teachers education

The evaluation of program for improving communication competence of students-prospective teachers and current teachers requires a differentiated approach because learning communication knowledge and skills during pre-service education and in-service education is very specific. In both situations, evaluation experiment is applicable.

During student-prospective teacher education, the horizontal evaluation by fellow student is more applicable, restricted situational evaluations. During education-professional enhancement of current teachers, a systematic observing of behavior in real teaching situations is more applicable, the horizontal evaluation in the classroom by the use of report scales, student evaluation, self-report scales etc.

Self-report is probably best used for global judgments of performance, ratings of confidence in one’s own abilities, and research into the role of the self-perception in social interaction. However,
self-report doesn’t reliable procedure to measure developing of the communication competence domains and components in training procedures (especially in short-term). Thus, self-report is limited in evaluation of the teachers’ communication competence pre-service and in-service training and education.

Other-report measures are suitable to monitoring effects of teaching communication in teachers’ education. Partner reports are especially appropriate for context-specific or relationship-specific evaluations of behavior. Partner reports are also useful in situation where the interactants acquainted. Example: students, as teachers’ social partners, can assess the change in teachers’ behaviour after the training by the special assessment scales, by the changes in own social interaction in the class, by the changes in course motivation etc. When the students report about the better communication in the class after the teachers’ training, it is one indicator of the communication competence education effects.

Behavioral observation may be most appropriate when the focus is on several microscope behaviors, when complex a priori criteria are being used to evaluate performance, or when social appropriateness of behavior is the exclusive concern of the researcher.

Based on the consideration of the applicability of these instruments in evaluating teachers’ communication competence education, comparative studies and ours researches and empirical analyses, we selected the following instruments to monitoring and measuring changing in teachers’ communication competence development (students-teachers in pre-service CE and active teachers in in-service CE):

- **Self-report instruments:** Communicator Style Measure – teacher’s (Norton, in Rubin et al. 2004: 134); Communication Anxiety Inventory (Booth-Butterfiels and Gould, in. Rubin et al. 2004: 109-113); Interaction Involvement Scale (IIS by Cegala et al. 1982); Interpersonal Communication Motives Scale (Rubin, Perse and Barbato, in Rubin et al. 2004: 211-216); Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory (Hecht, in: Rubin et al. 2004: 217-222); Rahim Organization Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II, Rahim, 2001; Pokrajac and Kardum, according to Bjekic and Zlatic, 2006); Team Attitude Inventory;


- **Indirect measures of changing communication in the classroom only for active teachers:** Students/pupils’ course motivation scale (Brkovic et al, 1997), Student Motivation Scale (Beatty and Payne, in: Rubin et al. 2004: 343-346); Students/pupils’ satisfaction of social interaction, Students/pupils’ evaluation of teaching process and teachers; the students/pupils results in instruction etc.

4. Conclusion

It is necessary to teach teachers’ communication skills both at the initial education level for the teaching work, and continually in the professional domain. Teachers should develop adequate social skills, conduct wide repertoire of communication strategies, learn and understand causes and consequences of their communication actions. Diagnosis of their communication knowledge, skills and attitudes, is the first step in systematic modelling of communication curricula and training, accordingly to their educational needs and communication competence improvement. At the same time, it is the evaluation measurement of the curricula and training activities. However, measuring effects of communication skills, knowledge and attitudes development in teachers’ education curricula is a complex and multilevel process.
5. References:


Development of positive interest and attitudes toward science and interest in teaching elementary science: influence of inquiry methods course experiences

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Abstract
This study evaluates the effectiveness of a science methods course in promoting interest in science, interest in teaching science, and choice to teach science. Subjects were 53 preservice teachers in two sections of a science methods course at a large American university. The course used hands-on activities at varying levels of inquiry to teach content and inquiry methods and to model effective teaching. The study involved analyses of pre/post course surveys, daily ratings, and final course ratings. End of course results showed that participants found course activities fun and interesting, and pre/post t-tests indicated that participants increased their interest in science and positive feelings about teaching science. Regression analysis found that the best predictors for interest in teaching science at the end of the course were ratings of course activities as fun followed by the participants’ initial interest in science. Finding that fun was the best predictor suggests that a science methods course should provide a playful and risk-free learning environment in which preservice teachers should have the freedom to explore their “wonderings,” curiosity, and questions. For preservice teachers not initially interested in science, such a course not only models good teaching methods but can increase interest in science, an important motivator.

Keywords: interest in science, interest in teaching science, attitudes, inquiry methods course.
Development of positive interest and attitudes toward science and interest in teaching elementary science: Influence of inquiry methods course experiences

Although the American *National Science Education Standards [NSES]* (National Research Council, 1996) advocate teaching science through inquiry in schools as well as in the preparation of teachers, many American elementary school teachers teach very little science and seldom engage their students through inquiry (Weiss, 1997; Fulp, 2002). There are many possible reasons for this including the following: commitment to school system adopted textbooks, difficulties in assessing results of inquiry learning, concerns about how to manage inquiry classrooms in which teacher and student play new roles (facilitator and active inquirer, respectively), lack of lab materials, and dominant commitment to “coverage” to prepare students for standardized testing and the next grade level (Anderson, 2002). Given the above, teachers who have negative attitudes toward science and are unenthusiastic about teaching and learning science may be unlikely to involve their students in inquiry science experiences.

The reason teachers have negative feelings and attitudes about science may relate to their own science related experiences in elementary and high schools (deLaat & Watters, 1995; Jarrett, 1999; Watters & Ginns, 2000). According to Hawkins (1990), an unproductive cycle in education is that people uninterested in science may pass that disinterest on to the children. This has serious implications not only for the preparation of scientifically literate citizens but also for the preparation of the next generation of teachers. To break this cycle, teacher preparation programs must confront preservice teachers’ negative attitudes toward science and lack of personal interest in teaching science (Weiss 1997). The *NSES* stressed that only the teachers who “exhibit enthusiasm and interest and who speak to the power and beauty of scientific understanding can instill inquiry skills as well as curiosity, openness to new ideas, and skepticism that characterizes science” (NRC, 1996, p.37).

This study addresses the following research questions: Can a hands-on inquiry science methods course affect preservice teachers’ interest and attitudes toward science? What aspects of the course contribute to participants’ interest in teaching science and choice to teach science?

*Interest and motivation*

According to Dewey (1933/1986), there is a strong connection between interest and effort, i.e., the more a person becomes interested in a subject the more effort he will put in it. Dewey (1913/1979, p.160) described an interested person as “being engaged, engrossed, or entirely taken up with some activity because of its recognized worth.” For Dewey, “interest is a tool through which the distance between the person and the materials is annihilated, facilitating an ‘organic union’ between the two” (p.160). According to Dewey (1933/1986), in many learning tasks in school, the process and outcome are separated which results in “divided interest,” and students cannot connect the process of executing a task and with its outcome. For Dewey, this dilemma is the biggest “enemy of effective thinking” (p.137). Dewey believed that children give external attention to school learning tasks (e.g., to teachers and to textbooks and lessons) while their deepest thoughts are concerned with objects and materials.
Dewey conceptualized the interest acquisition process into three distinct and cohesive components: active, based on objects, and having personal meaning or emotional value. Dewey (1913/1979) identifies direct and indirect interest. A direct interest originates from the individual or immediate experience, but indirect interest is mediated by a teacher or parent. Krapp, Hidi, and Renninger (1992), Hidi and Harackiewicz (2000), and Krapp (2004) use the terms “individual interest” and “situational interest” when expanding on Dewey’s ideas on direct and indirect interest. Individual interest is defined as a long-lasting person-object relationship which develops over a period of time, and it is enduring and refers to behaviors such as highly focused attention, display of pleasure, and high degree of persistence in a task. However, situational interest refers to a state of interest generated externally or formed as a result of ongoing interactions between a person and the environment. According to Hidi and Harackiewicz (2000), individual and situational interest are distinct; but they seem to interact and influence each other’s development. The hypothesized relationship between situational interest and individual interest is that situational interest can be turned into long-lasting individual interest if the individual is exposed to situational interest over a certain period of time (Krapp et al., 1992; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Krapp, 2004). For the development of individual interest, the individual should experience both feeling-related experiences—enjoyment, involvement in doing an activity—and cognitively represented factors—goals and values in doing an activity—together in a positive way. The researchers argued that situational interest may have a critical role in learning, especially when students do not have pre-existing individual interest in particular subject matter (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Ainley, Hidi, & Berndorf, 2002).

In order to promote situational interest, researchers have focused on task and environmental factors. According to Ames (1992), tasks that involve variety and diversity are more likely to facilitate an interest in learning. According to Resnick, Martin, Berg, Borovoy, Colella, Kramer, and Silverman (1998), if people work on projects that are familiar, relevant and interesting, they work longer and harder and make deeper connections. In a review of research on interest and learning, Tobias (1994) concluded that “working on interesting, compared to neutral, materials may engage deeper cognitive processing, arouse a wider, more emotional, and more personal associative network, and employ more imagery” (p. 37). Two studies examined the development of interest during science methods courses. Jarrett (1999) found that background experiences of preservice teachers predicted initial interest in science and that an inquiry-based methods course increased both interest in science and confidence in teaching science. In another study, Palmer (2004) determined that interesting and enjoyable science activities in an elementary science methods class changed preservice elementary teachers’ attitudes positively. The findings of these two studies suggest that interest in class activities might develop enduring interest. There were also studies that indicated positive relationships between situational and individual interest in statistics (Mitchell, 1997) and mathematics classes (Mitchell & Gilson, 1997).

In measuring interest as an outcome variable, it is hard to separate how much of it comes from situational interest (from activity) or individual interest (personal). Therefore, in this study, interest refers to both situational interest and individual interest. The intent of the weekly activity ratings on interest is to measure situational interest;
whereas the intent of the variables *overall interest in science* and *interest in teaching* is to measure individual interest.

**Fun and Playfulness as Motivator**

Play and science are often thought of as dichotomous constructs, with play representing fancifulness and frivolity and science representing serious logical thinking. However, the intricate relationships among play, science, and creativity are well established. Severeide and Pizzini (1984) stated that science and play are complementary aspects of problem solving. The former encourages systematic behavior while the latter encourages creative behavior. According to Trumbull (1990), scientists often solve problems creatively in a spirit of play. In the discovery of the structure of DNA by Watson and Crick, (Ganschow & Ganschow, 1998), the spirit of playfulness, competitiveness, and creativity played an important role. According to Kean (1998), professional chemists continue to have fun and satisfaction throughout their career with discoveries about how the physical world works. Laszlo (2004) stated that chemists play games with chemicals in a similar way as a child who mixes various colors in a paint box to see what comes out. In the same way, chemists ask themselves the question “what would happen if I change…?” This playful attitude can be extremely fruitful and can motivate scientists.

The theorists that might best explain how learning can be motivating are Piaget (1964/2003) and Festinger (1957). According to these theorists, a state of perplexity and doubt, called “disequilibrium,” is a necessary first step in learning. When the learner faces a situation that is in conflict with what he expects, doubt, perplexity, contradiction, and incongruity play an important role in stimulating the learner’s curiosity. Events which don’t fit one’s existing expectations, “discrepant events,” function by causing dissonance between what is observed happening and what one thinks should occur. Since it is impossible to change what has been physically observed, the only alternative is to begin seeking information which logically explains the occurrence. The discrepancy between scheme and object must not be too great, or loss of interest can result. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) described this balance as a flow channel in which a person’s skill level is well balanced to level of task. Seeking answers to discrepant experiences may be highly motivating.

For Dewey, both process and outcome can be “for its own sake” when they are not separated. Resnick (2004) create a playful learning environment in his Media Lab at (MIT) which integrates play and learning for pupils from 10 to 18 years old. According to Resnick, integration of play and learning creates self-motivation, responsibility, and great concentration. Children are likely to learn the most and enjoy the most when they are engaged as an active participant, not passive recipient. Resnick’s Lab is a representative example of how a playful learning environment can be serious, creative, and imaginative as well as being fun and playful. Research studies with school age students on play, playfulness and creativity indicate a positive relationship between playfulness, creativity and problem-solving (Russ, 1998, 1999; Trevlas, Matsouka, and Zachopoulou, 2003). Holden (2004) found out that primary school children’s knowledge of basic skills and their attitude toward mathematics scored higher than the national and international averages when mathematics was taught in a fun way and in a playful context.
There are research studies that illustrate that hands-on activities and demonstrations capture students’ attention in the science classrooms (Banet & Nunez, 1997; Court, 1993; Nussbaum & Novick, 1982) and also help them to change their incomplete understanding of natural phenomena (Bulunuz & Jarrett 2004, 2005). Palmer (2004) found that exciting hands-on activities and discrepant events have motivational value in a teacher preparation program. In a study with preservice teachers, Jarrett (1998) found that exploratory activities tended to be rated playful, fun and interesting and that preservice teachers intended to implement those activities in their future classrooms. In another study, Palmer (2002) found that preservice teachers who observed children at an interactive science center recognized the importance of hands-on science teaching and the value of making science fun. Due to a professional development program, Radford (1998) found increases in positive attitudes toward science among middle-grades life science teachers. These increases were explained by the inclusion of fun activities that could be implemented in the classroom.

*Play* is not a separate variable in this study but is being defined here because it is discussed in the literature review and is connected with fun and playfulness in science activities. According to Klugman and Fasoli (1995, p.101) play includes some but not necessarily all of the following aspects: intrinsic, self-selected, enjoyable, active, mind involving, and empowering. It is intriguing and captivating, frequently involves choice on the part of the player, and can be self-perpetuating. Play takes a variety of forms. Some of these are exploratory, functional, constructive, symbolic, and games with rules. According to Dewey (1933/1986), *playfulness* is an attitude of mind and play is expression of that attitude. *Playing* in the context of doing research refers to exploring, “messing around,” “tinkering,” and toying with various ideas or data. *Fun* is defined as a subset of play but all play is not fun and not everything that is fun would be considered play (Arieti, 1976). In this study, fun generally refers to having enjoyment while working or doing a class activity or assignment (e.g. science fair project).

**Method**

*Participants and Context*

The participants in this study were undergraduate preservice elementary teachers in two sections of a science methods course during the spring semester 2006 in the Early Childhood Education Department of the College of an urban southern university in the U.S.A. The preservice teachers were second semester juniors in the undergraduate program. The program was heavily field-based with school placements for different methods courses each semester in schools having various levels of partnership with the university. Following a developmental sequence, preservice teachers were placed in pre-K and Kindergarten classrooms and eventually were placed in grades four or five classrooms. They were in schools two days a week, placed with an experienced cooperating teacher and observed at regular intervals by a university supervisor. They also took classes on campus two days a week. They had taken at least two semesters of laboratory-based science content courses before being admitted to the early childhood education program. One section of the science methods course with 25 students was taught by the researcher (a doctoral student). The other section with 28 students was taught by another doctoral student. All the preservice teachers, a total of 53 participants, agreed to participate in this research study.
The overall goal of the course as stated in the course syllabus was: “To teach science content and inquiry methods in such a way that those teaching pre-K-5 will feel confident, skilled, and motivated to integrate inquiry science into the curriculum.” The course was designed in a way that similar content and pedagogy were used in both classes. They were taught by the researcher and his wife, a doctoral candidate in the department. The instructors planned the course together and the instruction in both sections was similar. The same strategies and activities were used in both classes. They both modeled how to teach through inquiry by using hands-on centers, discovery tub activities, demonstrations, and dialogue journaling. Students participated in hands-on stations and discovery tubs, wrote in journals, and engaged in classroom discussion. Most of the class time was spent on modeling hands-on learning stations and discovery tub activities (Pearce, 1999, 2002). Some of the hands-on learning stations were designed to teach specific science content and required structure, instruction, and predetermined questions in each station. Others were open-ended discovery tub activities (Pearce, 1999, 2002) that included a variety of materials that could be used in various ways.

Throughout the semester, over 73 hands-on activities at various levels of inquiry were implemented in the 37.5-hour course. Activities were chosen to model inquiry teaching, teach some content, and develop conceptual understanding. In addition, priority was given to activities suitable for children but also fun for adults, especially activities designed to generate student interest in science and hopefully in teaching science: (a) discrepant activities to provide excitement (for example, cutting a magnetic field with scissors, making polymers, Bernoulli Principle), and (b) enjoyable activities to engage in playful science (for example, paper helicopters, scientific toys, making games out of such materials as magnets, electric motor, batteries, toy cars). Most of the activities used local, readily found and inexpensive materials. The majority of the activities involved active participation and group work of preservice teachers to investigate the different aspects of an activity by posing questions and conducting investigations. More detailed descriptions of the class activities are found in Bulunuz (2007).

Assignments included: reflections on readings, doing a science fair project, and implementing activities with children during their field assignments. To apply what they learned, the preservice teachers implemented discovery tubs (materials the children could explore and investigate) and learning stations with children during their field placements, using their course experience as a model. The discovery tubs and learning stations could include materials and suggested questions implemented in class or they could be entirely developed by the students. In both assignments, the preservice teachers were expected to plan the activities, assemble materials, give instructions, and, as appropriate, allow students to pose questions, plan investigations, and make discoveries.

Data Sources

Science Teaching Survey I & II. One purpose of these surveys was to describe students’ initial attitudes and interest in science and to detect any changes in their attitudes and interest from the beginning to the end of the science methods course. Science Teaching Survey I, given as a pretest at the beginning of the semester, includes six statements adapted from the studies by Radford (1998) and Jarrett (1999). The Radford survey reported no reliability or validity measures. The two five-point Likert scale questions
adapted from the survey by Jarrett (1999) have test-retest agreement as follows: 71% identical answers and 29% answers varying by one point.

Science Teaching Survey II, given as a posttest, includes the questions in Survey I plus two additional questions; one on interest in teaching science, the other on whether one would choose to teach science. The latter question involved a forced choice on whether one would choose to teach science, given the offer of two otherwise similar teaching positions (See Question 10 on the Science Teaching Survey II in the Appendix for the scenario). Those two questions were dependent variables in regression analyses on the contribution initial interest in science and the science methods course as predictors of interest in science teaching and the choice to teach science. With a small sample, test-retest agreement was calculated on the nine five-point Likert Scale items on Science Teaching survey II. There was 92% general agreement, either exact agreement or the answer varied by one point. For the dichotomously coded item (Question 10), 83% of the students gave identical answers both times.

Activity Rating Survey. In order to measure situational interest at the end of each class period, students rated the hands-on activities they engaged in during that class using a five-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (low) to 5 (high). Their ratings were on three dimensions: (a) fun, how much fun it was, (b) interest, how interesting it was, and (c) learning, how much they learned from it. The students’ ratings on these qualities were averaged to determine the level of situational interest in the course.

Course Rating Survey. On this survey, given during the final class session, students were asked to rate the following on a five-point Likert scale: their learning about inquiry, their overall enjoyment of the course, and their description of the course on dimensions of fun, interest, hands-on, student input, learning, and understanding. They were also asked about experiencing inquiry learning, learning about teaching through inquiry, and feeling prepared to teach science as inquiry. Answers on this survey were used as predictor variables in regression analyses on the contribution of the course to interest in teaching science.

Results
Impact of the course on participants’ interest and attitude toward science

In order to ascertain whether the course activities created a situational interest in science for most of the students, the weekly ratings on fun, interest and learning were averaged. The ratings on these qualities were all positive. The students had a rating on fun with mean (s.d) of 4.21 (.52). The rating on learning had mean and (s.d) of 4.12 (.53). Similarly, the ratings on interest had mean (s.d) of 4.31 (.51). Since the mid point of the scale is 3, this numbers indicate that the course activities had created situational interest for most of the students.

To determine whether students became more positive toward science from beginning to end of the course, pretest and posttest scores on common items on the Science Teaching Surveys I and II were compared using paired samples t-tests. Table I shows the means and standard deviations of the questions common to the two surveys.
Students were significantly more positive at the end of the course on Question 2 (solving own problems, p < .001), Question 3 (ability to think scientifically, p < .001), Question 4 (fun to teach, p < .001), Question 6 (allow students to conduct own experiments, p < .01), and Question 7 (interest in science, p < .001). On Question 5 concerning emphasis on process skills, the students became significantly less positive, p < .001. The increase on Questions 1 and 8 concerning science being fun approached significance (p = .10).

Science Methods Course Contribution to Participants’ Interest in Teaching Science

It was assumed that desire to teach science at the end of the course was a combination of initial interest in science and the effect of the course. Therefore, to answer the research question concerning the effect of the course on interest in science teaching, initial interest in science, interest in teaching science and various aspects of the science methods course from the Course Rating Survey were analyzed. Table II includes the means and standard deviations of answers on the Course Rating Survey. Since all the means are greater than 4 in 5-point Likert scale, this result indicates that science methods course was positive on dimensions of fun, interest, hands-on, student input, learning, and understanding emphasis. Also, the course was positive in terms of experiencing, learning and feeling prepared to teach science through inquiry.

To investigate the best predictors of interest in teaching science, step-wise regression analyses were computed. The variables that were significantly correlated with interest in teaching science were included in the regression analyses to determine which variables significantly predicted interest in teaching science. The independent variables and the dependent variable, interest in teaching science, are all on 5-point scales with 5 as the highest response. The results of the regression analysis predicting the most variance in interest in teaching science are found in the following table.

The regression analysis found that fun in method course and initial interest in science were significantly associated with preservice teachers’ interest in teaching science. These variables explained 34% of the variance. The best predictor of interest in teaching science was doing fun activities in the methods course followed by initial interest in science.

To determine the influence of science methods course on the development of motivation to teach science, second regression analyses was originally proposed to predict choice to teach science (Question 10), from the Science Teaching Survey II. The question involved a forced choice on whether one would choose to teach science, given the offer of two otherwise similar teaching positions. The frequency for choice to teach science indicated that only four participants out of 53 did not choose to teach science.
This disparity in numbers violates the assumptions for multiple linear regression analysis. However, descriptive analysis indicated that the four students who chose not to teach science were all low in initial science interest.

Conclusions and Implications

The finding that preservice elementary teachers’ overall interest in science increased from the beginning to the end of the semester suggests that the course provided many activities of situational interest (Krapp, Hidi, & Renninger, 1992). The analysis of background science experiences indicated that 42% of the preservice elementary teachers came to the methods course with low interest in science and only 13% left the course with low interest in science. Pre-post positive changes in interest in science could mean that situational interest generated by many hands-on activities at varying levels of inquiry promoted personal interest as discussed by (Hidi, & Harackiewicz, 2000; Krapp, 2003). These results correspond to previous research findings that preservice teachers’ interest in science (Jarrett, 1999) and attitudes toward science (Palmer, 2004), can be improved in a science methods course through active participation in hands-on activities and collaboration with peers.

The study also showed that it is possible to improve preservice teachers’ attitude toward science, which was measured by participants’ ratings on their ability to think scientifically and personal satisfaction in solving problems they had posed themselves. However, their ratings of “science is fun” and “science is fun to study” changed only slightly from pre to posttest. Participants seem to have come to the science methods course with high positive attitudes that “science is fun” (mean = 4.19) and “science is fun to study” (mean = 4.19). Therefore, there was not much space for improvement.

In addition to improvement in attitude toward science, there were also improvements in preservice teachers’ attitude toward science teaching. For example, agreement with the items “science is fun to teach” and “when I teach science I will have students plan and conduct their own experiments” increased significantly from the beginning to the end of the course. However, on one item, concerning emphasis on process skills in teaching science, there was a significant decrease from pretest to posttest. One explanation for this may be that students were confused about the meaning of the construct, science process skills. This terminology was not explicitly taught or discussed in the course. Even though the students used most of the science process skills in the course activities, they might not have connected what they did with the phrase, “science process skills,” confirming that research surveys need to include terminology with which respondents are familiar.

The findings of this study can be interpreted through the lens of several theories. According to Krapp, Hidi, and Renninger (1992), Hidi and Harackiewicz (2000), and Krapp (2004) interesting situations, “situational interest,” can build to create sustained “personal interest.” The students’ perceptions of hands-on activities as interesting can be interpreted as situational interest in those activities. Situational interest might be an important factor in generating sustained personal interest, demonstrated in high ratings of interest in science or interest in teaching science.

In addition to inquiry based hands-on activities, students were exposed to several discrepant event activities and demonstrations during the semester. Experiencing novelty and surprise in those activities and demonstrations might have increased preservice
teachers’ development of interest and attitude toward science and science teaching. This is consistent with Piaget’s (1964/2003) ideas on equilibration and Festinger’s (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance that learning new things is satisfying and motivational. Also, throughout the semester, participants were involved in many science activities on various science topics, consistent with Ames’ views (1992) on task motivation that experiencing many different types of activities is motivational by providing relevance to ranges of students in the classroom.

To answer what aspects of the course contributed to participants’ interest in teaching science, various course variables that might add to initial interest in science in predicting interest in teaching science were considered for the regression analysis. The best predictors of interest in teaching science were fun in the methods course and the participants’ initial interest in science. Even though several aspects of the methods course (e.g., learning a lot and student input) were highly related to interest in teaching science, they did not enter the regression equation as predictors of interest in teaching science. One explanation for this is the high intercorrelations among fun and other aspects of the methods course. The finding that fun in the methods course predicted interest in teaching science supports the view that playful involvement with science (Laszlo, 2004; Piaget, 1964/2003; Pearce, 1999; Resnick, 2004) is a salient motivator for learning and teaching science. Fun can be critical in breaking the unproductive cycle in science education (in which teachers who don’t enjoy science prepare the next generation). In order to enhance preservice teachers’ interest in science teaching, science methods courses need to find ways to motivate students, especially those with negative previous science experiences and attitudes toward science.

When the preservice teachers were asked on Science Teaching Survey II to choose whether they would or would not accept a teaching position where they would teach science, only four out of 53 participants, all with low initial interest in science, said they would not take the science position. Their choice could have resulted from low interest in science or from particular interest in other subjects. However, for the other 18 participants with low initial interest in science to opt for teaching science suggests that the course had a positive effect on motivation.

Increases in interest in science and desire to teach science through inquiry and the finding that fun was the best predictor of interest in teaching science suggest that the fun and interesting course activities at varying levels of inquiry had a major effect on the students. In this course environment, preservice teachers had the freedom to explore their “wonderings,” curiosity, and questions, suggesting that course activities should allow students to experience a sense of playfulness and excitement. Classroom atmosphere should be positive, friendly, and supportive, creating a learning environment where participants should be able to engage actively with scientific phenomena and discuss their understandings with friends and instructors. If prospective teachers are already interested in science, learning about science pedagogy might be sufficient for teaching them methods of teaching science. However, especially if preservice teachers are not highly interested in science, a methods course that focuses on engaging their interest and sense of fun and that teaches them things they did not know before can be effective in building their desire to teach science. Such a course also models ways of teaching that could be crucial in building science interest in elementary school children.
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Table I
Comparison between Pre/Posttest on Paired Items on the Science Teaching Surveys I & II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Posttest Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q.1: Science is fun to study</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>.105</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q.2: Personal satisfaction in solving problem</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q.3: Ability to think scientifically</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.4: Science fun subject to teach</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.5: Emphasis on science process skills</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>-4.42</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.6: Allow children to conduct their own experiments</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.7: Overall interest in science</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.8: Feelings about “Science is Fun”</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>.070</td>
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<tr>
<td>Course Aspects</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyed methods course</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hands-on</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Much student input</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Learned a lot</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Understanding emphasis</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Experienced inquiry learning</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learned a lot about teaching through inquiry</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel prepared to teach elementary school science as inquiry</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE B</td>
<td>B</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun (rating of Science Methods Course)</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Interest in Science</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.38*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p* < .002; p** < .001
Note: R = .58; R² = .34
APPENDIX
Science Teaching Survey II

Carefully read each of the following statements. Some statements are about science teaching, and some describe feelings about science. You may agree with some of the statements and disagree with others. After you have read each statement, decide on your level of agreement or disagreement and circle the appropriate letter on this answer sheet.

SD= Strongly Disagree; D=Mildly Disagree; U=Uncertain; A=Mildly Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

1. Science is fun to study
   SD  D  U  A  SA

2. I get a lot of personal satisfaction when I solve a problem by doing my own testing
   SD  D  U  A  SA

3. I do not have ability to think scientifically
   SD  D  U  A  SA

4. Science is a fun subject to teach
   SD  D  U  A  SA

5. When I teach science I will emphasize science process skills.
   SD  D  U  A  SA

6. When I teach science I will have students plan and conduct their own experiments.
   SD  D  U  A  SA

Also answer the following questions, circling a number to represent your feelings between low and high and between disagree and agree.

7. What is your overall interest in science?
   (Low) 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 (High)

8. What are your feelings about the statement, “Science is Fun?”
   (Disagree) 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 (Agree)

9. What is your overall interest in teaching science?
   (Low) 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 (High)

10. Suppose the following happens when you are ready to take a teaching position:
    You have been offered two jobs, both at the same grade level. You like both schools. The principals are equally positive. The schools are about the same distance from your house. The pay is the same. The only major difference between the positions is that in Job A you would be teaching science among other subjects, but in Job B you would be teaching other subjects but not science. If everything else is equal, which job would you choose?
    ____ Job A, that includes teaching science
    ____ Job B, that does not include teaching science
This article reveals basic conceptions of the standards for continuous training of teachers in the Republic of Moldova elaborated by Cara Angela, PhD, (coordinator), Prof. Gutu Vladimir, PhD, Prof. Gremalschi Anatol, PhD, Solovei Rodica, PhD, Baciu Sergiu, PhD.

It is also concerned with the Teacher Education Policies in the Republic of Moldova from the perspective of changes that are going to take place in the Moldovan system of teachers' continuous training:

- Transition from a system governed by offers (institutions offer a certain type of continuous training, while teachers, having no other alternative, accept the offer) to a system adjusted to teachers' real demands, interests and needs;
- Increasing accessibility of the system for a wide range of training providers and, consequently, increasing the number of offers of training;
- Encouraging free competition, but also partnership between various training providers, which will lead to the improvement of the general quality of offers;
- Encouraging teachers to assume and create their own continuous training itinerary.

Taking into account the above mentioned points here are presented national strategies concerning teachers' continuous training in the Republic of Moldova, general objectives of the continuous professional training, reference framework of the standards elaboration for the continuous training of general secondary education teachers of the Republic of Moldova.

**Key words:** teacher education policies, permanent education, continuous training, professional credits, professional skills, ensuring education quality, standards for the continuous training.

Reorganization of Moldovan system of education has involved the following changes: restructuring of the legislative frame, reform of the school Curriculum and textbooks, modification of the evaluation system and the teachers' training system. A vitally important stage of the above mentioned reform was The Project of Reorganization of Moldovan System of General Education, which was...
initiated and financed by the World Bank and the government of the Republic of Moldova.

The teachers’ continuous training was aimed at preparing teachers for fulfilling new objectives of the Curriculum and employing new textbooks and system of evaluation, thus promoting quality, competence and efficiency of the educational process.

The Project of the Reorganization of Moldovan System of General Education put forward an integral structure “Curriculum – evaluation – continuous training”. The advantages of this approach are the following:

1. Ensuring coherence at the level of teacher education policies, standards and implementation;
2. Ensuring correlation “Curriculum – evaluation – teachers’ continuous training”;
3. Employing material, human and didactic resources in an efficient way.

Nowadays continuous professional training in the Republic of Moldova is integrated into the essence of permanent education or education across lifetime, thus reconsidering the relation between initial and continuous training. Continuous training is focused on four fundamental types of learning, which are pillars of professional knowledge:

- Learn to be, which means acquiring tools for educational knowledge;
- Learn to do, which means that an individual interrelates with educational environment;
- Learn to live together with others, which means to be able to cooperate with others while participating in educational activities;
- Learn to be and learn to become, this being the element of value resulting from all those three pillars mentioned above.

The general objectives of the continuous professional training in the Republic of Moldova are:

- Modernization and development of the teachers’ continuous training system according to the needs of modern society and international tendencies;
- Integration of the system of teachers’ continuous training into a single educational system;
- Integration of the system of teachers’ continuous training into the context of the educational reform in the Republic of Moldova;
- Establishment of a motivation frame for continuous training of teachers;
- Facilitation of social integration of people according to their professional aspirations and educational system needs;
- Establishment of favorable conditions for the development and maximal realization of teachers’ intellectual and creative potential;
- Update of knowledge and competences, as well as improvement of professional qualifications in educational field;
- Re-qualification, re-conversion determined by the educational system restructuring;
- Guaranteeing full use and design of national curricula;
- Guaranteeing the implementation of new educational and informational technologies;
- Professionalizing teachers’ career in the Republic of Moldova;
- Development of a “continuous training programs’ market” based on a loyal competition system, by means of which teachers can benefit from a diversified offer coming from the continuous training providers;
- Modification of the management through continuous training of teaching staff;
- Ensuring continuity between initial and continuous training and re-qualification of teachers.

With a view to improving and insuring the quality of teachers’ continuous training there has been elaborated the **Strategy for professional continuous training in the educational system of the Republic of Moldova (draft)**.

According to the **Strategy for professional continuous training in the educational system of the Republic of Moldova (draft)**, continuous professional training in the educational system of the Republic of Moldova is focused on achieving the following desiderata:
- develop capabilities to design, implement, evaluate/ self-evaluate educational activities;
- accumulate, innovate and produce new knowledge for continuous professional training;
- monitor the performances and the process of pupil’s development;
- pedagogical communication, communication with parents and community;
- respect pupil’s personal necessities and characteristics taking into consideration their age;
- develop team work and efficient communication skills, as well as create and maintain an environment of understanding and respect;
- develop professional practice, self-training, self-evaluation, monitoring and improvement capacities;
- develop capacities for designing and implementing new informational and communicational technologies.

With a view to implementing a permanent monitoring system of teaching career of each teaching/managerial employee and improvements achieved in continuous training there have been elaborated and approved by the National Council for Curriculum as part of the Ministry of Education “Standards for Continuous Training of Teachers”.

The Standards for continuous training of teachers form a referential framework for the continuous development of professional skills in line with the educational necessities, existing tendencies and the requested didactic degree, as well as with the motivation of self-training and motivation to perform a qualitative didactic activity.

The following Fields of Skills are included:

1. Specialty skill

2. Psycho-pedagogical skill

3. Psychosocial skill

4. Technical and technological skill
5. Managerial and career management skill

The professional skills aim at promoting an efficient policy concerning the teaching staff development, which would guarantee the professional development right of each teacher and at acknowledging teacher’s role in cultivating and developing individual, social and European values.

The implementation of The Standards for continuous training of teachers will contribute to maintaining and developing teachers' professional skills, and their involvement in continuous training. They will also add to diversification of methods used in continuous training of teachers, promotion of an efficient policy in the view of teaching staff development, which would guarantee the professional development right of each teacher, introduction of the professional credits system in the teachers continuous training; insurance of trainers and teachers mobility.

In order to implement the standards for teachers’ continuous training there have been proposed some categories of continuous training programs, types of programs, and professional credits.

Continuous training programs represent the anticipation of a group of actions made for the development of certain general and specific skills. Any continuous training program is built up on an adult learning concept and is based on practicing and developing knowledge, skills and didactic framework action schemes.

Continuous training programs will be developed on the basis of the following continuous training fields:

1. Psycho-pedagogy.
2. Didactics of Discipline and Specialty.
3. Informational and Communicational Technologies.

Continuous training program flexibility consists in the fact that each participant will create his/her own continuous training way, which implies going over a common trunk (mandatory) and choosing one or more optional packages proposed by trainers.

The professional development and the teaching staff continuous training will be accomplished by using professional credits system. The system of professional
credits represents a group of conventional numerical values which are used to measure and to express the normal volume of work done by people being trained to learn/develop knowledge and skills in the fields foreseen by the programs. The system of professional credits in continuous training is foreseen to have a triple role:

- As an element of internal construction of continuous training programs;
- As an evolution, promotion and obtaining didactic degrees criterion;
- As a norm for comparing training programs and the transfer of credits in the view of teaching staff mobility.

The system of professional credits supposes accumulation of a certain unitary number of credits at the whole level of continuous training system, which will be taken into consideration in obtaining didactic degrees or in obtaining a certificate of professional continuous training and also in teaching staff evaluation at the level of school institution. In this respect, each specialist will have a portfolio which will contain documents that prove the fact that he/she was involved in continuous training activities. The portfolios will be assessed by institutions competent in this field.

In order to put into service the standards for the continuous training of general secondary education teachers there has been worked out a draft of the Regulations of the Implementation of standards for the continuous training of general secondary education teachers.

The teaching staff involved in the pre-university education in 5 years will have 100 professional transferable credits which will be distributed as follows:

1. **Getting credits according to the categories of continuous training programs:**
   - **50 credits** from long term and medium term continuous training programs;
   - **35 credits** from thematic and modular continuous training programs;
   - **15 credits** from special continuous training programs.

   We recommend the teaching staff to operate their continuous training in such a way that the process of accumulating credits takes place during those 5 years.

2. **Getting credits according to the continuous training field:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Continuous training field</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Hours</td>
<td>Credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psycho-pedagogy</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didactics of Discipline</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational and communicational technologies</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>54</td>
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3. **Allocation of transferable professional credits to mandatory subjects:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program type</th>
<th>Category of disciplines</th>
<th>Module I</th>
<th>Module II</th>
<th>Module III</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long (I+II+III)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (I+II)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (I+II)</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (I+II)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short (I)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short (II)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Short (III)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Allocation of transferable professional credits to optional subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Program type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long (I+II+III)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (I+II)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (I+II)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (I+II)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short (I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short (II)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Short (III)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Allocation of transferable professional credits to mandatory and optional subjects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program type</th>
<th>Category of disciplines</th>
<th>No. of transferable professional credits</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Module I</td>
<td>Module II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long (I+II+III)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optional</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (I+II)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optional</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (I+III)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optional</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (II+III)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optional</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short (I)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
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<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optional</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short (II)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optional</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short (III)</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optional</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **Getting credits reported to the local - national dimension:**

On the completion of continuous training courses at the national level the specialist will get – **70 credits**, and at the local level – **30 credits**.

5. **Getting credits according to the carried out professional activities/actions:**

- Delivering 2-4 demonstrative lessons which show the use of some innovations;
- Having 2 - 4 extracurricular activities aiming at professional and social integration;
- Teacher has pupils with very good results – prize – winning places at competitions and olympiads;
- Participation in the „Teacher of the Year” contest;
- The publication of an article in a scientific - methodical collection;
- The publication of a scientific-didactic article in a specialty magazine;
- Presentation of communications at profile manifestations/ seminars, conferences, symposiums;
- Acting as trainer/performer/coordinator within the framework of an educational project;
- Designing and publishing a textbook approved by the Ministry of Education and Youth,
- Taking a PhD.

**Recommendations**

- Realization of decentralization principles as part of the system of teachers’ continuous training in the Republic of Moldova;
  - Necessity to efficiently apply the research results in the field;
  - Improvement and insurance of the quality of teachers’ continuous training;
  - Professionalization of educational field;
  - Insurance of continuity between the systems of teachers’ initial and continuous training;
  - Increase of personal responsibility of each teacher for his/her own professional career;
  - Promotion of an efficient policy in the view of teaching staff development, which would guarantee the professional development right of each teacher;
  - Design of some mechanisms/procedures, which would guarantee an agreement between the staff development policy and the needs of teaching/managerial staff;
  - Design of continuous training programs from the perspective of ensuring education quality;
  - Broadening international and trans-border cooperation with institutions of continuous training of teachers;
  - Motivation of teachers to learn all their life.

The following aspects are to be taken into consideration during the process of professional continuous training:
- Professional continuous training programs' accrediting and evaluation;
- Periodic updating of professional continuous training programs;
- Establishing the informative and documentation system for the professional continuous development;
- Accreditation of the institutions competent in professional continuous training;
- Cooperation with schools, institutions and organizations;
- Coordinating the demand and the offer at the national level;
- Interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary approach of the professional continuous training programs;
- Professional continuous training in the base of professional credits;
- Continuous training quality monitoring and insurance.

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The Meaningfulness of the European Commission Policy Paper *Improving the Quality of Teacher Education*: Estonian Teachers’, Teacher Educators’ and Policy Makers’ Perspectives

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Abstract

The Commission of the European Communities has recently prepared a policy paper entitled *Improving the Quality of Teacher Education* for the European Parliament. The Communication describes a vision of a European teaching profession that is characterised by well-qualified professionals, lifelong learners, with readiness to mobility and collaborative partnerships. The aim of our study was to analyse Estonian teaching professionals’ views of the policy paper.

For the purpose of our study, nine teachers, teacher educators and policy makers provided their interpretations of the EU communication paper in written and focus-group interviews. The teachers’ regarded the paper as an excellent guideline, but simultaneously idealistic. The teachers felt that the teacher education in the university was described accurately in the document. Time limitations and dissatisfaction with salary were regarded as obstacles for the development of the teacher profession. The teachers emphasised that the document needs systematic implementation and decisions on national level, but raised the question of how to actually carry through the implementation of the ideas. Further, the question of school leadership was emphasised. The teacher educators and policy makers regarded the national support structures, including induction year and mentoring as good solutions, but identified the need to expand the support structures beyond the novice year. They also identified development needs with regards to teachers’ skills and competences to engage in reflective practice and research. Joint research initiatives between schools and universities were strongly encouraged.

The teachers’ interpretations of the Communication paper were analysed against Estonian policy documents, such as Teachers’ Standard (Õpetaja, 2005), which describes the teacher’s role and competencies, and Framework Guidelines for Teacher Education, which describe general and special requirements for teacher education (Framework Guidelines for Teacher Education, 2000). The teachers’ interpretations and the analysis of these against the Estonian policy documents provide useful insights for the further development of national teacher education policy.

Keywords: Teacher education, European Commission policy paper, Estonian teacher education policy
The Need to Improve the Quality of Teacher Education

The Commission of the European Communities has recently prepared a policy paper on *Improving the Quality of Teacher Education* for the European Parliament. The policy paper was launched for public discussion in August 2007, and approved October 26, 2007. The policy paper introduces the challenges of teacher education in the European context, relates teacher education policy to other relevant policies of the Union, summarises the changing demands of the teacher profession, and outlines a framework for action.

Our central question is how teaching professionals themselves experience the challenges and opportunities outlined in the commission paper, and how they feel that the paper reflects the Estonian context. The aim of our study was to analyse Estonian teachers’, teacher educators’ and policy makers’ views about the policy document. Our paper describes an exploratory study based on written and oral focus-group interviews. With this study we would like to facilitate the dialogue between teacher education policy makers who outline national agendas and the teachers who in their daily work are at the implementing end of the education policies.

The following is an introduction to the Commission paper, which is a result of a process that begun with the Lisbon agenda for growth and jobs in March 2000. The Commission paper summarises the changing demands on the teaching profession. According to the paper, teachers are increasingly needed to help young people develop into autonomous learners by acquiring skills necessary in the society rather than just memorising information. In light of what we know from research about learning, teachers are expected to develop their pedagogical approaches to include more cooperative and activating methods instead of transmission of knowledge to passive recipients. The fact that groups are larger and more heterogeneous displaying a variety of abilities requires the teachers to facilitate the learning of mixed groups as well as of individual learners. At the same time the teacher is part of the school community, working with other teachers, the pupils’ parents, organisations etc. The paper goes on to state that initial teacher education is not sufficient to equip teachers with all necessary skills that they will need during their teaching career. The paper sees teachers’ commitment to reflective practice, a research base, and continuous professional development as vital in how well teachers are able to meet the demands of the profession.

Many European countries struggle with providing teachers the opportunity update their skills and knowledge (OECD, 2005). The lack of opportunities relate particularly to updating teachers’ competence in pedagogy including supporting individualised learning, facilitating autonomous, self-regulated learning, dealing with the diverse needs of pupils in heterogeneous classrooms, and preparing learners information literacy skills. The lack of coordination between initial and continuing teacher education, and the lack of a link to school improvement of the training initiatives does not make the situation any easier in many European countries. Investment in continuous training and development is fairly low across Europe, and only half of the countries offer new teachers support in the form of induction or mentoring, for instance (Ibid.)

Further, the Commission paper mentions remuneration and the age structure in the teaching profession as factors affecting the profession. Labour market conditions and teachers’ salaries in relation to average national income affect the competitiveness of the profession on the job market. Teachers’ salaries may not be competitive compared to those offered in
other organisations. There will be a substantial demand for recruiting and retaining a sufficient work force in the teacher profession when the large cohorts retire.

**Common Principles for Developing Teacher Education and Steps to Be Taken**

The Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications (2005) outlines a vision of a European teaching profession. In the vision, teaching is envisioned as a well-qualified profession meaning that all teachers hold a higher education degree, and have suitable pedagogical knowledge and cultural understanding. Teachers are seen as lifelong learners who continue their professional development throughout their careers. Teaching is a mobile profession in which teachers work and study in other European countries for professional development purposes. Partnerships among teacher education institutions, schools, local work environments, work-based training providers and other stakeholders form a supportive network for teachers and their work communities.

Based on these common principles, the Commission paper outlines a set of steps to be undertaken in order to improve the quality of teacher education in Europe. These steps include life-long learning, skills development, reflective practice and research, development of qualifications, development of teacher education as a higher education degree, and emphasising the teacher’s role in the society. When facilitating the dialogue between educational policy and individual teachers, the most interesting ones for the purposes of our paper are the steps of lifelong learning and reflective practice and research. The theoretical justifications for emphasising these two aspects – life-long learning, and reflection and research – can be found in a body of literature on adult learning and teacher development.

**Life-long Learning**

Teachers’ professional development has been approached through different theoretical perspectives, among them developmental stage theories (Furlong & Maynard, 1995; Kagan, 1992), socialisation theory (Zeichner & Gore, 1990), cognitive and personality theory (Calderhead, 1988), and workplace learning (cf. Mezirow, 1991). The Commission paper takes as its point of departure the fact that initial education cannot provide teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary for the entire teaching career. Developing as a teacher is a lifelong task, and it is best supported when teacher education and continuing development are properly funded, and nationally coordinated as a coherent and continuous system. In practice, this means that teachers:

- “take part in an effective programme of induction during their first three years in post / in the profession;
- have access to structured guidance and mentoring by experienced teachers or other relevant professionals throughout their career;
- take part in regular discussions of their training and development needs, in the context of the wider development plan of the institution where they work”.

(Improving the Quality of Teacher Education, 2007, 13.)

Further, teachers would benefit from
- encouragement and support throughout their careers to develop their competences through formal, informal and non-formal means and the recognition of these as valid means of development;
- having access to other opportunities for continuous professional development, such as exchanges and placements;
- having the opportunity and time for further qualifying studies and taking part in study and research at a higher education level; and
- participating in creative partnerships between different institutions, including higher education institutions. (Ibid.)

Reflective practice and research

By reflection we understand the meaning-making process of experiences as a means for the teacher to recognise his or her learning, analyse it, and share the understanding with peers (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Wang & Odell, 2002). The aim of reflection is not only identification of problems or weaknesses, but also the improvement and development of practice: the understandings created based on the experiences should be transferable or applicable in practice. Thus, reflection is also a means to deepen the understanding of one’s thinking and behaviour. A constant dialogue between one’s previous and current experiences is necessary in order to analyse the underpinnings of one’s behaviour and thinking. (McAlpine, 1993; McAlpine & Weston, 2000.) Practical, cognitive and metacognitive skills need to be integrated. The teacher’s work, as a continuous knowledge-building process, should be anchored in ontological and epistemological assumptions acknowledged by the teacher (Pickle, 1985).

On reflective practice and research the Commission paper takes as its point of departure the teachers’ role in helping “young people to take responsibility for mapping out their own learning pathways throughout life.” (Improving the Quality of Teacher Education, 2007, 14.) The teacher’s work is ethical by nature and as such it requires reflection (Pickle, 1985). To meet up to the expectations of this role teachers need themselves an awareness of their own learning pathways. Teachers are also expected to be developers of their professions indicating that they have a responsibility to develop the knowledge base in the field. In a context of lifelong learning, the teachers’ professional development implies continuous reflection on practice; undertaking classroom-based research and incorporating the results of classroom and academic research into their practice; evaluating the effectiveness of teaching; and assessing own training needs.

Teacher Education in Estonia

The development of teacher education practices and support systems for teachers’ professional development in Estonia has emerged from problems such as perceived low prestige of the teaching profession and high average age of teachers resulting in retirement of those teachers. Currently there are 16 500 teachers in Estonian comprehensive and vocational schools and pre-school institutions. The percentage of over 50-year-old teachers has increased by 63% compared to the year 1993; their percentage to the total number of teachers has grown from 23% to 35%. 11% of teachers working at comprehensive schools are under 30 years of age. Although the figure is similar to that in, for example, Finland
(7.6% of teachers are under 30), there are difficulties in motivating and recruiting prospective teachers in Estonia. For instance, Portugal (23.8% of teachers are under 30) and Great Britain (18% of teachers are under 30) have managed well with recruitment of prospective teachers. In these countries the percentage of teachers representing younger generations is as high as 18-24. (Õpetajakoolitus … 2006.) The foreseen mass retirement of teachers is likely to affect Estonia.

Since 1993, the formal educational level of Estonian teachers has increased in terms of numbers of teachers with a degree from a higher education institution among comprehensive school teachers and vocational institution teachers. 75-80 % of comprehensive school teachers now have a degree in education. Teacher education is provided in the form of degree studies regulated by the Framework Guidelines for Teacher Education (2000). The framework guidelines set out general and special requirements for teacher education, induction year, and in-service training. Teacher education for all school levels consists of three parts: (1) general studies; (2) speciality studies; (3) pedagogical studies including educational science, psychological and didactic studies, and practical training. The general studies focus on the development of the teacher’s overall cultural, communicative, and social competencies, whereas speciality studies provide subject-related knowledge and skills based on current requirements for the profession. An important aspect is also to provide the skills for how to combine this knowledge with an understanding of the human being, the surrounding environment and society. The general studies in educational science, psychological, didactic studies and practical training aim at developing didactic mastery of the subject, provide skills of applying psychological knowledge, and provide knowledge and skills of organisation, classroom and group management as well as teamwork skills.

Method

Aim and Research Questions

The aim of the study was to analyse Estonian teaching professionals’ views of European policy paper Improving the Quality of Teacher Education. The document emphasises teachers’ life-long learning, reflective practice and research (among other things). The central question was: What relevance do these concepts have as presented in the policy paper for educational practitioners? The paper describes an exploratory study based on written and focus-group interviews with teachers, teacher educators and policy makers.

Participants

The participants consisted of two groups: 1) teachers (N = 4) who after reading the EU policy paper shared with the researchers their reactions to the document in writing. These four teachers were a primary school student teacher in her fifth year of study, a subject teacher with seven years of teaching experience, one teacher with ten years of teaching experience, and a former primary school teacher with 20 years of teaching experience who currently works as a teacher educator (because of her extensive experience of teaching this participant was placed in the group of practicing teachers). The data were collected in October 2007. 2) Teacher educators and policy makers on the ministry level (N = 5) who
provided their reactions to the European policy paper in a focus-group interview in January 2008.

Data

The study utilises thematic, written and oral interviews. The data were content analysed (cf. Marshall & Rossman, 1995), and responses were divided into thematic blocks describing the meanings given to the policy paper. The written responses were in the Estonian language.

The policy documents relevant for the study are:
- *Improving the Quality of Teacher Education* by the Commission of the European Communities (2007)
- Estonian Teachers’ Standard (Õpetaja, 2005), and

Results and Reflections

Practicing Teachers

In the data collected from practicing teachers (including one student teacher) the following themes emerged: Opportunities (mobility) and threats (low salary, insufficient time) for developing the profession; relationship of the policy paper to the Estonian teacher education context, and suggestions for improving the situation (systematic implementation and decisions on a national level, developing schools as learning communities, leadership).

The teachers regarded the document as sound, but general and even idealistic. The teachers raised the question of whether the teaching professionals are in a position to meet the changing requirements of the professional as described in the policy paper. As the second quote implies, teachers of different generations may see the teachers’ possibilities to develop themselves professionally in quite a different light

“The document is quite general. The question arises how the written things work out in real life? For example, teachers must have additional time to do scientific work, put together study materials or carry out research. Currently, teachers use their own free time to do these things. If teachers want to write their master’s thesis, they can take only two weeks of study-leave.” (Teacher, 20 years teaching experience)

“On the whole, I think that this document demands too much perfection. Of course it would be nice if all teachers could improve and develop themselves in different areas, but in the Estonian context this kind of try-out could be hard to achieve. I presume that we have still too many “old-school” teachers, who wouldn’t go along with new ideas, no matter how good those could be.” (Student teacher)
It would however be desirable that all teachers regardless of age have the opportunity to deepen their professional knowledge and understanding through degree studies in a higher education institution. For conceptual change to take place, long-term studies are needed. Short one or two-day seminars and workshops may provide insights, but they are not likely to change the teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning in a fundamental way (Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne & Nevgi, 2007; Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne & Nevgi, in press). The slow conceptual change is also echoed in the quote from the following teacher, who implicitly appears to suggest a stronger emphasis on development of teachers’ pedagogical skills alongside subject matter content:

“The main change of teachers’ way of thinking should be that they work with students, not with subject. Most of teachers see their professional development through the amendment of the subject-teaching methods because they have been prepared to work with subjects, also the former trained class teachers, and schools are compared with one-another. They think that it is measurable.” (Teacher, 10 years teaching experience)

Another aspect of the development of teacher education, in which a generational gap may appear, is the opportunity to engage in teacher exchange. The EU policy paper emphasises teacher mobility as an important element in the development of the profession. The student teacher strongly emphasises the need for mobility and relates it to her own career path:

“I would like to emphasise one main feature of the teacher’s profession: mobility. For me as a student teacher, mobility is definitely one of the most needed elements in the teacher’s profession”. (Student teacher)

She then goes on to note that despite good intentions, all efforts to develop the profession necessarily requires that sufficient time is allocated for this purpose in the individual teachers’ schedules: “Teachers need opportunities an time (emphasis on the word in the interview) to get extra qualifications. It would be interesting to know, how these things are given to teachers”. Another teacher (7 years teaching experience) makes the same point: “Teachers cannot cooperate because there is no time and place, everybody has their own issues”. Dealing with one’s own teaching is seen as the most urgent and time-consuming task, but in the long run cooperation, for instance, could work to ease the individual teacher’s burden.

Salary is seen as an important incentive for the individual teacher, and a political tool on the school and society levels. The relatively low salary level was perceived as a problem in developing the profession. The student teacher notes that “Nobody is going to outdo themselves for such a small salary”. Another teacher relates this individual level challenge to the broader context of local schools and politics:

“If a teacher raises his/her qualification, he/she wants higher compensation. The allocation of salaries in schools doesn’t change because of the growing qualifications of teachers. In many schools, the management does not support the teachers’ careers because then some teachers would demand a higher salary. This is a great problem in small schools”. (Teacher, 20 years teaching experience.)
The Estonian teacher education received positive evaluations from the teachers. They maintained that the teacher education appears to a large extent to fulfill the requirements set forth in the document. The student teacher praised the practical training included in the teacher education programme:

“The teacher training in college is focused on the creation of positive cooperation between schools and teachers, and on real teaching experience. This is shown by many practices which a student must undertake in five years. I am sure that if the students get a realistic view of schools, they will be able to manage their work better in the future”. (Student teacher)

Despite the fact that teacher education received positive remarks from the teachers, they called for an open discussion on a national level regarding the development and future of the teaching profession and teacher education. This was regarded crucial in order for the document to find practical relevance. Systematic implementation and decisions on a national level following an open discussion were seen as vital. Getting practitioners and those involved in teacher education and policy development to participate and act in the systematic implementation of the ideas presented was regarded as an important element in the development of teacher education. The responsibility of all parts involved and the continuous nature of learning was called for by one of the teachers as exemplified in the following quote:

“Our teacher profession standard supports the same competences. The teacher cannot plan his/her professional development if nobody gives adequate feedback and if there is no systematic development and organised training activity in the organisation. The priorities should be negotiated on every level, like the Finns did in the 1960-70s. They understood that many investments should be made in teacher retraining and continuing professional training. This is a question of mentality and teachers should realise that taking courses is at the core of what teaching is, it is not just fulfilling the qualification demands.” (Teacher, 10 years teaching experience)

A national level discussion could also work to trigger the internal dialogue in schools. The individual teacher acts in a community of fellow teachers, school staff, pupils, parents, organisations, and so on. The individual teacher’s efforts, be they professional development or classroom research, should be seen in a broader context, the context of a learning community:

“It seems that a very important and right way is to think thoroughly about yourself and the development of the school, and to educate yourself systematically. The research, for example in the classroom, is really valuable, but still questions arise – why should I do this and what do I get from it? So, the most important thing is to create supportive mechanisms. I started to think about my development…, meaning that the document is also useful for the active teacher”. (Teacher, 7 years teaching experience)

If schools are to function as learning communities, leadership questions rise to the fore. One of the teachers painted a gloomy picture of the reality in which the school as a community does not support teachers’ professional development. As the teacher points out, the situation is symptomatic of the lack of mutual support and leadership:
“The school leaders are indifferent. Some teachers are in such a hopeless situation that they don’t want anything else but to give their lessons. I personally have had enough opportunities to develop myself and every time I come back from a training course I’m full of new ideas and excitement. But at school, everything goes back to zero. The investigation of my own work needs more time and cooperation. I think that a lot depends on the leader of the school. Our teachers are pretty well educated, but the culture of the school is in a very bad condition. (Teacher, 7 years teaching experience).

Another example shows that teachers wishing to participate in continuing training may be expected to pay themselves for the substitute. This indicates a strong lack of support from the school leaders:

“The substitution of lessons depends on the compliance of the school management. Sometimes, teachers have to pay for the substitutes.” (Teacher, 20 years teaching experience)

To summarise the teachers views, the document was regarded an excellent guideline, but simultaneously idealistic. The teachers felt that the current teacher education at the university level was described accurately in the document. Time limitations and dissatisfaction with salary were regarded as obstacles for the development of the teacher profession. The teachers emphasised that the document needs systematic implementation and decisions on national level, but raised the question of how to actually carry through the implementation of the ideas. Further, the question of school leadership was emphasised.

Teacher Educators and Policy Makers on the State Level

In the data collected from the teacher educators and policy makers the following themes emerged: national support structures, in-school reserves, school-based and network-based mentoring, teachers’ skills and competences to engage in reflective practice and research, and joint research initiatives.

The focus-group interview with teacher educators and policy makers on the state level (N = 5) assured that the first year support programme, the induction year, is well implemented. Structures are in place to provide support for novice teachers. The interviewed group expressed a concern for the adequacy of support for the teachers in their second and third year of teaching. The group maintained that the support pretty much depends on the local school culture, and identified the need to develop teachers’ opportunities to get support either in the school environment, the university or a county centre. National support structures for this group of teachers who are no longer in their novice year, but have limited teaching experience, are mainly connected to furthering the career, not developing pedagogy. Teachers are not aware of these opportunities, and these courses do not provide teachers the much needed feedback on their development. The interviewees saw teachers’ professional unions and county sections as possible actors in developing support structures for these teachers, but at present not all teachers are members of those organisations. The ideal situation would be to develop an organised programme through the first, second, and third year of teaching. This time is important as the teachers may, at the end of the third year, apply for a certificate on improved competence. The group expressed that the
threshold to seek help may be high for beginning teachers. The need for help may be seen as a sign of failure.

In addition to the national support structures, in-school reserves should be prepared to support the teachers’ development. The same idea was echoed among the practitioner teachers. The interviewed group suggested that teachers should have access to structured guidance and mentoring by experienced teachers or other relevant professionals throughout their career. Again, a lot was seen to depend on the teachers themselves, and the level of cooperativeness in the school culture. It was noted that in some schools the support of novice and beginning teachers was assigned as the vice principal’s task. The fact that the responsibility is assigned to a specific post helps to maintain the task on the agenda.

From here the discussion emerged into a serious challenge: the need among teachers for guidance and psychological counselling to prevent or to facilitate recovery from burn out. The group raised the question whose responsibility it is to deal with this challenge, whether the responsibility of national institutions, evaluators, or study support and support centers in regions.

The Estonian induction year is systematically implemented and appears to fulfill its role in supporting novice teachers. Some of the means of support, such as mentoring, could be expanded to include also other than novice teachers. The group suggests that all schools should have at least one staff member who has supervision and guidance skills; a school-based mentor. Trust and personal relationships were emphasised, leading the group to consider the possibility of having more than one person in the school possessing such skills. Again, the issue of the school as a community was brought to the fore. The group further explored the idea of establishing network-based mentoring on a regional level. They envisioned that teachers who have undergone mentor training could function as a resource for each other and for their colleagues who need support. Within the network, teachers could take part in regular discussion about their training and development needs, and get support in relating it to the wider context of the development plan of the institution in which they work.

Teachers continuing training should be planned according the needs of school development. The priorities of schools should be the basis for teachers’ training plans. Teachers’ individual development ought to be connected to the broader school context. Making the connections could be facilitated through a forum for discussion. The implementation of new initiatives takes time, and the school leaders are in a key position to implement in initiatives. Teachers need awareness and knowledge of the relationships between national policy and priorities and the schools’ own plans.

With regards to reflective practice and research, the interviewed group concluded that the readiness of teachers to investigate their own work is weak. Teachers do not engage in research of their practices, or they disregard it as being non scientific. Estonian teacher’s professional standard emphasises action research in everyday work, but one of the interviewees regarded teachers’ not well prepared for such a task. The work of class teachers, however, involves discussions with parents on the pupils’ progress and development. For this purpose, it would be important that teachers also investigate their teaching. As one of the interviewees explained, she asks other teachers’ opinions about the pupils’ development and compares these with her own interpretations. Despite the weaknesses in teachers’ readiness to engage in research, many continuing professional
training courses involve conducting research on teaching. Another opportunity to research one’s teaching is to engage in degree studies within a subject. As noted in the responses from the practising teachers, the amount of allocated time to work on a master’s thesis is very limited (two weeks of study-leave), which certainly may not encourage teachers to undertake such research work. Again, a generational gap was envisaged by the interviewed group postulating that older cohorts may lack the research skills as these have not been emphasised in their training.

Yet, the interviewees felt that teachers are keen on doing research provided that they possess the required skills, and the school context appreciates its teachers engaging in research. The initial education at the university may not be enough to fully develop the skills required for the research of everyday teaching practices if focus is solely on academic or scientific research. One of the interviewees provided the following examples: “How should I analyse the test results? What do you do with the answers of the questionnaires?”. Asking relevant questions from a practical point of view and utilising these to improve practice may require a different approach to the research task than traditional academic research. The interviewee calls on universities to take action: “Lecturers must be cooperative in initiating research needed in teacher education.”

To further teachers’ research initiatives, activities on a national level are suggested, particularly for those teachers whose initial training has included developing research skills. Educational researchers, teachers and university lecturers could benefit from working together in this area. Joint research projects between schools and educational researchers and lecturers at universities were suggested as means of furthering teacher research nationally. Such initiatives would require that teachers are allowed to take time off, for instance one semester at a time, to improve research skills and to engage in research projects.

To summarise the findings from the interview with teacher educators and educational policy makers, the need for national support structures for teachers beyond the novice year needs to be developed. The induction and mentoring could work as a model for the expansion of support structures. The possibilities of utilising in-school reserves, such as school-based mentoring, were discussed, and ideas on establishing network-based mentoring and a common discussion forum were presented. The teachers’ skills and competences to engage in reflective practice and research were regarded as vital, but in the need of development. National level initiatives and joint projects between schools and universities were strongly supported by the teacher educators and policy makers.

Relating European Policy to National Policies

Teachers’ competences have been the core question in Estonian education policy in recent years. The competence expectations for teachers were first described in the Teachers’ Standard (2005) and in the National programme of Teacher Training (2006). In the Teachers’ Standards the teachers’ competences are described in eight areas (Figure 1). The first blocks are related to formation and leading the learning process (including planning and management, formation of the learning environment, provision of information and learning, analysis and assessment of learners, development and the learning process). Interpersonal competences, such as communication, cooperation and motivation form the
The Estonian Teachers’ Standard emphasises the building of an attitude and understanding of the teacher as a reflective practitioner and a life-long learner. In practice, the Estonian teacher is responsible for his or her own professional development and for identifying and planning personal learning needs. The goal of facilitating life-long learning and reflection among teachers is very similar to what is envisioned in the European policy paper. The teachers’ status and role expectations, however, are influenced by values and attitudes in the society, and this may be a point where the countries meet different challenges.

In Estonia, there has been particularly strong development in the area of supporting novice teachers in the early stages of their career. In 2004, the induction year programme was initiated as part of the teacher education programme. After the first stage involving all novice teachers who started work in comprehensive schools, it was extended in 2005 to include novice pre-school and subject teachers. The purpose of the induction year is to support novices’ adaptation to the educational institution in which they work, and to promote the development of their professional skills through continuous analysis of practice and learning. The launching of the induction year in the entire country included the evaluation of the implementation model and empirical analysis. The outcomes of the evaluation enabled the identification of problems in the theoretical foundations of the model for the induction year, and the planning of activities to overcome these challenges (Eisenschmidt, 2006).

The Estonian induction year is based on the vision that teacher education in the areas of pre-service, induction, and in-service as outlined in The Framework Guidelines for Teacher
Education (2000) forms a unified entity with the provision of support for the teacher’s professional development as a guiding idea throughout the entire setup of training. This supports the goals outlined in the European policy paper.

Concluding Remarks

After analysing Estonian teacher education policy documents and interviewing specialist from in the area we conclude:

• the regulations of teacher education in Estonia support similar goals as the EU policy document, but
• teachers’ working conditions, school contexts and schools as organizations often do not support teachers’ professional development strongly enough to fully live up to the expectations on developing the teacher profession as outlined in the European policy document. From this follows that
• there is a need to support school development and school leadership as a whole for individual teachers to be able to fully develop their potential. For this purpose
• policies outlining educational initiatives for school leaders and local administrators are needed.

There are a number of factors influencing the teacher profession in the European context. For instance, globalisation tendencies, economic trends, competitiveness of societies are powerful indicators for educational policy including teacher education and the teaching profession itself. In creating a common European education area also other aspects of the society needs to be taken into account.

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References


TEPE Conference

Quality Assurance, Action Research and the Concept of a Reflective Practitioner

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ABSTRACT

In the article we present action research as a factor in the teacher’s professional development and as a part of processes in ensuring quality in education. Action research is characteristically performed by practitioners, in this case teachers, and directly oriented towards improvement in practice. In the article we analyse the main characteristics of action research and present the results of empirical research which were used to determine whether there are any differences evident between teachers who have experience in research and those without such experience in terms of their interest for participation in the research process and at which stage of professional development are the teachers prepared to do research the most.

We discuss the concept of the reflective practitioner which emphasises the particular skills needed to reflect constructively upon ongoing experience as a way of improving the quality and effectiveness of a teacher’s work. The concept encourages teachers and student teachers to reflect upon the effectiveness of a lesson or series of lessons through an attempt to evaluate what was learned, by whom, and how more effective learning might take place in the future. As such, it involves careful evaluation by teachers of their own classroom performance, planning, assessment and so on, in addition to and in conjunction with evaluations of pupils’ conduct and achievement.

Key words:
Action research, teacher-researcher, reflective practitioner, quality in education
Introduction

The effectiveness of teaching in schools would be substantially improved if teaching were a research-based profession and if educational practitioners were to play a central role in carrying out educational research. In the field of the education (as well as in the humanities and social sciences), two paradigms of scientific research were developed in the past. Reflecting their attributes, they are referred to as quantitative and qualitative, respectively. In the present article, the expression “paradigm” is used in the sense of Kuhn’s contemporary definition of a scientific paradigm. According to Kuhn, paradigms are “the series of reciprocally connected assumptions about social phenomena, providing the philosophical and notional frame for studying them” (Kuhn 1974, p. 39). Therefore, a paradigm is the sum of the values, convictions and assumptions that, with regard to a particular scientific discipline, indicate which values, beliefs, convictions, assumptions, laws, etc., are shared by the adherents of a certain scientific paradigm, and according to which the adherents form their tradition of scientific research.

Quantitative research, with its empirical analytical methodology and unidirectional or linear research process, models research on natural sciences. The basis of quantitative research is the belief that there is a reality led by stable natural laws, independent of people and waiting to be discovered. Its objective is to reach reliable, exact, precise, measurable, verifiable, and objective observations, which in social sciences would have the same value as findings in natural sciences. In quantitative research, the research problem is handled part by part. We approach different aspects of the phenomenon and deal with individual variables but on a larger number of units, most frequently on a representative sample of a population, since our tendency is to generalise the established observations. The use of the standardised research instruments, use of statistical methods, forming hypotheses and their reliable verification are some of the major methodological principles of the empirical-analytical methodology.

With the expression “qualitative research” we denote that kind of research where the basic empirical material, collected in the research process, consists of verbal descriptions or narratives. Further, the collected material is worked on and analysed in words without numerical operations (Mesec 1998). According to Creswell, qualitative research is a research process designed on a clear methodological tradition of research, where researchers build a complex, holistic framework so that they analyse narratives and observations, conducting the research work in the habitat (Creswell 1998, p. 15). The researcher is directly included in the
environment, which helps him observe the object of the research. In this context, the researcher should be aware of the fact that with his or her participation and the researched situation itself they influence the happening which they are observing. Further, to qualitative research, we also attach attributes such as phenomenological approach, the use of hermeneutical procedures of explanation, an orientation towards the process and the dynamic. Qualitative analysis is finalised by forming a grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967) which reads as a narrative of a phenomenon which was the subject of the study.

It needs to be stressed that the role of the researcher and the person studied differ in the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. The quantitative paradigm typically defines the role of a person studied – e.g., teachers – as mainly limited to data acquisition and the introduction of those changes established by other researchers into practice. In order to ensure the highest level of objectivity (as well as validity and reliability), a demand for separating the research object from the research subject is employed in quantitative research. This puts the researcher in charge of the research process, whereas the person studied primarily represents the source of information. It is typical for the qualitative paradigm that the researcher and those under research formulate the studied situation together, which means that teachers are supposed to participate in planning, data collection, data processing, interpretation, and informing the public about the study results. Qualitative paradigm sees education as a historical process and as a lived experience for those involved in educational processes and institutions. (cf. Kemmis 2007, p. 179). Its form of reasoning is practical; it aims to transform the consciousness of practitioners and, by so doing, to give them grounds upon which to reform their own practices. Its interest is in transforming education by educating practitioners.

The person who is in an ideal position to carry out educational research is the educational practitioner. At present a tiny proportion of educational research – that is, funded research, carried out by proper procedures and then made public knowledge through publication – is undertaken by practising teachers: the vast majority of such research is conducted by university-based academics involved in teacher education who do not teach in schools (cf. Hargreaves 2007). One of the main problems of educational research conducted by academics is the dissemination of research findings to practitioners. Teachers often complain about a lack of access to the findings of educational research, and this is one of the main reasons for educational research failing to have an adequate influence on the improvement of practice.

One way to change educational research so that it improves the practice of teachers in schools is changing the research agenda and research process. Changing the research agenda and research process means adopting as an essential prerequisite of improvement, the involvement
of practitioners in all aspects of the research process, from the creation of strategic research plans, the selection of research priorities and the funding of projects through to the dissemination and implementation of policies and practices arising from or influenced by research findings (cf. Hargreaves 2007, p. 10).

The idea of teachers conducting research on educational practice came from the work of the 1973-1976 Ford Teaching Project in the United Kingdom, under the direction of John Elliott and Clem Adelman. This project involved teachers in collaborative action research into their own practices. Its notion of the “self-monitoring teacher” was based on Lawrence Stenhouse’s (1975) views of the teacher as a researcher and as an “extended professional”. Stenhouse’s view of educational research implies doing research as an integral part of the role of the teacher, just as a teacher who uses research into their subject as a basis for teaching implies that s/he does research into the subject through their teaching. Another great impetus for the development of the “teacher as a researcher” movement was the work of David Schön, in particular his books The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action (1983) and Educating the Reflective Practitioner (1991). The discourse of the reflective practitioner emphasizes the particular skills needed to reflect constructively upon ongoing experience as a way of improving the quality and effectiveness of one’s work. The discourse encourages teachers to take into account the whole picture – analysing the effectiveness of a lesson or series of lessons through an attempt to evaluate what was learned, by whom, and how more effective learning might take place in the future. As such, it involves careful evaluation by teachers of their own classroom performance, planning, assessment and so on, in addition to and in conjunction with evaluations of pupils’ behaviour and achievement. It also implies a sound understanding on the teacher’s part of relevant educational theory and research (Moore 2007). In order for teachers to commit to research, it is vital that they become aware already during their studies that research of educational practice is one of the instruments for establishing and ensuring the quality of this practice, that they recognise research as an important factor of the professional conduct of teachers, and that they should be fully qualified for research. It is therefore essential for student-teachers to acquire the necessary knowledge in research (i.e., at least in fundamental methodological concepts and basic statistical procedures that apply to education) and to gain their first specific experience in research work. Students need the opportunity to use theoretical knowledge in methodology, for example, when developing a specific instrument for collecting data and planning their own research. Understandably, students do not normally conduct major studies on their own (e.g., on representative samples). For the purposes of their training, small-scale studies are also
deemed appropriate, as they may be conducted on samples that are, for example, represented by their fellow students from the same course or faculty. In this way, student-teachers learn about the applicability of statistics and methodology and gain their first experience in research already during their studies. It can be expected that those teachers who have gained positive experience and basic competences in research already during their studies will further improve their knowledge during continuous professional training. According to Schön (1991), practitioners should: (1) participate in research of their own practice and (2) develop educational theories that directly reflect actual educational practice. Action research, as presented in below, provides an appropriate means for realising these objectives.

The Characteristics of Action Research

Action research is a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social (including educational) situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of (a) their own social or educational practices, (b) their understanding of these practices, and (c) situations in which the practices are carried out (Kemmis 2007, p. 168). The idea of action research originates from a work written by social psychologist, Lewin (1946), who described research as a set of steps in a spiral, each containing planning, action, and assessment of the achieved result. Lewin documented the effects of group decision in facilitating and sustaining changes in social conduct, and emphasized the value of involving participants in every phase of the action research process. Lewin believed that research has a double function – both to produce high-quality social science and to generate applications for human betterment. One of the initiators of action research in education was Corey (1953, p. 70), who was convinced that “the disposition to study /.../ the consequences of our own teaching is more likely to change and improve our practices than is reading about what someone else has discovered of his teaching.” Educational action research is a form of educational research which places control over processes of educational reform in the hands of those involved in the action. Educational practitioners must play a central role in carrying out action research if its relevance is to be assured. The role of outsiders, such as university academics and school counselling service, can only be as collaborators, providing assistance. On Stenhouse’s account “In action research real classrooms have to be our laboratories, and they are in the command of teachers, not of researchers” (Stenhouse et al. 1979, p. 20). For teachers who wish to perform action research it is assumed that in addition to their willingness and motivation to undertake research they also have the possibility or professional autonomy to make the decisions necessary for the
research (e.g., implementation of changes in the educational and training process) (cf. Fraenkel and Wallen 2006, p. 568).

In action research the researcher prepares a flexible indicative research plan which has to be updated throughout the entire research. The plan of the entire action research divides individual realisable action steps whereby each step is oriented towards activity with specific objectives. The action researcher will embark on a course of action strategically (deliberately experimenting with practice while aiming simultaneously for improvement in the practice, understanding of the practice and the situation in which the practice occurs); monitor the action, the circumstances under which it occurs, and its consequences; and then retrospectively reconstruct an interpretation of the action in context as a basis for future action. Knowledge achieved in this way informs and refines both specific planning in relation to the practice being considered and the practitioner’s general practical theory (Kemmis 2007, p. 173). Action research is not distinguished by the use of a particular set of research techniques. It is true, however, that in general the techniques for generating and accumulating evidence about practices, and the techniques for analysing and interpreting this evidence more closely resemble the techniques employed by qualitative researchers than empirical-analytic researchers. These methods place the practitioner at centre stage in the educational research process: actors’ understandings are crucial in understanding educational action. One of the central techniques recommended in the reflective practitioner discourse is the keeping of diaries or journals by teachers (Moore 2007, p. 122) in which they reflect systematically on their experiences as they perceive them, keeping a record that can be returned to and re-examined in the light of subsequent experiences and providing scope for the self-setting of targets and goals.

Action research is usually carried out in a single school or class. It is important that the description and analysis of the course of the action research, as well as the results achieved, are published and made publicly accessible. With the proper description of the execution of action research the reader obtains a model of how the participants studied a specific situation, solved dilemmas, and improved the quality of pedagogical practice, as well as influencing the circumstances that ensure a higher quality educational process. While remaining cognisant of their own circumstances, the reader can transfer the results of the action research to their educational practice by taking that which makes sense and acting according to it or by adapting the findings to the characteristics of their own specific situation.
2 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

2.1 Purpose and Objectives of the Study
In this section we answer the following research questions: (1) What factors, in the teachers’ opinion, cause a gap between research institutions and school practice? (2) What factors, in the teachers’ opinion, could contribute to an increase in the research work of teachers? (3) Are there any statistically significant differences between those teachers who have prior experience with research work and those who do not, in terms of their willingness to cooperate in research work in the future? (4) Are there any statistically significant differences between those teachers who have prior experience with research work and those who do not as to which phase of the research process they are willing to take part in?
In so doing, we will rely on data collected by means of a questionnaire implemented within the empirical research aimed at establishing the degree to which teachers are involved in research work and the views they hold about research.

2.2 Description of the Sample
Our research was conducted on a purpose sample. The questionnaire was completed by 274 teachers teaching at partner institutions, of which 87.8% were women and 12.2% men. More than half of the interviewed teachers (58.4%) work in primary schools and almost one quarter (23.3%) in secondary schools. Of those taking part in the research, more than one tenth (14.1%) are educational workers who work in pre-school educational institutions and 5.2% work in other institutions (e.g., secondary school boarding homes, libraries, institutions for children with special needs). The average age of the teachers interviewed is 40.87 years (with a standard deviation of 7.74 years). On average, they have 17.58 years of work experience (standard deviation of 8.93 years). Approximately half of the teachers interviewed (51.9%) hold a university degree and one quarter (25.2%) have completed high school education. One tenth of the educational workers interviewed (10.0%) have secondary level education and less than one tenth of the teachers (9.3%) have completed higher professional education. Of the teachers interviewed, 3.7% have completed a specialist, master’s or doctoral degree.

2.3 The Data Collecting Procedure
Data collecting was carried out in September 2006. We prepared a questionnaire composed of four evaluation scales: about factors that influence the level to which the teachers are involved in educational research in schools; about factors that, in the teachers’ opinion, cause a gap between research institutions and school practice; about factors that could contribute to an increase in the research work of teachers; and about the teachers’ willingness to cooperate in individual phases of the research process. The questionnaire also includes three semantic differentials (which characteristics teachers ascribe to research, to an average teacher and to an average researcher), a set of questions with which we try to determine the teachers’ opinion on how much knowledge they had obtained about research during their studies and programmes of continuous professional training.

In the present article we will only show the data collected with the evaluation scale about the teachers’ willingness to cooperate in individual phases of the research process (S 1), with the evaluation scale about a gap between research institutions and school practice (S 2) and with the evaluation scale about factors that could contribute to an increase in the research work of teachers (S 3). On the basis of Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient, the evaluation scales reached a sufficient level of reliability (S 1: $\alpha = 0.87$, S 2: $\alpha = 0.68$, S 3: $\alpha = 0.86$) and validity (with the first factor we explain: S 1: 52.16%, S 2: 31.51%, S 3: 38.45% of the variance). Validity was additionally checked by factor analysis. According to the law $r_{tt} \geq \sqrt{h^2}$, the evaluation scales (S 1: $r_{tt} = 0.82$, S 2: $r_{tt} = 0.80$, S 3: $r_{tt} = 0.72$) have a good level of validity.

2.4 Methodology

In the empirical research we employed the causal-nonexperimental method of educational research. The data from the questionnaires were processed using methods of descriptive and inferential statistics. The statistical procedures employed were: frequency distribution (f, f%) of the attributive variables, basic descriptive statistics of the numerical variables (mean, standard deviation), the $\chi^2$-test of hypothesis independence, Levene’s test for homogeneity of variance (F-test), t-test for an independent sample, factor analysis to test the instrument validity (% of explained variance with the first factor) and reliability (% of explained variance with common factors), as well as Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient as a measure of instrument reliability. The data is represented in tabular form.

3 RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

*How can the gap between research institutions and school practice be bridged?*
In view of the fact that also amongst the Slovene public one can often come across the opinion that there exists a gap between research institutions and school practice, or that the findings of researchers do not reach teachers, we asked teachers to assess the degree to which individual reasons, in their judgement, condition the gap between researchers (research institutions) and teachers (school practice). The teachers assessed the reasons on a five-level assessment scale, where 5 indicates that the reason has a very significant influence on the fact that the findings of researchers do not reach teachers, and 1 indicates that the reason is not significant.

In the opinion of the teachers surveyed, the most significant reason conditioning the gap between research institutions and school practice is that researchers have a poor knowledge of school practice and actual conditions ($\bar{x} = 4.38$) and that in their reports researchers place too little emphasis on practical instructions concerning how the research findings can be applied in practice, or that they state too few concrete examples ($\bar{x} = 4.34$). According to the surveyed teachers, the poor transfer of knowledge (findings) from research to school practice is also due to the infrequency of contact between researchers and teachers ($\bar{x} = 4.12$), as well as to the fact that researchers do not deal with questions that are of interest to teachers, or that they treat cases that are not relevant to school practice ($\bar{x} = 3.83$). In the final places the surveyed teachers placed reasons that relate to the ability and motivation of teachers to involve themselves in research work: teachers do not follow specialised literature often enough ($\bar{x} = 3.57$); teachers do not know how to apply the results of research, i.e., how to implement changes in pedagogical work based on published scientific findings ($\bar{x} = 3.56$); the incomprehensibility of scientific articles due to the style of writing and the specialised language ($\bar{x} = 3.38$); and a lack of interest on the part of teachers in scientific and specialised findings that are not directly connected to their work ($\bar{x} = 3.35$). For a precise interpretation of the results obtained, and in order to prepare changes that could improve cooperation between research institutions and school practice, it would be necessary in the future to also obtain answers to the same questions from researchers and those employed in research institutions. Nonetheless, the implementation of projects in which research is conceived as a collaborative process in which both teachers and researchers participate is one of the most efficient ways of contributing to linking research institutions and school practice, to encouraging an improved transfer of findings. We developed this dimension of interpersonal cooperation in the project Partnership of Faculties and Schools, within the framework of
which we also implemented the empirical research whose results are presented in the present article.

**The preparedness of teachers for involvement in research work**

In the continuation we determine the degree to which the teachers are involved in research, and the extent to which they are prepared to involve themselves in research work in the future. It was explained to the respondents that research is the planned and systematic acquisition, analysis and interpretation of data for the purpose to contribute to the progress of professional understanding and educational practice (cf. Bassey 1995).

We asked the teachers if they had ever conducted a study or if they had participated in any kind of research work. Among the 274 teachers surveyed, almost three fifths (58.8%) answered that they had neither conducted nor participated in any research. More than two fifths (41.2%) answered that they had already conducted or participated in research. More than one third (37.2%) were prepared to participate in research and just over one fifth (22.6%) declined to do so. Two fifths of the interviewed teachers (40.1%) could not decide whether they would take part in research work or not.

We were interested in the extent to which experience in research work influences a teacher’s interest in further research.

Table 1: Answers from teachers with experience in research work and those without as to whether they are ready to participate in research work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Are you prepared to participate in research work in this school year?</th>
<th>yes</th>
<th>no</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>f %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes. I have research work experience.</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. I do not have research work experience.</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Between the answers of those teachers who already have experience in research and those who do not, there are statistically significant differences in their willingness to participate further in research ($\chi^2 = 31.582$, df = 2, $P = 0.000$). More than one half (57.1%) of the teachers who have prior research experience are also prepared to participate in research in the future. On the other hand, this willingness is expressed only by less than one quarter (23.8%) of the teachers who do not have any research experience. Almost half of the teachers without research experience (47.5%) cannot decide whether they would like to participate in research or not. More than one fourth (28.6%) of the teachers who have research experience remain neutral in their decisions. Whereas more than one tenth (14.3%) of the teachers with research experience are not prepared to participate further in research, only slightly more than one fourth (28.8%) of the teachers without research experience are not prepared to participate further in research.

From the data presented above we may conclude that experience in research has an effect on the willingness of the teachers to do research in the future. On the one hand, the data show that in more than 50% of cases teacher-researchers have had a positive experience with research. However, it would also be sensible to investigate the reasons for which slightly more than one tenth of the teachers who have already conducted research do not wish to continue this activity. These reasons may be found in specific schools with an unfavourable atmosphere for conducting research; they may also arise from a lack of research knowledge or funds, excessively ambitious and thus unfeasible plans, or from the fact that the final effects were not as good as expected relative to the invested effort.

**The stages of the research process where teachers are prepared to participate**

In the following sections we have determined the stages of the research process where teachers are prepared to participate.

Table 2: Stages of research work where teachers who have and those who do not have research work experience are prepared to participate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planning of research contents (what to research, goals of the research…)</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$ with experience</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$ without experience</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>planning of research contents (what to research, goals of the research…)</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>2.978</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodological planning of the</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>2.728</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teachers evaluated their willingness to participate in individual phases of the research process on a five-step grading scale. We established that teachers (regardless of their experience in research) are mostly prepared to participate in implementing observations and improvements in school practice ($\bar{x} = 3.97$), which is understandable as teachers usually judge the value of research according to its ‘applied value’, i.e. the possibility to change and improve school practice. The purpose of each study is to solve the problem, which means changing practice in the widest sense possible. Next is the teachers’ willingness to participate in data collection ($\bar{x} = 3.84$). An interesting fact is that teachers are largely prepared to participate in planning the content of a study – what to research, research objectives etc. ($\bar{x} = 3.66$) than in the methodological planning of the study – the research plan, process of data collection etc. ($\bar{x} = 3.51$). We can assume that content planning relates more to them since they have more knowledge in this field. Less interest in participation was expressed by teachers in data processing and interpretation ($\bar{x} = 3.50$), informing the public about the research results and the preparation of techniques and instruments ($\bar{x} = 3.36$). The teachers were the least interested in writing the research report ($\bar{x} = 3.18$). Writing a research report, which requires an in-depth reflexion of the research problem, and informing the public with the results from the study are two factors which are not normally strictly bound to the teacher’s everyday professional role but which significantly influence the teacher’s professional development. According to Ebbutt (1985), the phase of writing a research report and presenting the results...
to the public, in addition to developing research questions and systematic data collection, is
the main dividing line between the teacher – thinking practitioner and teacher – researcher.
The teacher-researcher is expected to perform the entire research process, i.e. they will know
how to form a research problem, analyse it in terms of research questions, hypothesise, create
a plan for data collection and processing, know how to interpret the obtained data, and write a
report on the course of the study.
Next we have examined whether teachers with experience in research statistically
significantly differ and at which stages of the research process they are prepared to participate
in comparison to teachers without such experience. By taking into account the assumption of
the homogeneity of variance, the T-test for independent samples (see Table 2) has shown
statistically significant differences between teachers with experience in research work and
those without regarding their interest in participation in individual stages of the research
process. Statistically significant differences were present in all phases of the research process,
except in data collection, and teachers who had experience in research work are largely
prepared to participate in all phases of the research process compared to teachers without
experience in this field. Again we can say that collecting data is a step which is also present in
‘traditional’ or quantitative research and does not require much effort from the teacher and it
is therefore understandable and expected that in this area there were no statistically significant
differences among teachers with previous experience in research work and those without.

**Measures for encouraging teachers to undertake research work**

We also asked the teachers surveyed how they thought teachers in general could be
encouraged to undertake research work. We asked them to assess seven reasons on a five-
level assessment scale. From the results it is evident that teachers do not undertake research
more frequently primarily because they are (over)occupied with the duties they are obliged to
perform at school ($\bar{x} = 4.28$), and because the research work of teachers is not appropria
tely valued in a professional and financial sense ($\bar{x} = 4.14$). Teachers are also critical of their own
qualification to undertake research work ($\bar{x} = 3.77$) and, furthermore, believe that the
pedagogical work of teachers in school is currently not conceived in such a way that research
is understood as an integral part of their regular duties ($\bar{x} = 3.69$). Regarding the qualification
of teachers for research work, we refer to the following data. After the reform of the previous
higher education system to university education (1987–1988) or the reorganisation of the
previous Academy of Education to the Faculty of Education (1990) all teachers are required
to complete a four-year university study programme where they acquire knowledge in the
fundamentals of educational methodology and statistics. More than two-thirds of interviewed teachers said that during their undergraduate studies they attended a lecture where they learned about statistics-related topics (67.9%) and methodology (69.0%). One-fifth of the interviewed teachers (20.5%) attended a training programme (seminar, workshop, lectures etc.) on research within their ongoing professional training. The interviewed teachers assessed their knowledge in statistics according to a five-step assessment scale with the average mark of 2.54 (standard deviation 1.03), their methodological knowledge with an average mark of 2.70 (standard deviation 1.09).

In the opinion of the teachers, their more frequent involvement in research would also be facilitated by a more suitable working schedule, which should be organised so as to enable research ($\bar{x} = 3.64$). It is encouraging that amongst the reasons for not undertaking research work more frequently the teachers attributed the lowest ranking to a lack of interest of teachers in research ($\bar{x} = 3.56$) and the prevailing atmosphere within schools ($\bar{x} = 3.30$). The atmosphere in the school in which the research takes place is very important for conducting action research successfully. School leadership and those teachers who evaluate the research work of teachers as one of the criteria for improving educational work, and who encourage teacher-researchers and in various ways cooperate in their research work, constitute an essential pillar of quality action research.

**Conclusion**

The Common European Principles for teachers’ competences and qualifications (Zgaga 2006) provide a starting point for the modernisation of study programmes in the field of education on four principles and three sections of competences. These principles are: (1) teaching as a highly qualified profession (2) placed in the context of lifelong learning, (3) mobile and based on (4) partnership. The three sections of competences are: (a) ability to work with others, (b) ability to work with knowledge, and (c) ability to work with and in society. Furthermore it is extremely necessary to encourage teacher’s readiness to research and demonstration of one’s own professional practice towards the progress of new knowledge (ibid). The effectiveness of teaching in schools would be substantially improved if teaching were a research-based profession and if practitioners were to take an active role in shaping the direction of educational research. In order for this to be possible teacher education must equip teachers with research-based knowledge. The critical scientific literacy of teachers and their ability to use research methods are considered to be crucial. Teacher education programmes require
studies of both qualitative and quantitative research traditions. The aim of these studies is to train students to find and analyse problems they may expect to face in their future work. The teachers’ experience with research work had a significant influence on their affirmative responses to the question as to whether they would be willing to participate in research in the future. In this sense, experience in research increased the teachers’ willingness to decide to take part in research at all. This was confirmed by the results presented above: more than one half of the teachers (57.1%) who already had experience in research were also willing to cooperate in future research projects. For the teachers without prior experience in research, the same willingness was expressed by less than one fourth (23.8%). Therefore, we must enable teachers to gain their first experience with research work already while studying, and their pedagogical work must be planned so that it enables them to undertake research (e.g., an appropriate concept of the tasks that teachers must perform, which also includes research; partial relief of other obligations, and an appropriate adaptation of the organisational work in school; the financial and professional valuing of research work, etc.). After the completion of studies, teachers should also be provided with an opportunity to remain in contact with research work (e.g., by participating in further training seminars and various projects) and constantly upgrade their knowledge in this field in order to make research an integral part of their everyday practice. Another important factor is school culture, which should establish favourable conditions for research efforts. If school leadership offered more support and encouragement to research work in schools, and provided the necessary assistance for such work, teachers would most certainly undertake research activity more often. Readiness for inclusion in research work, qualification to conduct action research and participation in research projects are important factors that increase the quality of the practice of teachers. The responsibility for professional training in this field, for stimulating teachers to study their ongoing educational practice and for disseminating results should, therefore, not only be assumed by teachers and schools but by all institutions concerned with the training of teaching staff: faculties educating future teaching staff, educational institutions employing teaching staff and relevant state institutions.

References:


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Researching teacher education and teacher practice:

Croatian perspective

Summary:
The aim of the paper is to outline the current developments in teacher education research in Croatia with the emphasis on the changes introduced by the implementation of Bologna process. Two aspects of teacher education research: research on and research in teacher education are explored using phenomenological approach. Research on teacher education has been grouped in three categories: policy oriented research, curriculum development and
Bologna process monitoring studies, small-scale research conducted in specific settings such as university classrooms and practicing schools. Research in teacher education has been divided into four categories: research related to subject content knowledge, research related to educational sciences, interdisciplinary research connecting subject content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (teaching methodologies), and evaluation research. For each category a short description of the state of art as well as the outlines of its strengths and weaknesses are given. In conclusion general recommendations for the strengthening of the area of teacher education research are offered.

**Key words:** teacher education, evidence-based teacher education, research on teacher education, research in teacher education, Bologna process

1.**Introduction**

The discussions of why, how, who and for whom to do research in teacher education dominate the educational sciences last decade with wide polarization of views. The critics raise issues at several levels. One is related to the general approach in the field which seems to consist of non-cumulative research data. Others point out problems with the external validity of the data and their limited possibility to generalize from one context to another. Another set of issues are related to teachers' or policy maker' motivation to apply new knowledge or to perceive it as useful. Still others point out that the main problem lies in the ineffective communication of research findings to the wider public (Brusling, 2005). Such serious critical arguments might give an impression that this line of research is at dead end carrying the danger of being at least temporarily abandoned. But in spite of controversies it seems that the evidence-based approach to teacher education and its importance for the effectiveness of teaching and learning has come into focus of wider public from policy makers at the highest level to school authorities and school practitioners. This topic has become the central theme of several conferences at the EU level leading to the conclusion that not only researchers should expand their study of teaching and teacher education but that research competences should also become the standard component of teachers' toolkit (Niemi, 2005). At this moment we can only speculate what was „the tipping
point“ (Gladwell, 2006) which helped to bridge the gap between the theory, research and practice. Perhaps, it was the use of new concepts describing desirable social goals such as „knowledge society“, „learning society“, or „life-long learning for all“. The concepts from economy such as cost benefit analysis, accountability, quality management also took hold into education, especially at the level of higher education. This line of thought supported the establishment of generally recognized quality indicators in education as well as gave rise to the series of international comparative studies on the effectiveness of the education in terms of learning outcomes. The contribution to the strengthening of the research in teacher education might have also come from the implementation of such practices as benchmarking of teacher education and teacher practices between educational systems or analyzing experiences from other fields. Actually the notion of evidence based practice has been derived from comparison with the medical practice (Brussling, 2005). We might still add a lot of items to our list of hypothetical factors which contributed to the recognition of the importance of research in and on teacher education what in itself might become a new interesting research topic. 

But in this paper our main interest lies in the examination of different aspects of research related to teacher education in Croatia. Our aim is to investigate whether the current process of transformation of teacher education supports the relevant research which might provide the more solid base for long term planning, decision making as well as for the immediate improvement of school practice.

In this presentation we will focus on outlining the major research trends in Croatian teacher education with some illustrations in each research stream and will also try to propose a categorical framework for the future in-depth analysis of the field.

2. Domains in teacher education research

The teacher education research usually falls in two broad categories labeled as “research on teacher education and teaching practice” and “research in teacher education and teacher practice”. **Research on teacher education** can be further categorized according to the different criteria. One of them is the use of research results at three levels:
a) at the macro level for defining policy and supporting decision making;
b) at the intermediate level for curriculum development of pre-service and in-service teacher education;
c) at the micro level for practice evaluation purposes conducted in specific settings such as university classrooms, practicing schools, etc.

Second criteria could be the orientation towards outcomes/products or processes. Research orientation also defines methodological approaches – qualitative or quantitative methods and sources used.

**Research in teacher education** and teacher practice consists of several aspects:

a) Research related to the subject content knowledge – meaning that teachers should understand how knowledge is generated in their specific academic disciplines and also should have the knowledge of most recent research results in research in subjects they teach. They should develop critical scientific literacy and they should be able to teach their students how to critically read and evaluate scientific data.

b) Research related to the educational sciences – meaning that teachers should be able to understand and participate in research related to different variables in educational contexts.

c) Interdisciplinary research connecting subject content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (teaching methodologies).

d) Evaluation research – meaning that teacher education should prepare teachers in using research methodology to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching. It also means that teachers should learn how to interpret the obtain data, how to communicate and how to make evidence based decisions.

e) Research – oriented attitude and value of lifelong learning - meaning that teacher education should support teachers in development of new aspects of their professional role. They should perceive themselves as agents of change in changing society being analytical, open to new experiences, innovative and committed to lifelong learning.


3. Research on teacher education

a) Policy oriented research

Recently Croatian educational system has changed at all levels including also teacher education system. Bologna process has profoundly transformed initial teacher education affecting also the in-service teacher education. It should be noted that the changes in initial teacher education have also started from within, due to the internally recognized needs for improvement. Policy oriented research had an important role in those developments. That kind of research is relatively new in our educational tradition and the support of international programs, experts and funds (EU - CARDS, World bank, OECD, OSI, etc.) had an important role in initiating such studies. Some of these programs also supported the institutional capacity building, such as the Center for research and development in education in Zagreb. The Center started its first larger scale educational policy oriented research program in 2003 with a set of interrelated research projects in curriculum development, teacher education, external evaluation of educational outcomes, and structural aspects of school system. As an illustration of above mentioned projects can serve a large scale study Development of a model of teacher lifelong education, carried out from 2001 to 2006. (Vizek Vidović, 2005). This study combines multiple sources and multiple methods approach in examining Croatian teacher education within EU context. The methodology used consisted of content analysis of relevant national and international documents, analysis of existing statistical data combining with large scales surveys of student teachers, practicing teachers and university teachers. Based on the results of this study the general recommendations for the development of initial and in-service teacher education model were proposed.

Some of the research projects on national teacher education system, supported by the Ministry of science, education and sport and by international institutions and grants, were also carried out at the universities. The projects Programme for acquisition of educational competencies of subject teachers (Domović, 2005) and Structure of lifelong teacher education (Radeka, 2007–2010) fall into that category.

Furthermore, some studies were initiated by the Ministry itself, such as Teacher Education in Croatia and Other European Countries (Domović and Oldroyd, 2005).
b) Curriculum development and Bologna process monitoring studies

Implementation of Bologna process had a special significance for initial teacher education for various reasons. First, the education of prospective primary teachers has been upgraded from vocational college to the university level. So, the duration of education of all school teachers (classroom and subject, primary and secondary level) has been equalized with other university programs leading to the MA degree. Moreover, the third cycle (Ph.D. program) has been opened for primary teachers which did not exist before. Those structural changes were accompanied by the new requirements for teacher educators and for curriculum development. Structural changes were also introduced in the education of prospective secondary school teachers. All teacher faculties educating secondary school teachers adopted two cycle model and in some cases simultaneous model has been replaced by consecutive one. The implementation of these changes was facilitated by the participation of Croatian experts in EU projects supporting and monitoring Bologna process. These projects also had strong research component providing indicators for comparisons and benchmarking.

Examples of such EU projects in which Croatian representatives participate is The Tuning Education Structures in Europe-phase III: Validation, Dissemination and Further Development and phase IV Curricular Reform Taking Place: Learning outcomes and competences in Higher Education (Education group).

Some of the projects in this category were aimed at regional cooperation, such as: Improving of teaching quality in South Eastern Europe, Enhancing professional development of education practitioners and teaching/learning practices in SEE countries, Tuning Teacher Education Curricula in the Western Balkan, and Regional Tuning – Towards the European Higher Education Area in which Croatian experts have been participating.

Special projects were also developed aimed at curriculum development at teacher education at specific fields. Croatian experts were mostly engaged in the projects related to the foreign language teacher education (for example: Tempus project -Foreign languages at primary level: training of teachers).
There are also projects which are oriented towards curriculum development of in-service teacher education and training. These projects can be categorized as need assessment screening. Recently, national agencies (Education and Training Agency and Vocational training agency) which are responsible for in-service teacher training have begun systematically collecting evidence to support their strategic planning in this area.

c) Small-scale research conducted in specific settings such as university classrooms, practicing schools

Such research has relatively long tradition in Croatia and the results of these studies are usually published in several specialized Croatian journals, such as: Metodika, Odgojne znanosti, Napredak, Metodički ogledi, Strani jezici, etc. At this moment it is difficult to categorize them by topics because there are no systematic bibliographies or meta-analysis in the field. Regarding research methodology, inspection of several volumes revealed the use of both qualitative and quantitative methodology. In that respect it can be observed that the most advanced research methodology, including experimental designs, has been used in the research of teaching foreign languages.

4. Research in teacher education

a) Research related to subject content knowledge

In Croatia, as well as in some other countries (Buchberger, Campos, Kallos, and Stephenson, 2000) there was a long tradition of dichotomy in education of primary (classroom) and subject teachers (upper primary and secondary). Subject teachers were practically always educated at universities meaning that their study programs always had strong component of research methodology in their specific subject/academic discipline and the requirements for their educators combined both teaching and research competencies. On the other hand, until 2005 classroom teachers were educated at teachers colleges which offered tertiary vocational degrees. In other words, classroom teacher education was more oriented toward acquisition of practical skills and their educators were not obliged to participate in scientific projects and
research. Since 2005 when classroom teacher education was upgraded to university level the research component of the respective academic field has been introduced in the curriculum.

b) Research related to educational sciences

In comparison to the research in subject content knowledge the position of educational sciences research in teacher education was almost reverse. In education of subject teachers the dominance of academic disciplines was so strong that very little room was left for the teaching of educational sciences and teaching methodologies (between 7% – 10 % of total study time) (Vizek Vidović and Vlahović Štetić, 2003). So paradoxically, at the institutions where the educational scientists were doing educational research in disciplines such as psychology, pedagogy, sociology, their results were rarely communicated to the prospective teachers. Bologna process has offered a new chance for integrating educational sciences and research into new curricula for prospective subject teachers. In developing new curricula, the general recommendation has been formulated stating that the scope of these topics should be increased up to 20 percent and more. Approximately, in the half of the programs for subject teachers these recommendations have been taken into account.

Regarding education of future primary teachers, traditionally more space in curriculum was devoted to the educational sciences and teaching methodologies (between 40 to 60 percent). This ratio has been kept in new Bologna programs, offering also opportunities for developing the entirely new courses in research methodology.

It should be emphasized that these structural changes in initial teacher education have opened the whole new range of possibilities for advancement of educational research by establishing the third cycle of studies – doctoral studies and master specializations.

c) Interdisciplinary research connecting subject content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (teaching methodologies)

This field of research is still underdeveloped and consequently underrepresented in curriculum. It should be noticed that interdisciplinarity in teaching and research is missing in general, partially due to lack of structural support. Until recently the categorization of
scientific fields, system of research funding and system of academic advancement did not support interdisciplinarity neither in teaching nor in research. The proposal of the new act of scientific fields developed by National scientific council opens the possibility to establish interdisciplinary scientific fields. It might be expected that in the future this will enhance the development of interdisciplinary research in the field of teacher education.

d) Evaluation research

This aspect of research in teacher education (also action research, reflections on school practice, etc.) has been recently introduced into the courses of teaching methodologies or school practice, especially in the fields of foreign language and Croatian language teaching. It should be pointed out that previously the practicing teachers were acquainted with those topics mostly through the in–service training, especially when it was provided in cooperation with foreign experts.

Conclusions and recommendations:

Regarding research in and on teacher education in Croatia it can be concluded that it is still rather underdeveloped. On the other hand it can be also observed that recently the general level of awareness of different stakeholders about the importance of this kind of research has been significantly raised. The structural changes introduced by the implementation of Bologna process created framework for more intensive developments in this field.

The key factors which should be taken into account regarding enhancement of teacher education research are as follows:

1. It is necessary to invest in capacity building for teacher education research at the institutional level. The efforts should be directed towards the development of institutional infrastructure within and outside of universities. It means that the empowerment of existing as well as establishment of new research units is necessary.

2. Special attention should be paid to the development of research potential among teacher students at all levels with emphasis on doctoral students. The important mechanism to
achieve this goal is the academic mobility of students and university teachers. In that respect, the capacity building is also needed for student teacher educators, specifically for mentoring and supervising student projects and thesis.

3. The financial instruments should be provided in order to support interdisciplinary research and networking of expert groups at national and international level.

4. In order to foster the high level attainments in teacher education research the concepts of research quality assurance and research benchmarking should be widely introduced and applied across teacher education.

References:


From quality to audit culture: Who dares to say NO?

Abstract

Quality has been one of the key words for and of any educational endeavour – either in the educational reform or the evaluation of institutions, programmes and processes. Together with the transparency and internationalisation of and in education, it has become a magical word for policy makers, directors, deans and students. Even more, it is the word that is taken for granted as a prerogative for success and as an aim in itself. Therefore, it is almost impossible to find a person who ‘dares’ to say no to the current ‘quality trends’. There is, however, very little, if any, consideration for the concept from the point of view of the highly competitive, market-based and supply-demand based education, whether it is general education or specifically teacher education. Quality is everything; it is the aim of any process, work, institution, which is stated in any vision, mission and strategic aim of a country, institution or an individual.

The purpose of the paper is to deconstruct the ‘holy trinity’ – Quality, Transparency and Internationalisation, as well as to argue that quality, as it is implemented and in regard to the competitive, marketised national and international policy framework, leads to the audit culture in education.

1 Introduction

Quality has been one of the key words for and of any educational endeavour – either in the educational reform or the evaluation of institutions, programmes and processes. Together with the transparency and internationalisation of and in education, quality has become a magic word for policy makers, directors, deans and students. It has become an essential part of the vision and mission statements of educational institutions and almost a ‘magical’ word in the competitive environment of higher education in Europe and world-wide. In Slovenia it is difficult to find a faculty that has no word ‘quality’ in its vision or mission statement or in an address of a dean (see Faculty of Education in Ljubljana, Faculty of Management Koper, Faculty of Social Sciences in Ljubljana, etc.). Nytell (2007) also states that the use of the word ‘quality’ increased in the Swedish education policy documents from being mentioned 6 times in 1987 to the occurrence of 220 times in 2002. We can only speculate how many times the word is used today.
Quality is often associated with the quality process, or it is expressed as an aim of education. It is expected that Higher Education programmes provide quality education and connected to that also better employment opportunities and a better flexibility in the labour market and, therefore, they increasingly meet the needs of the contemporary market-pervaded societies. The ‘old’, traditional professional culture that encouraged the intellectual debate and enquiry, based on understanding education as a public good and a steering wheel for the societal progress has been replaced by commodified education (Olssen & Peters, 2005; Beckmann & Cooper, 2004; Roberts, 1998). Quality assurance, performativity and indicators, as well as the standards have been introduced to HE in order to serve the economic aims of countries. In Slovenia this ‘economic’ purpose of HE and commodified education is contained in the new development programme called Strategija razvoja Slovenije (Slovenia’s Development Strategy; http://www.slovenijajutri.gov.si/index.php?id=158) and associated documents. In this document knowledge is used as a source and means for the competitive advantage in the global marketplace. It is supposed to increase the well-being of the country through economic measures. However, in order to use knowledge as a competitive advantage, it has to be measured according to the standards and performance measures. How do we know how ‘good’ education is and how well it serves and contributes to the national economic success? Quality assurance in different forms and ways seems to ‘offer’ a basis for the measurement and evaluation of the national ‘educational success’. In search of the ‘meaning’ of education the emphasis is shifted from ‘knowledge’ to ‘quality, thus the questions are raised of why, how and what determines the economic prosperity or the knowledge economy (Olssen & Peters, 2005). Our opinion is that the answers to these questions form the ‘holy trinity’ - Internationalisation, Transparency and Quality - which presents the basis for the knowledge economy.

The purpose of this paper is to deconstruct this ‘holy trinity’ – Quality, Transparency and Internationalisation – and to argue that quality, as it is implemented and in regard to the competitive, marketised national and international policy framework, leads to audit culture in education. In the following sections we are going to deconstruct each ‘element’ of the trinity and in the closing discussion we are going to argue that quality in itself leads to audit culture in HE. The conclusion of this paper indicates some implications for future developments.

2 Why?: Internationalisation and competitive advantage

Political rhetoric includes notions such as ‘internationalisation’, ‘common European Research Area’ and similar (see Delo, 2nd March 2007). Very little emphasis is laid on the historical and already existing internationalisation of HE and research. Teichler (2004, p. 6-8) raises these issues and argues that internationalisation, when understood and related to the mobility, open research ‘space’, academic knowledge transfer and the international education, has existed also in the past. Several pieces of evidence can support this argument – from international publications, joined publications, visiting professorship to visits and guest lecturers at and from foreign universities. There is, however, a major shift from these ‘personal/individual relations and somewhat ‘impersonal’ communication through the publications to the institutional, organised and funded activities and processes.

During the current internationalisation of HE it is the institution and the individual who play an important role in the process of knowledge creation, storage and dissemination (Biloslav & Trnavčevič, 2007). The circle of shifting the focus from the institution to the individual and back to the institution indicates the new era of internationalisation, or better called re-internationalisation. ‘Going international’ was one of the major issues for the universities in the 1990’s. However, this re-internationalisation brought about other changes and above all
required a different management and organisation of the universities. In order to support, enable and also control the international flows international offices emerged on the organisational charts, structural elements of programmes changed (e.g. the credit systems) and the standardisation, or differently said ‘the sameness’ was developed. In the framework of the knowledge economy, as well as the economic prosperity and competitiveness, these changes were based on the flow of students, teachers and funds, and required what Beckmann & Cooper (2004) label as the ‘new managerialism’. “This largely involved introduction of private –sector techniques to public sector management in the name of economy, efficiency and effectiveness” (ibid., p 4). One of the arguments for introducing the business-like approach in the management of universities and the public sector was also the increased need for responsiveness to the needs of the global flexible market.

2.1 The market

The concept of the ‘market’ can be discussed from different perspectives. We can understand it in economic terms as ‘a place of exchange’, either ‘real’ or virtual, actual or symbolic – utopian-dystopian (Aldrige, 2005, p. 11) of value or material goods. Lubienski (2006, p. 4), for example, discusses the modern idea of ‘the market’ as a “/…/ metaphor, since oftentimes no actual marketplace exists, particularly in sectors such as education”. We can discuss market specifically in the context of marketisation of the public HE where the market is a ‘quasi-market’ (Trnavčević, 2007). Marketisation refers to a set of processes and activities based on the processes of decentralisation, deregulation, increased autonomy and devolution of power (Trnavčević & Logaj, 2007). These processes are ‘joined’ under the cover notion – a choice. Students are choosers, teachers are choosers and also institutions are choosers. Students can choose not only programmes but also locations, as within an open market they are no more bounded to one country or one university only. Teachers are choosers as they make networks and join researches with colleagues from the European and other universities. They do not need to change their jobs; they perform internationally by joining different networks and by establishing ‘alliances’. Finally, institutions choose – on the basis of the entry requirements and selection criteria they select between students and potential employees.

On the other hand, in order to generate the exchange, the other side needs to offer something in return – and they do: funds, reputation, family background, academic achievements, image etc. The exchange is generated only if there is ‘free’ space, open boundaries and seemingly limitless opportunities (Aldrige, 2005; Apple, 2004). Lubienski (2006, p. 4) discusses ‘the market’ from a slightly different perspective. He defines the market as an institutionalised area of social interaction built on some suppositions - one of them being the desire of “individuals to exchange goods, services, and/or other manifestations of value in a manner that will maximize their own individual self-interest” (ibid.). He emphasises the ‘institutionalised area of social interactions’, which is seemingly opposed to the limitless, free market ideology. However, in education, and we would argue the same for other areas, the proclaimed ‘freedom’ is always limited. In public education, limits are even more explicit (for example the enrolment number of undergraduate full-time students per faculty is approved by the ‘government’).

The current internationalisation – mobility, exchange, joined projects, European funds - contains the features of the market and also generates the existence of the HE market. However, market “… acts as a metaphor rather than an explicit guide for action. It is not denotative, but connotative. Thus, it must itself be ‘marketed’ to those who will exist in it and live with its effects” (Apple, 2004, p. 18). In the context of marketised education the same can apply to internationalisation. It can be seen as a metaphor for exchange, mobility, joined
projects and has to be marketed in order to remain alive. It seems that in order to ‘justify’
internationalisation and, hence, to stimulate the exchange, internationalisation becomes one of
the indicators of performativity, control and quality, in which commodified knowledge plays
the role of a ‘product’ offered to be exchanged.

2.2 Commodified knowledge

Marketisation, understood as a set of policies that ‘push’ educational institutions towards the
‘market behaviour’, also changes the nature of the education, knowledge and management in
HE institutions. Lyotard (1984, pp 4-5) argues that knowledge has become viewed as a
commodity and claims that:

“Knowledge is and will be produced in order to be sold; it is and will be consumed in
order to be valorised in a new production: in both cases, the goal is exchange.
Knowledge ceases to be an end in itself, it loses its “use-value”.

In order to make the knowledge ‘sellable’ it has to be fragmented, split into pieces
(programmes, modules, subjects and courses) and transferable/portable in terms of credits,
which express its exchange value. Knowledge transformed into information becomes an
object to valorisation in the new production. This kind of understanding also leads to a shift in
specifically in the whole system of organised learning.

“It is not hard to visualise learning circulating along the same lines as money, instead
of for its “educational” value or political (administrative, diplomatic, military)
importance; the pertinent distinction would no longer be between knowledge and
ignorance, but rather, as is the case with money, between “payment knowledge” and
“investment knowledge” – in other words, between units of knowledge exchanged in a
daily maintenance framework (reconstitution of the work force, “survival”) versus
funds of knowledge dedicated to optimizing the performance of a project” (Lyotard,
1984, p. 6).

If knowledge follows the same ‘rule’ as money flows then it has to be produced in ‘mega
quantities’ in order to be exchanged in the marketplace. Thus we can notice an increase in
study programmes, subjects, and modules that are offered in the marketplace. Sometimes not
much more than titles are changed but the ‘quantity of offers’ implies a significant change.
Knowledge, and we argue the same for education, becomes a commodity (see Ball, 2004;
Kenway and Bullen, 2001) shaped and packed as different programmes, modes of
dissemination and accessible to the choosers who are willing to invest in it. Knowledge and
education become an individual’s investment into the future ‘happiness’, employment
possibility and success (see Roberts, 1998). They are offered on the market – boundless
international market of programmes, institutions and customers. Investments, however, have
crossed the level of sufficiency for the ‘local’ producers and markets, therefore the profit
maximising consumers, or as Baldwin & James (2000) call them ‘students as informed
consumers’, are dragged from the international arena in order to make the market ‘alive’.

3 How? : Transparency
Strathern (2000) discusses the question of visibility in the social arena and argues that this is the place where visibility became an instrument of the explicit promotion. If we talk about transparency as visibility in the marketised policy environment of HE, then we need to discuss promotion. What is promotion in the context of the market, or specifically talking the marketing? Promotion, as Kotler & Armstrong (1991) argue, is a part of a marketing mix, a set of marketing tools that work together to affect the marketplace. In their opinion, promotion ‘consists’ of advertising, sales promotion, public relations and personal sales. In order to communicate effectively with the current and the potential customers, a ‘promotion mix’ needs to be employed – it means using a combination of promotional tools in order to reach customers and stimulate them for the ‘purchase’. The aims of promotions, as Stefanou (1993) claims, are: to inform, to persuade, to remind, and to reinforce. These aims can be achieved if, among others, intangible features of a service (and education can be seen as a service in the marketing language) are made tangible. The more the ‘invisible’ becomes visible, or intangible becomes tangible, the more success in exchange can be expected. In this case, visibility/transparency is a source and a tool of promotion. Education becomes tangible and visible through programmes, courses, credits and different indicators of its effectiveness and efficiency.

At the same time, in order to make education attractive for customers, visibility/transparency of the processes inextricably built into the nature of education is promoted. Thus the story of visibility/transparency and promotion is limited within the market-promotion concept. Education has to be transparent in terms of processes, programmes, comparability, structural symmetry and achievements/competences acquired by the students. Quality, however, needs to be transparent as well, because quality of the institutions, programmes, teachers and outcomes are also promoted. The question how to make quality transparent so that it can best serve its purpose of gaining the competitive advantage in the international educational marketplace, is therefore related to and dependent on the ability to make quality visible. Some assumptions support the concept of transparency:

a) There is always something that can still be made visible. If speaking in the language of the management there is always a challenge to discover or something new, better or improved to be made or revealed. Institutions can learn about themselves through different measures, models and approaches, and use the conclusions to promote themselves, to make themselves more transparent. Strathern (2000) discusses social structures, organisational values and other elements, which are particularly ‘desired’ to be made transparent.

b) Being ‘invisible’ and non-transparent is basically unacceptable within the market metaphor, because markets are essentially linked to the control and surveillance (Aldrige, 2005; Lubienksi, 2006; Olssen & Peters, 2005). Accountability includes control; the control of the visible – ‘the more it is visible the better it is controlled’ - and transparency is embedded in accountability, hence in control. Organisational and individual performances, achievements, procedures and methods are open to scrutiny and it is expected that this openness will lead to critiques and consequently to improvement.

“Transparency is in turn embedded in certain practices (artefacts, technologies) of accountability, epitomised by the notion of ‘audit’ in the devolved sense /…/. An organisation being audited is ipso facto being transparent about its dealings. We might, after Latour (1991, say that audit is transparency made durable; it is also transparency made visible” (Strathern, 2000, p. 313).
Accountability, therefore, also includes the ‘visible’ transparency. As such it is well marketable and a source and a ‘product’ for promotion.

4 What? : Quality

For commodified education the question of quality is central. Quality in and of education is a ‘magical’ word for policy makers, educators, deans and institutions. It seems we have come to the stage when even referring to quality already ‘helps’ to raise the public attention. From one point of view, quality is seen as an aim in itself, yet from different perspectives, especially those embedded in marketised education, quality is a means of gaining competitive advantage in the educational markets. If the quality is to serve this purpose then it has to measured and promoted. In order to measure it and pack it into ‘boxes of quality’ it has to become ‘visible’. Performance indicators ‘promise’ to pull out the invisible and make it transparent through the measurement and outputs. “/…/ performance indicators are highly selective objectifications of performances”, argues Strathern (2000, p. 314). However, they are not only objectifications, they are also a ‘selection’ of the visible, and the possibly visible, and measurable elements. Tacit, silent elements of quality are, however, not tackled. In the ‘hunt’ for the silent elements, not only in order to identify them but also to measure them, different models and techniques are applied. We trust the technique and the ‘technical man’ who act as ‘translators’ of the invisible to the visible and who make this invisible visible, transparent to the public using effective promotional tools. Derrida (2001, p. 178) in his discussion on relevant translations questions the logic of translation - ‘nothing is translatable; nothing is untranslatable’. In his opinion, this axiom is not simply contradictory but it reflects the “condition of a certain economy that relates the translatable to the untranslatable, not as the same to the other, but as the same to the same or other to other. Here the economy signifies two things, property and quantity /…/” (Derrida, 2001, p. 178). If property is concerned with the ‘transportation’ into its language - the most suitable meaning in the most appropriate and relevant way - then the law of quantity is concerned with the calculable, measurable quantity. Quality, which we are concerned with can be understood and discussed through the ‘property’ and the ‘quantity’ of that quality. Performance indicators can be seen in the light of property, hence indicating the invisible elements brought out on the surface in the best possible, relevant and appropriate way, while the standards reflect the law of quantity – how ‘much’ of quality is translated into the ‘visible’ and how much transparency is consequently promoted. This kind of understanding can be applied to the current quality models, approaches and definitions of quality. In the management literature quality includes the measurement towards specified standards and therefore the customer satisfaction has to be measured as well (Sallis, 1993; Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993). If the quality of education, an institution, a programme or a teacher can be assessed and measured according to the standards (e.g. credits, employment possibility, competences etc.) then the ‘invisible’ satisfaction of customers also needs to be measured in order to promote the quality from both sides – the visible and the invisible. For example, Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry (2008) have, among others, developed a model for measuring customers’ satisfaction which is based on identifying the gap between the expected and the perceived quality. By using two approaches (performance indicators and identified gaps), quality as a complex phenomenon is ‘translated’ into measurable items and is constantly audited. Audits are expected to draw public attention and critique, and therefore generate improvements (Strathern, 2000) or a ‘better quality’. In measurements we pass from quality to performance indicators and satisfaction – a passage that is, in Stronach’s terms (2007), no less than mystical. As such, it ‘promises’ an endless
improvement, even though we do not know an ‘improvement of what’. TQM, ISO standards, 6 sigma and similar ‘models’ of quality are based on these ‘endless’ improvements. However, as Stronach (2000) argues, there is a specific threat when this kind of endeavour is undertaken. Namely, once performance indicators and standards are established we do not challenge them. It seems that the indicators ‘lock’ the improvement process into a cage of indicators, in which we try to make an improvement – the audit culture is established as constant monitoring of whether the standards have been met. The published league tables are then only a step further. In HE they have become well rooted in the practice of assessing the quality of HE institutions in spite of the ‘limitations’ and threats they impose upon the processes (Charle, 2007).

5 Who dares to say NO? : Concluding discussion

Political rhetoric about internationalisation, transparency and quality is well embedded in the ideology of the market. The ‘holy trinity’ can be seen as a signifier, a Master signifier (see Žižek, 2006) in the policy initiatives for increasing the power and control beyond the national boundaries. Educational institutions arrange their practices and work with the established indicators in order to meet the standards and to promote the achievements/quality, so as to gain the competitive advantage. Once 'the quality' is published in a form of league tables the struggle to move up on the ladder of quality, or keep a certain position, then starts. Although we deconstructed the concepts of quality, internationalisation and transparency (what, why and how) in relation to the market-driven environment, and provided a critical perspective on these concepts we also have to indicate that these concepts are not new to education. As mentioned in the text, the concepts have existed also before the emergence of marketisation. However, in their present form their purpose, usage and related activities have changed. They serve the market and follow the logic and assumptions of the market. Therefore, who dares to say No to quality? If somebody does, would the 'search' for the indicators become meaningless and would the whole endeavour of measurement and comparison in the international arena, the invisible that becomes visible, the myth of visibility, become deconstructed and 'emptied'? What would then happen to the market of higher education? There is no simple answer to these questions, if there is one at all. Even if there is an option to erase the contents (competition, league tables, comparisons etc.), there is no option at the time to erase the framework (marketised environment) of HE. Therefore, polarisation between the concept of quality NO – quality YES is futile. As individuals we can take extreme positions in discussing the cons by simply saying NO – performance indicators and standards will not define an individual in any way. Education includes learning in all 'shapes', ways, modes and areas. If one emphasises the process and focuses on it then externally (institutionally or broadly) established indicators and standards are unimportant. It does not mean that I as an individual refuse international processes, collaboration and development in science, but only the measurement as the only way of determining quality. However, even if NO is said at the individual level, the question about the refusal at the institutional and national (policy) level still remains open for two reasons. The environment in which HE institutions operate, for instance, is market-based and market-driven. The logic of the 'survival' is present (as foreseen by Lyotard, 1984) and the 'reality' of potential closure is a part of the market game. 'Survival' in the marketised environment is a source of power for a change but also a source of maintenance. 'Survival' also means contradiction to changes if they are achieved by 'the old/existing' practices. If quality is seen as a tool for the survival in the market then we can also say NO to quality measurements and concepts if our actions and
methods keep an institution 'alive'. However, no individual (a teacher, a principal, etc.), educational institution or national educational system can operate as if isolated from the outside world. The problem arises when this stand is taken. If one says YES to quality in terms of performance indicators and standards, the framework within which he/she operates is structured by the performance indicators, which are constantly audited, measured and evaluated. It is like being caught in determinism of numbers, ranks and positions in the league tables. There is never ‘enough’ of auditing and of performance indicators developed in the achievement of the ability auditing for the soft elements in the education processes. Measurements and audits, which also need to be audited – an endless loop of auditing to be audited and to become auditable in order to be audited – presumably increase the competitive advantage and enable institutions to be different in terms of their provisions, marketing and product development, yet still within the framework of ‘sameness’ (credits and structural elements). The whole ‘game’ is played with and around ‘numbers’, and creative and challenging education processes focus on meeting the standards.

In order to resolve this determinism – non-determinism position related to audit culture, we would like to reflect on Žižek’s (2005, p. 88) discussion about freedom and determinism, in which he refers to Kant’s antinomy of freedom. If actions of individuals are completely determined by external ‘factors’ or causes, then they are not free. If they depend on bare contingency that occasionally cuts the causal chain, they are also not free. Claiming that one is absolutely free is also impossible. Žižek (ibid.) argues that the only way to resolve this antinomy is the individual’s ability to retroactively decide and determine which causes determine him/her.

The answer NO in the case of quality does not mean an individual/an institution/a national system can neglect the ‘environment’ and act ‘freely’. Accepting the framework of performance indicators and standards and being led by them does also not lead to what is called in education a ‘critical perspective’. Yet answers YES/NO to quality mean that one retroactively decides what means a ‘good education’, how it can be assessed and evaluated (also measured) and which indicators would be taken into account. And not only this, an individual (individual/institution/system) can assign meaning and interpretations and consequently determine the actions. This retroactivity and reflexivity can be ‘useful’ for the marketing institutions and for the ‘survival’, because they enable the development of the ‘difference’ within the ‘sameness’. They also represent the basis on which auditing is assessed and, hopefully, prevented from growing into audit culture of an institution.

6 References


Exploring the essential characteristics of research-based teacher education from the viewpoint of teacher educators


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ABSTRACT  This paper presents a study, which aims to gain greater understanding of the characteristics of research-based approach from the viewpoint of teacher educators. The study examines 1) How much do the teacher educators appreciate the research-based approach in teacher education? 2) How do the teacher educators define and understand the research-based approach in teacher education? and 3) How do the teacher educators understand the connections between the research-based approach in teacher education and teacher’s everyday work? The study presented here is a part of the wide research project, in which the research-based teacher education is investigated from various different viewpoints. The mixed method approach was used in gathering both qualitative and quantitative data. The analysis of quantitative data showed teacher educators’ positive attitudes towards research based approach. The qualitative content analysis of teacher educators’ interviews revealed four specific characteristics, by which it is possible to understand the research-based teacher education more deeply. They defined it as context (academic teacher education); as approach (main organising theme of teacher education); as content (curriculum of teacher education), and as aim (teacher’s pedagogical thinking).

Keywords: research-based teacher education, academic teacher education, levels of teacher education, twofold practice in teacher education, teacher educators

INTRODUCTION
Research-based teacher education has lately received increasing interest both among researchers of teacher education (e.g. Kansanen et al., 2000; Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi, 2006, 2007) and in public discussion. However, it is still not clear how researchers and discussants understand the expression ‘research-based’ or the concept of research-based teacher education. In following pages we make efforts to clarify diverse interpretations of the attribute ‘research-based’. We will also present one way to look at research-based teacher education on a theoretical level.

One aspect of ‘research-based’ may be associated with another attribute, ‘evidence-based’. The roots of the latter can be detected to medicine where two types of evidence-based medicine have been suggested: evidence-based guidelines and evidence-based individual decision making (Eddy, 2005). Similarly, we can discuss two types of research-based teacher education. Through research on teacher education we gain results, evidence, which can be used as guidelines for further development of teacher education. Another type concerns the everyday practice of an individual teacher, so called teacher’s pedagogical thinking.

Second aspect where the concept ‘research-based’ is used is research-based teaching. University teaching is based on a teacher’s expertise which has been reached through research work. Third aspect of ‘research-based’, in this article, is research-based teacher education as
an approach or main organising theme of teacher education programmes. A central aim within this kind of programmes is to educate inquiry-oriented future teachers.

The results we present in this article are a part of a wider research project in which research-based teacher education is investigated. The focus of the previous research activities has been the students of a special multimode program and the students of the ordinary class teacher education programme (Kynäslahti, Kansanen, Jyrhämä, Krokkfors, Maaranen, & Toom, 2006; Jyrhämä, Kynäslahti, Krokkfors, Byman, Maaranen, Toom, & Kansanen, 2008, in press).

TOWARDS A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF RESEARCH BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

There are many approaches to teacher education (Kansanen, 2006), one of which is research-based approach. It is based on the notions that the knowledge base of the study programme is dynamic and that student teachers are active processors of knowledge (Zeichner, 1983, p. 7). These are the crucial reasons why we consider the structures and processes of the student teacher’s personal theory of education to be the basic elements of the curriculum. The idea is to integrate the theoretical aspects with practice during the studies. Research-based thinking is viewed as the connecting factor in this process. Identifying pedagogical elements and asking pedagogically meaningful questions in educational situations are among the most important skills a future teacher needs. In line with Zeichner’s definition, we have outlined four key determinants in our research-based teacher education. Firstly, the study programme is structured according to the systemic educational structure, secondly all teaching is based on research, and thirdly, activities are organized so as to give students the opportunity to practise argumentation, decision making and justification when inquiring and solving pedagogical problems. Fourthly, students learn different research skills during their studies when they proceed to the Master Thesis level. (Kansanen, Tirri, Meri, Krokkfors, Husu, & Jyrhämä, 2000; Kansanen, 2004; Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi, 2006; Krokkfors, 2007.)

Through theoretical elaboration and through our research processes we have created a model of theoretical core elements of the research-based teacher education. It comprises two essential elements: the idea of two levels of teacher education and the characteristics of two-fold practice in teacher education.

Two levels of teacher education

In research-based teacher education programmes, there is the everyday practice which involves the mastering of common teaching. We call this the basic level of teacher education (see Figure 1.). The focus here is usually on the acquisition of the practical skills and fundamental knowledge that cover the whole instructional process, and a variety of subject matter pedagogical content knowledge courses. In the art of teaching, we could think about “natural forces” or “spontaneous forces” (cf. Gage, 1978; Kansanen et al. 2000, p. 147) which may automatically come into play when adults work with children. It may be possible to develop these everyday teaching skills over the years, and working as a teacher inevitably brings about learning in this respect, at least on some basic level (Kansanen, Tirri, Meri, Krokkfors, Husu, & Jyrhämä, 2000). This kind of thinking partly explains why the belief that teachers are born – but not educated – still persists. In teacher education, the development of these skills is supported systematically and continuously.

Wilson, Floden and Ferrini-Mundy (2001) found that pedagogical content knowledge courses focused on basic subject matters significantly improved student achievement. However, after the basic stage additional courses did not produce same results any more. They call this a threshold effect, beyond which further effect is minimal at least in pre-service level of
teacher education. To develop the continuum of pre-service and in-service teacher education is another question, which should be seriously discussed. Teacher development needs time and should be considered as a life-long learning process.

Beyond this basic level in research-based approach, there is a need for a more general level of teacher education (see Figure 1.) which aims at the sustained development in teacher’s work. Although connected to the basic level, general level takes a certain distance from the teacher’s everyday practical work. This refers to reflection, thinking, discussion, and other research-related activities. (Kansanen, 2004). General level also implies a kind of metacognition of one’s own work and pedagogical decision-making. It is not achieved without devoting special attention to the specific requirements, which we discuss in the following. Thus, research-based teacher education could be seen as a continuum from the basic to the general level.

**Twofold practice**
When we emphasise the research based idea as an organizing approach to teacher education on the general level we understand the practice as having a twofold character. The teacher’s profession today presupposes two different dimensions to pedagogical practices: 1) to practise teaching and 2) to inquire or research one’s own or other people’s teaching (see Figure 1.). The second one, to practice inquiry is a new and complementary way to look at the theory-practice relations in research based teacher education. Both of these dimensions are evident in pedagogical situations, and the practice requires teaching skills as well as theoretical knowledge, reasoning and understanding. In the following we discuss these two aspects of practice in the context of basic and general level of teacher education.

**Practising teaching**
In most teacher education programmes, the student teachers have the possibility to practice their theoretical knowledge in practical situations in real classroom settings. The focus of teaching practice may vary, and practice periods may focus on subject teaching, classroom management, school as a community, or teacher’s work in its wholeness. There are also differences in the role and responsibilities of a student teacher. Their experiences may vary from practising in university practising schools to other kind of partnership schools in which student teachers practise in other teacher’s class or even have a class of their own.

On the basic level, practising teaching means the implementation and application of the methods taught in teacher education courses. The basics of the pedagogical content knowledge of different subjects are applied in real and authentic classroom situations. In addition, the routines of classroom management and tips are tested in practise.

The aim of practising teaching is to move towards the general level of teacher education, which refers to teacher’s pedagogical thinking, pedagogical decision making and justification. Teaching practice is an essential element of a student teacher’s personal and practical knowledge formation, and integration with the theoretical core content is of high importance. The aim is to integrate theoretical and practical knowledge. Student teachers conceptualise their practical experiences as well as put theories and abstract ideas together with practical understanding. Teaching practice during teacher education forms an entity, and the main practising periods have their cumulative and expanding pedagogical focuses.

Supervision, counseling and mentoring, as well as peer coaching, are parallel methods used in order to promote pedagogical thinking and the student teacher’s progression towards inquiry-oriented approach of teaching. The left side of Figure 1 shows the dual characteristics of practice on the basic and general levels of research-based teacher education.
Practising researching

While practice in school-based or traditional college-based teacher education is associated only with teaching practice, in academic research-based approach it also covers the activities of practising inquiry and research (see Figure 1.). Students need guided practice in order to acquire the skills to carry this out in pedagogically meaningful situations. Students also need theoretically oriented method courses, but they really need to work on with skills like observation, interview and interpretation. Knowing and action must be in reciprocal interaction especially when practising inquiry and research.

On the basic level, inquiry is not strongly associated with practising, and the role of the student is more passive in studying the basics of educational research methodology. The method courses start at the very beginning of the studies and small empirical investigations are integrated with the study of pedagogy and pedagogical content knowledge. The teaching covers quantitative and qualitative as well as mixed method research approaches. An idea of the curriculum as a spiral is implemented at this stage.

This spiral leads to the general level. The Master’s thesis that is conducted at the end of the study programme is an independent but supervised research project. It could also be seen as the integration of the theoretical knowledge base or theoretical knowing with the use of appropriate data collection and analysis procedures. Over the course of time, teachers’ work has been investigated by professional researchers as well as teachers themselves. When we look back at past decades we can see that Schön’s (1983) idea of the reflective practitioner did not guarantee that educational research would be open for teachers (Rudduck, 1985). Most of the research projects focusing on teacher’s work were carried out by researchers who were not teachers themselves. We suggest a horizontal rather than a vertical approach to the role relations between the actors.

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<th>RESEARCHING</th>
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**Figure 1.** The twofold practice on the basic and general levels of research-based teacher education.

When practice concerns teaching (Figure 1) it is a question of making pedagogical decisions. Practice in research, in turn, implies inquiry into one’s own work as a teacher. These both are the dimensions of research-based teacher education which aims at producing inquiry-oriented future teachers.
THE STUDY

The aim of the study
We conducted the study at the Department of Applied Sciences of Education at the University of Helsinki in the beginning of year 2007. In principle, the department is committed with the research-based approach in teacher education. The five-year study programme in teacher education is academic. All primary school student teachers conduct MA thesis as a part of their studies. Despite of these general conditions, it is not self-evident that all the teacher educators of the department share this commitment. This was our reason to carry out the research.

Research questions:

1) How much do the teacher educators appreciate the research-based approach in teacher education?
2) How do the teacher educators define and understand the research-based approach in teacher education?
3) How do the teacher educators understand the connections between the research-based approach in teacher education and teacher’s everyday work?

Data and methods
We used a sequential mixed method design (e.g. Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Creswell, 2003) consisting of three phases. First, in 2005 and 2006, the primary school student teachers were surveyed (Kynäslahti, Maaranen, Krokfors, Jyrhämä, Byman & Toom, 2007). For the second phase, we modified the survey in order to make it suitable for the teacher educators and conducted it in the spring of 2007. It comprised all together 25 items, four background questions, 20 statements graded on 1-7 Likert scale from one to seven (1=highly disagree, 7=highly agree) and one open-ended question.

The survey was targeted at the teachers of primary teacher education programme (N=52). Several of them also taught in subject teacher education programme or in special education. The number of the respondents was 33 (female 61%; male 39%), thus making the response rate 63%. Because of the small number of the respondents we used only descriptive statistics when examining the data. With these results we answer to the first research question.

On the basis of the survey results we interviewed a selected sample of eight teacher educators in order to explore how they understand the concept of the research-based approach and what kind of relevance they thought this approach may have to teacher’s work. The interviews were structured thematically based on an analysis of the responses to the open-ended question in the survey.

Two researchers interviewed eight members of the department staff; three females and five males. Eight teacher educators (one research assistant, three university lecturers and four professors) were interviewed about their understanding of the research-based approach to teacher education. They were all active teachers on the primary school teacher education programme. The data was analysed using qualitative content analysis. Expressions were analyzed according to the meaning they conveyed. The data was analysed by using qualitative content analysis. As a result of the first phase of analysis, 61 different categories concerning the basics of the research-based approach were defined. These categories were grouped together into more general entities. In the final phase of analysis, four elements of research-based approach were interpreted. By the analysis of qualitative data, we answer to our second and third research questions.
RESULTS

Teacher educators’ appreciation of the research-based approach

In the first research question we were interested in the teacher educators’ attitudes and appreciation towards the research-based teacher education. The descriptive statistics indicate that the teacher educators’ attitudes towards the research-based approach were positive. They appreciated it as an organizing theme for the primary school teacher education programme. The means and standard deviations of all the items are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The means and standard deviations of the questionnaire items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.716</td>
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<tr>
<td>the courses of the didactics of the subjects which are taught in</td>
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<td>elementary school.</td>
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<td>2. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.704</td>
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<td>the courses of the didactics of arts, music, craft and physical</td>
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<tr>
<td>education.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>1.641</td>
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<td>the courses of the didactics of history, religion and philosophy.</td>
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<td>4. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>1.542</td>
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<tr>
<td>the course of the didactics of mathematics.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>1.481</td>
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<td>the courses of Finnish.</td>
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<td>6. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>1.029</td>
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<td>the courses of education as the major subject.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>.704</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s thesis seminars.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. It is important that the research-based approach is realized when</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>.585</td>
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<tr>
<td>a student is working with his or her own Bachelor’s thesis.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>.174</td>
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<tr>
<td>Master’s thesis seminars.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10. It is important that the research-based approach is realized</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>.242</td>
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<tr>
<td>when a student is working with his or her own Master thesis.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11. It is important that the research-based approach is realized</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>.902</td>
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<td>through the required reading of education as the major subject.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>1.571</td>
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<tr>
<td>the supervising and counselling of the subject didactic practicum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.460</td>
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<tr>
<td>the supervising and counselling of the final practicum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>1.347</td>
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<td>all courses.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. It is important that the research-based approach is realized in</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>1.248</td>
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<td>the courses of my own subject.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>16. It is important that methodological studies form a coherent</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>.827</td>
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<tr>
<td>entity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17. It is important to have courses on research methodology from the</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>1.685</td>
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<tr>
<td>beginning of the studies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. Methodological studies should provide students with a variety of</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>.751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>different methods.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19. It is important for me that the students have the possibility to</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>1.284</td>
</tr>
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<td>continue their studies towards doctoral studies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. An official qualification for primary teaching should be earned</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>1.691</td>
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<td>through a lower degree than the Master’s degree.</td>
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</table>
The respondents were like-minded and considered that the research-based approach is realized best when the students are engaged in their own research work. The items reported here are those with the highest or lowest means and/or standard deviation. Items 7, 8, 9, and 10 recorded the highest means and lowest standard deviations of the data, and they all dealt with courses related to conducting research.

- It is important that the research-based approach is realized in Bachelor’s thesis seminars. (Item 7, $M = 6.61$, $SD = 0.704$)
- It is important that research-based approach is realized in when students are working on their own Bachelor’s thesis. (Item 8, $M = 6.70$, $SD = 0.585$)
- It is important that the research-based approach is realized in Master’s thesis seminars. (Item 9, $M = 6.97$, $SD = 0.174$)
- It is important that the research-based approach is realized when a student is working with his or her own Master thesis. (Item 10, $M = 6.94$, $SD = 0.242$)

In addition, there were three interesting findings that were also related to the methodological studies.

- Methodological studies should provide students with a variety of different methods. (Item 18, $M = 6.42$, $SD = 0.751$)
- It is important that methodological studies form a coherent entity. (Item 16, $M = 6.61$, $SD = 0.827$)
- It is important to have courses on research methodology from the beginning of the studies. (Item 17, $M = 4.82$, $SD = 1.685$)

The descriptive statistics presented before show a high agreement among the respondents. This indicates that they appreciated the wide variety of methodological studies and the systematic way in which they are organized. Still, not all of them thought it is important to teach the students in research methodology early on.

Item number 20 recorded the lowest mean suggesting that most of the respondents thought that primary school teacher education requires a Master’s degree. However, nearly 40% of the respondents did not totally agree with this statement.

- An official qualification for primary teaching should be earned through a lower degree than the Master’s degree. (Item 20, $M = 2.12$, $SD = 1.691$)

All together the means varying from 4.82 to 6.97 indicate that research-based approach is important and highly appreciated among teacher educators. In studies of pedagogy of the school subjects the means vary from 5.18 to 5.55 when the range in studies of education is from 6.24 to 6.39. This may indicate that the research orientation is not seen as obvious in the pedagogical content knowledge courses as in courses of the major subject, education. Also the subject didactic practicum has a lower mean (4.97) than the final practicum (5.52), which supports the same interpretation. Still, it is noticeable that all teacher educators thought that the research-based approach is important in their own subject, the mean being over six (6.06) and the standard deviation 1.248.
**Teacher educators’ understanding of the research-based approach**

In second research question, we aimed to know how teacher educators understood the research-based approach. Research-based teacher education was seen to have elements ranging from the broad level of teacher education to a more personal level of a teacher (see Figure 2). It was seen as

1. The context – Academic teacher education
2. The approach – Main organising theme of teacher education
3. The content – Curriculum of teacher education
4. The aim – Teacher’s pedagogical thinking

In the following we will open these elements.

*The context – Academic teacher education*

This dimension of research-based approach in teacher education concerned the special context of higher education. Research-based teacher education is a part of the academic university curriculum. In other words, its origins are not just in the history of teacher education but also in the pedagogy of higher education, and in the principles how academic studies are organised, in general.

> [By doing research] we take our place in the university, without research we wouldn’t be here …, to be academic always means that there is research involved. (Interviewee 6)

> Everything we do here is based on research and we sort of use the results to justify our views. (Interviewee 4)

There are certain conceptual differences related to the pedagogy of higher education. What is typical of university teaching is that the teachers conduct research on the subject they teach. A university teacher of mycology, for example, conducts research on mushrooms and bases his or her teaching on this research. Hence, teaching in university, including teacher education, is ‘research-based’. In other words, research-based teacher education also refers to the teaching provided by teacher educators. The interesting thing is that in the case of teacher educators the subject they conduct research is teaching. For a teacher educator, the subject of the teaching and the target of the research is the very same. In that sense, research-based university teaching of teacher education as an educational field differs from research-based university teaching in other disciplines.

*The approach – Main organising theme of teacher education*

The respondents understood the research-based approach to represent a general view of teacher education, even like a mantra. It was recognised as a commitment to and a profile of the department.

> An inquiry-oriented teacher … has been a sort of mantra [in our department] for some twenty years now coming from America, and I think that it is a very important thing. (Interviewee 6)

*The content – Curriculum of teacher education*

One aspect of the understanding of research-based approach concerns the contents of the study programme. In other words, in order to be research-based, teacher education must include studies that incorporate it. This includes educational theory, methodology and methods as well as work on Bachelor’s and Master’s theses and reading educational literature.
How [the research-based approach] appears in the studies, it’s the Master’s thesis that the students makes on his or her own, and the methodological studies … It is typically a part of the thesis work for the student to familiarise himself or herself with the research literature, and courses on educational theory also help as well as reading books. These all provide the student with a basic understanding of educational research and its wider context. (Interviewee 7)

The importance of methodological studies was underlined but there was also some criticism suggesting that students’ skills and knowledge within this area, especially in quantitative research methods, were not sufficient.

Teaching of research methods has been growing down like a cow’s tail. You can not expect the same kind of research skills [than before] from the students because there are not enough courses in which the art of making research would be taught in the way that it used to be taught. … It is quite sad that I constantly end up noticing that when I ask some basic things, nobody knows anything. And that is not is their [the students] fault. (Interviewee 6)

The aim of methodological studies in teacher education curriculum was seen as two-fold. The dual role of teachers as consumers and producers of educational research was seen as an important issue in the study content of future teachers.

A student who completes his or her studies in our department should be able to read different kinds of research texts and they need to understand educational research and research in educational psychology in order to get a perspective for their own work as a teacher. This means that students need up-to-date knowledge of the academic field. On the other hand, nowadays the teacher is required to produce various kinds of texts and papers that are research-oriented. (Interviewee 4)

Research-based teacher education was understood to provide students with the means to carry out research and, indeed, they behave like researchers during their studies. They write their own Bachelor’s and Master’s theses, for example. This kind of producer capability is also recognised in the teacher’s competence these days. However, the producer aspect is not the main goal because; like one interviewee said ‘We are here not to produce researchers’ (Interviewee 6). The study programme is seen to pave up the way for understanding educational research and promote a positive attitude towards it.

The interviewees mentioned that although they understand and appreciate the research-based approach that does not necessarily mean that they know how to apply it in their own courses.

I am aware of that now that I am a part of [research-based teacher education] – this is what we have profiled to and what we have trumpeted – it isn’t so easy to realize. I am not sure what it could mean in practice. (Interviewee 5)

The aim – Teacher’s pedagogical thinking

The respondents thought that the goal of the research-based approach is to develop student teachers pedagogical thinking processes. This was alluded to in expressions such as ‘critical thinking’, ‘didactic thinking’ and ‘pedagogical thinking’. Thus the main goal is not to educate researchers but to produce teachers who think and approach their work in an inquiring manner. This means that a teacher has to understand the educational concepts and be able to apply them correctly. Theoretical pedagogical thinking is applied in everyday practical settings. The teacher readily questions the way of working and takes a critical stance towards the routines of it. Instead of providing ready answers and tips, a research-based approach encourages stu-
dent teachers to make independent pedagogical decisions. The teacher was seen as a decision maker on several levels:

Given the numbers of pupils in the classroom, the teacher has to make several kinds of decisions at the same time and separately, dealing with pedagogy, aims, the curriculum … technical details, as well as philosophical-social-historical issues. (Interviewee 4)

[In a teacher’s work] there come situations which are new and unexpected and solving of them, ending up to different kinds of views of what these situations are all about and what lies behind them, and that sort of things, that is what research may, at its best, bring about in a form of pedagogically thinking teacher. (Interviewee 2)

This independence calls for autonomy, which in turn requires sufficient educational knowledge and professional self-assurance.

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**Figure 2.** Teacher educators’ understanding of the research-based approach.

*The relevance of the research-based approach to the teacher’s work*

In the third study question we were interested in to know whether the teacher educators thought the research-based approach to have any relevance to the actual every day work of teachers. According to the interviewees, the research-based approach is clearly relevant to the teacher’s work. They argued that the nature of the teacher’s work has changed: teachers are actively involved in curriculum development and different evaluation processes. The school itself has changed.

The teacher should constantly be sensitive in realising how the world is changing and how teacher profession should change. There are a number of factors on the school level: schools are creating their own profiles to suit for pupils and their parents, depending on the school environment. So, there’s not just one way of carrying out a teacher’s work. Being an inquiry oriented teacher means perceiving your environment. A teacher is a sort of societal actor who makes sustainable decisions and questions of the very basis of his or her work. (Interviewee 1)

The school is a place where several professions meet and the teacher’s work includes trans-professional collaboration with colleagues, such as the school psychologist, pre-school teachers or those engaged in health care. The interviewed teacher educators claimed that school was no longer the static workplace for which the teacher education at the time prepared stu-
udents. More dynamics is needed, partly because of the emphasis on self-development and management.

A student teacher and the future teacher should be aware of the structures affecting the work, which are reflected in the activities in the classroom. (Interviewee 4)

A teacher who is well versed in educational research, I think is better able to analyse the problems that come up in the classroom and to find answers, just like all professional people do, by reading literature instead of just sort of getting depressed about it and hoping it will go away. (Interviewee 7)

Speaking of self-development, a [inquiry-oriented] teacher is able to develop herself in a better than one who just has a set of familiar old tools – but what happens when something new comes up? (Interviewee 1)

Although the teacher educators recognized relevance of the research-based approach, they were also aware that students might not see this connection.

For a student it may be difficult to see, in the beginning [of the studies] to perceive, for which purposes she or he needs research. It may be so that if it [the research-based approach] rolls too early so … there is a danger that it may appear as mannered and irrelevant causing a reaction of ‘Surely, I will not be a researcher. Isn’t this just odd. Why are they talking about those things? A school is somewhere else’. It [the research-based approach] should be introduced in appropriate pieces. … If ‘research and research again’ is repeated and repeated it may work against itself because many of the students have problems enough with the practice [of a teacher’s work]. (Interviewee 4)

CONCLUSIONS

Different kinds of teacher education programmes have been investigated through meta-analyses. As a result, Zeichner and Conklin (2005, 702) state that there is not any specific way to organize teacher education, which would be better than the others. Different programmes serve different purposes. Rather, teacher education units should make it explicit to what they are aiming with their programmes. The results that we have presented in this article may provide some guidelines how to organise teacher education with a research-based approach.

The results indicate that teacher educators appreciate the research-based approach as the main organising theme. Most of the respondents thought that a five-year study programme with Master’s degree was appropriate qualification for a primary school teacher. They also felt that this approach was best realized in the students’ own research work. Although they agreed that methodological studies should form a coherent entity with a range of both qualitative and quantitative methods, not all of them thought they should start early on. The qualitative analysis shed some light on this interpretation: it became apparent that these studies should be introduced carefully to the students with reference to the teacher’s everyday reality. It came out in the interviews that a strong focus on methodology and educational theory in general in the early stages might frighten the students, who may not see the relevance of the studies with the teacher’s work. It is important to emphasise the way new students are introduced to methods and methodology. In the beginning, an unpractical and theoretical way of teaching methods is not recommended and has to be substituted with problem-based practical approaches. Inquiry has to have a pragmatic orientation and a strong connection to students’ perceptions of everyday practice. More complicated formal dimensions to both qualitative and quantitative research work can be introduced later when students have created a pre-understanding of inquiry and research
Interestingly, the research orientation was not seen as obvious in the pedagogical content knowledge courses as in courses of the major subject, education. This is probably because the teacher educators of content knowledge and pedagogy of content knowledge themselves have majored in their special subject and the relevance of research-based approach in education and pedagogy is not as clear to them as to those who have studied education as a major. Despite of that all interviews confirmed the importance of the research-based approach, and the need for a general level of it. The teacher educators emphasised this in several ways and some of them insisted that other, less ambitious thinking was not appropriate in today’s educational world.

The status of teacher education as an academic subject was also mentioned as one of the main elements of research based teacher education. Academic means that research and inquiry are expected both from students and teachers. In the student’s case this refers to studies in educational theory and methodology, as well as to their own thesis work. For the teacher educator, however, it is more complex. A university teacher is both a researcher and a teacher – this applies not only to teacher education but also to university teaching in general. Researching is expected of all university teachers. However, teacher educators are one of the few groups of teachers for whom inquiring into one’s own work, as a university teacher is reality: the target of the research is teaching and learning and that is what the educator is doing. In our interpretation the research-based teacher education paradigm implements a dimension with activities of academic research and at the same time the pedagogical goal of it is to educate practitioner researchers, teachers who develop their work through practical inquiry. (cf. Richardson, 1994; Zeichner & Noffke, 2001.)

When the interviewees reflected on the teacher education curriculum the aspects of consumers and the producers of pedagogical knowledge emerged. The teacher educators emphasised the former as a goal for the pedagogical practice in the inquiry-oriented approach. They stressed they do not produce mere researchers, but rather teachers who understand and are able to apply educational research literature. On the general level of teacher education the producer aspect was apparent. Nowadays teachers are producers of demanding educational texts, for example in the context of curriculum development. In the research literature the aspects of producing and consuming educational knowledge has been discussed very often as opposites (Galluzo and Pankratz, 1990). According to our interpretation of the research-based teacher education they rather can be seen as dimensions of it. Academic researchers produce different kind of educational knowledge than practitioner researchers when they inquire their own work and everyday teaching, studying and learning practices, and both of these are needed.

According to the results, the main goal of the research-based teacher education is to produce pedagogically thinking teachers. The dual nature of practice reveals the dynamics between researching and teaching: the former supports the latter, and inquiry-oriented thinking lends a helping hand. Rational pedagogical thinking empowers teachers to do their own pedagogical decisions. It is also a way for teachers to develop actively their practice and personal practical theories of education. In our interpretation of research-based approach the idea of thinking as action is emphasized and theory-practice relationship is seen transactional. (See also Biesta and Burbules, 2003). We can also refer to this kind of development by considering the concept of human agency. The power to act, not only react and repeat given practices is important. Like Lipponen, Virtanen, and Särkkä (2007) argue, if we want to educate teachers with agency we as teacher educators need to understand more deeply how to support the development of agency.

It is no longer enough to give only ready answers and tips, and in today’s changing society teachers constantly come up against new situations, and confront problems to which they must find solutions by themselves. In our study, the research-based approach was not
emphasised to be an academic ivory tower. It was considered to have a significant relevance to teaching practice. In research-based approach to teacher education the study programme needs to be seen dynamic and the role of the student teacher as an active one. In our interpretation the study programme is structured according to the systemic educational structure, all teaching is based on research, and activities are organized so as to give students the opportunity to practise argumentation, decision making and justification when inquiring into and solving pedagogical problems (Krokfors, 2007). Teaching in today’s world needs dynamic competences and a high level practice calls for the kind of inquiry-oriented approach that reflects the general level of research-based teacher education.

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REFERENCES


Mainstreaming the European Dimension into Teacher Education in England – enabling and disabling factors

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Abstract

This paper examines the failure of initial teacher education in England to take full account of the European dimension and the Bologna Process within their programmes. It aims to consider the extent to which Faculties of Education, in which initial teacher education programmes lie, are subject to the same global challenges that are experienced by higher education institutions. Since the 1994 Education Act, areas of professional teacher training in England have been driven by the ‘Standards’ agenda of the Teacher Training Agency (now the Teacher Development Agency). They are therefore subject to local and national demands, which place them outside the growing global agendas. This paper examines the question of perceived constraints of the national standards and requirements and argues that while individual academic staff in faculties of education in England, have been engaged in some European focused and international academic activity for many years, the impact on the life of education faculties, and initial teacher education itself, is minimal. When education is considered as the flagship of national identity it raises questions as to what extent it stands in the way of Europeanisation and internationalisation.
Introduction

The internationalisation of teacher education or initial teacher training, as it is known in England, is a key strategic challenge for education the coming years. It is changing the way we think about education and the impact it has on curriculum and the student experience, for what we do in our day-to-day working with potential teachers is not ‘an isolated moment separate from the real world’ (Freire & Shor 1987: 25) rather a ‘complex interplay of policies, structures, cultures, values and pedagogies’ (Alexander, 2001:4). With Bologna set for 2010 the tensions between ideological and market agendas across higher education, impact both positively and negatively on initial teacher training to varying degrees. Unfortunately the impetus to ‘raise standards’ in English schools has led to the training, rather than education of teachers, thus narrowing the scope for international engagement. The processes involved in the promotion of positive engagement with the European dimension, enhancing knowledge and understanding, and policies and practices, contrast sharply with the economic drive for European and international student recruitment, and competition for international education business.

Fielden’s research (2007) into global horizons for UK universities highlighted the continued demand for quality higher education, alongside enthusiasm from other European and international institutions to promote partnerships with UK universities (2007:14). In 2007 Bill Rammell, the Minister for Higher Education, wrote to Vice Chancellors of all universities in England promoting student mobility and the Europeanisation and internationalisation of university programmes. This illustrates the British Government’s inconsistency in commitment to the European and global agenda for higher education as institutions active on the world stage, while at the same time limiting initial teacher training directives to national and local demands. The process of Europeanisation and internationalisation of universities is seen as a key strategic challenge for the coming years.
Universities by their very origins and nature are international. Academic institutions are international and connected by an ‘international knowledge network’ (Altbach 1998:147). However in many ways faculties of education in England are on the periphery of internationalism due to perceived national constraints placed upon them by national standards and policy. The internationalisation of an education faculty therefore is a very complex process for development due to, not only the perceived national constraints, but also the juxtaposition of values, interests, perspectives and influences inside and outside the faculty and the institution in which they lie. The complexity is compounded by the tensions between ideological and market agendas across higher education.

European and international education involves engaging with issues which cut across national boundaries and about the interconnectedness of educational, social, cultural, ecological, economic, political systems. It also involves learning to understand and appreciate ‘our neighbours with different cultural backgrounds from ours; to see the world through the eyes of others; and to realise that people of the world need and want much the same things’ (Tye 1999: 17 cited in Holden and Hicks 2007:1.2). The perceived inflexibility of initial teacher training programmes which inhibit the setting up of joint programmes. We are therefore reliant on individual faculties of education curricula content and the development of mobility opportunities for tutors and students. These decisions for these are based on the knowledge, understandings, attitudes, values and beliefs of the people involved, and for many the European dimension lies outside their mainstream initial teacher training focus.

**European and global agendas for higher education**

Globalisation as a concept is based on a capitalist notion of free-trade as an economic, business led activity. Within this, the European Union and governments are driving HE teacher education to become more international, and at the same time the academic world is becoming more international
within a global labour market. As a result the way that an institution chooses to locate itself in today’s global environment, is a defining moment within the contemporary world.

Higher Education is not exempt from the impacts of globalisation and trade liberalisation (Barrow 2003:235). The commodification and marketisation of higher education services are promoted through the world trading system as other industries (Barrow 2003:229: Hayes 2002), and it is now recognised that the concept of globalisation is also related to influences on contemporary educational trends. Dale (2000, cited in Crossley and Watson 2003:51) looks positively on globalisation suggesting that we need to look beyond the nation-state as the principal unit of analysis towards the inclusion of a broader vision for the construction of purpose and value in education (Little et al 1994) such as generic education policies, as set out by UNESCO (2000) for example. Barrow (2003) discussing higher education and globalisation, raises issues of concern about these processes, but argues that globalisation is driven by policy which has liberalised trade with globalisation being ‘a set of agreements and decisions about how citizens and business will interact with each other across national boundaries, and these agreements are institutionalized in international organizations’ (2003:48)

The World Trade Organisation (WTO), the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) are international political organisations and are key in driving globalisation policy. Bilateral and multilateral trade agreements have established ‘international legal frameworks’ (Barrow2003:235), such as the General Agreement on Tarriffs and Trade (GATT) and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). These organisations, along with others, drive and monitor international trade in commodities and services including higher education (HE), which is one of the five education categories in the WTO and national industrial classification (WTO 1998; National Statistics 2003:44). Trade policy has targeted HE services as a growth area (Blair 2006), which, Barrow would argue, is developing national policy in a ‘stateless context’ (2003:245).
In a paper presented to the Philosophical Society 2006 Susan Harris identified three aspects of European and internationalisation in HE in England: the rise in numbers of international students; international reputation as a benchmark of excellence; and globalisation and the emergence of ‘global citizenship’ (2006:1). These phenomena are explained as features of universities as ‘neo-liberal’ institutions, with the emergence of instrumentalist approaches to academia, and the ‘economic imperative’ brought about by competing in the global market. This restrictive view of HE focuses on performance and accountability, and uni-directional programmes of study dictated by the market (2006:2).

Equating internationalisation with globalisation, Harris critiques the dominance of the economic rather than the intercultural imperative (2006:2), and identifies ‘ghettoisation’ and ‘exoticisation of difference’ as worrying trends: while at the same time acknowledges that progressivism embraces notions of social justice, participation and diversity. However, Harris argues that the neo-liberal and progressive universities have led to the prioritising of product with an ‘an impoverished view of education, informed by a view of life ….in which preservation and survival are central……’ (2006:6) whereby the intrinsic value of education has diminished, and the role of HE to question and critique self and society has disappeared. This ‘intrinsically relational’ perspective embodies culture as central. She puts forward a case for introducing the international dimension into all of the work of universities, rather than designing programmes merely to meet national standards and attract international students, and argues that academic literature from different traditions and perspectives would be embedded in academic study (2006:7), and cultural development of the university should be promoted by international exchange and collaboration.
Bologna and the European Dimension in Higher Education

Since its launch in 1999 the Bologna Process has called for structural change including curriculum development, inter-institutional cooperation, mobility schemes and integrated programmes of study, training and research to add a European dimension to higher education across Europe (DfES 2007). The overriding purpose of the Bologna Process is to form a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) by 2010 for economic and social benefit. This initiative is based on Article 149 of the EU Treaty (2006) which charges the European higher education community to develop quality education through cooperation and collaboration. Developing opportunities for personal growth and cooperation between individuals and institutions is seen as a key element of enhancing the quality of higher education and research, and giving substance to the European dimension to our work. To this end a range of action lines have been in place with each member state working towards 2010 with the aim of promoting the EHEA to the outside world.

There are a range of Action Lines that underpin the process and promotion of the European dimension in HE, including the adoption of joint programmes and comparable degrees, which include two cycles (undergraduate and post-graduate) and the introduction of European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) and the Diploma Supplement to aid mobility. Progress in introducing the ECTS and Diploma Supplement has been slow in England. This has mainly been due to cost, but there is growing awareness that students graduating in the UK should be able to benefit from the enhanced recognition and mobility that the Diploma Supplement brings (DfES 2007). Student mobility is also a key feature of Bologna encouraging students to engage in study in a European setting other than their own. Unfortunately the recent study by the Council for Industry and Higher Education (Fielden et al 2007) shows that the number of UK students travelling on Erasmus study exchange programmes has fallen by over 30% in the last 10 years, in contrast to other European countries where numbers are rising. Currently there is no data directly linked specifically to initial teacher education students. While the influence of Bologna in initial teacher training is seen as important and has taken
roots in many parts of Europe they are not necessarily being monitored systematically or co-ordinated to any significant extent (CHEPS 2006:4.5).

**Initial Teacher Training in England – constraints and inconsistencies**

Initial Teacher Training in England is increasingly subject to conflicting arenas. The study of education and the training of teachers alongside the rhetoric of accountability, performance and measurement has resulted in a restrictive and instrumental approach to what should be the most important and enlightened area of higher education.

In 1994 the Conservative government created the Teacher Training Agency. Its responsibilities and duties were to include; the diversification of routes into teaching, the recruitment of student teachers, advice about student teacher selection criteria, the allocation of funding to universities engaged in teacher education, policy development and a concern for quality matters. At the time many concerns were put forward, ‘I estimate that this Bill and accompanying measures are of major importance. It is a crucial part of centralised control over all aspects of education and. In particular, to destabilise and threaten the role of the universities within that system...I see it also as another attempt to destroy what the government are pleased to call the ‘education establishment’; that is, those who know about education’ (Baroness David 1993:919 cited in Mahony and Hextall 2000). Illustrating the degree to which the state, the universities, or the profession dominate the governance of initial teacher preparation is directly related to different notions of teachers’ work and the nature of the teaching profession. ((Young et al 2007:4).

The 1994 Education Act took responsibility for the funding of initial teacher training away from the Higher education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) which funds teaching and research in universities, and gave it to the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), now Teacher Development Agency
for Schools (TDA), thus establishing the link between teacher training and schools rather than university education. Prior to this the content and structure of initial teacher education and training courses in England were regarded as principally a matter for universities and colleges themselves, and subject to normal university academic recruitment and requirements. Through this legislation the government sought to change the arrangements for the education and training of teachers, setting out the competences that had to be met by students before qualifying to teach (DES, 1984, 1989; DfE, 1992, 1993; DfEE, 1997a). This had obvious implications for the professional autonomy and academic freedom of those in higher education responsible for what was initial teacher education. (Whitty2005).

The process for recruitment is now dependent on demand and supply and to ‘secure an effective school workforce that improves children’s life chances. We do this through helping to secure the supply of the school workforce, supporting in-service school workforce training and development and supporting wider school workforce modernisation’ (TDA 2007).

In their recent paper on teacher education Young, Hall, and Clark (2007) outlined current government controlled procedures for recruitment and allocation of places for teacher training, lying outside the normal HE undergraduate recruitment procedures. Each year all accredited providers of initial teacher training are invited by the TDA to bid for student allocation for the forthcoming year. After the Department for Children and Schools (DfCSF formerly the DfES) has set intake targets based upon an assessment of the national demand for new teachers, the TDA allocates places among the higher education applications received (Young et al 2007:3.1). As a result of the 1994 Education Act, centrally devised ‘standards’ and materials have been developed and imposed by government (Wilkin, 1996) and university-based initial teacher training programmes have become subject ‘to a range of accountability mechanisms which operate within a university tradition of academic freedom and institutional autonomy’ (Young et al 2007:2.1.2.3). The instrumentalism of these mechanisms can be seen as constraints to both the Europeanisation and internationalisation, with the TDA ‘Standards’
being a prescriptive practise designed to properly prepare new teachers to effectively implement a provincial or national agenda for schooling—where government control and supervision would logically prevail.’ (Young et al 2007:2.1.2.3). In a sense we have lost the commitment to the intrinsic value of education and are locked into an increasingly instrumental view (Corson 2000:111).

In England we have a wide range of flexible routes into teaching but little flexibility within programmes as meeting ‘the Standards’ dominates, with over thirty routes into teaching, the range of structures is complex, for example undergraduate ITT degree programmes vary between two and three years following both the TDA Standards for ITT alongside the QAA academic degree level qualifications; post graduate ITT programmes vary in length from school-based, some with only a few days academic input, to one year programmes all working towards the TDA Standards. It is understandable therefore why establishing the European dimension and mobility is difficult with the domination of the ‘Standards’ which have no reference beyond classroom competencies, some of which are nation specific and some would argue limiting to student opportunity to study overseas.

The lack of consistency across education policy in England adds to the existing complex system. The TDA Standards are arranged in three inter-related sections, professional attributes, professional knowledge understanding and professional skills. There are thirty three standards in all, covering classroom practice, none of which refer to European or international dimensions/standards. Ironically the international dimension is encouraged explicitly in government documentation for schools, specifically in the 2004 International Strategy for Schools ‘Putting the World into World Class Education’. Once again the emphasis is on the economic but which does encourage ‘a change of mindset: thinking globally in all that we do nationally and locally’ (2004:6). The introduction Charles Clarke the then Education Minister identifies the important link between education and the international dimension: ‘One cannot truly educate young people in this country without the international dimension being a very significant and real part of their learning experience. .... We can
and should be collaborating for mutual benefit in the hope that not only UK citizens but all people across the world will have the educational opportunities,’ (DfES 2004). European objectives and the role of universities are specifically referred to in the Strategy goals including

- To instil a strong global dimension into the learning experience of all children and young people.

- To develop our capacity to engage strategically with a wide range of partners across the world.

- To work with our European partners to realise the Lisbon goal that the EU should become “the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world”.

- To promote the role of our universities as international hubs for learning and research.

In 2005 the government published Developing a Global Dimension in the School Curriculum (DfES, 2005). It’s purpose is to ‘show how a global dimension can be incorporated into both the curriculum and the wider life of the school. This means that the content of what is taught is informed by international and global matters, so preparing pupils to live their lives in a global society. The document promotes interdependence and social justice, based on knowledge and understanding and the development of positive attitudes.

Note that none of the goals in either of these documents are evident in the past or current TDA Standards, and as such does not seem to have had a consistent impact on ITT curricula. This could be due to the short time available on some ITT courses which focus on the acquisition of national curriculum subject knowledge and on the basics of planning, assessment and classroom management. Since 1998 particular emphasis has been placed on the core subjects of English, mathematics and science. Programmes for Secondary trainees focus on learning to teach their national curriculum subject and are unlikely to cover global issues unless they are geography or citizenship students;
primary students are similarly unlikely to find such a European or international focus on their short and tightly defined courses. (Holden and Hicks 2007:2).

However England is not alone in this, Holden and Hicks (2007) also highlight a lack of European or international perspectives within initial teacher training programmes across the world. This is due in part to the structure of teacher training in all European countries being strongly bound and shaped by national and historical contexts. With the state as the main employer of teacher training graduates there is a strong policy influence on the structure and content of teacher training, and the related local and national requirements generally tend to lower flexibility. The Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS 2006) identified the main constraints across Europe as being due to different degree structures and competencies:

- different types of programmes – undergraduate and postgraduate
- different levels of the educational structure: pre school, primary school, secondary education, with all kinds of national variations
- programmes are offered by different types of institutions - universities, non university institutions and specialised teacher training colleges
- some teacher training programmes focus on one or two school subjects (e.g. history, mathematic) with related disciplinary programmes
- the prominence of the discipline of education (pedagogy) is realised in very different ways, largely dependent on structural features of the national educational system. (CHEPS 2006:39)

Tight state regulation in initial teacher training, where teacher qualification requirements are dependent on national contexts will continue to be a ‘week point’ (CHEPS 2006: 4.5.5) in the two cycle structure envisaged by Bologna. More flexibility in teacher education policy is needed to take the agenda forward.
Looking beyond the constraints

For the education of teachers of the future it is important that we engage them in looking beyond the competencies of the ‘Standards’ and engage in defining and redefining their own concepts of education by ‘subjecting our own way of viewing the world to careful scrutiny’ (Booth 2003:261). European and international dimensions encourages us to use the perspective of others to challenge what is taken for granted in ones’ own educational policy and practice, we are offered insights into another way of seeing education, and our work within it. This interplay is fundamental to our attempts at internationalising our work and professional experiences. As such it is important to openly acknowledge and raise awareness of the ‘global nature’ (Scurati 1995) of education. For moral, academic and quality reasons, the Europeanisation and internationalisation of education faculties is key to moving away from the parochial and transforming education culture for the future.

The dominance of the Teacher Development Agency, rather than the normal higher education authorities has led to the continued focus on controlling competencies and training rather than promoting academic quality, is problematic when developing processes that encourage and enable European and international education. This issue outlined clearly in the Magna Carta Universitatum (1988:1), universities from across Europe agreed that they had an important role in a ‘changing and an increasingly international society’, looking to the social, cultural and economic future. The Magna Carta sets out key principles for universities across Europe. The principles identify the importance of university teaching and research being morally and intellectually independent of political authority alongside maintaining the European humanist tradition of collaboration and cooperation (1988:2).

Nothing within the TDA Standards as such inhibits the development of the Europeanisation/internationalisation of initial teacher training programmes or mobility. Rather it is the perceptions, knowledge and attitudes of those with teacher training departments that determine the content and approach to ITT programmes, and that curriculum design is the embodiment of
institutional/faculty values and beliefs Mohrman (1994:123). We need therefore to be cognisant of our responsibilities as teacher educators, knowing that some of the students and teacher that we are working with today will be still be involved in education in 2050, in a world very different from the one we know today. The ‘Futures Agenda’ suggests that it is difficult, if not impossible, to predict what life/education will be like in 2050. What indications there are signal an increasingly global concept of what education is for and what education can do. For example projections indicate that continued development in electronic communications could enhance the growth of transnational education, with students able to access and study on programmes from anywhere in the world. We need to ensure that teachers and teacher educators are able to adapt to meet the demands of the future. It is therefore important to develop our own and students’ international and intercultural competence and understanding, as European and global citizens.

For many years faculties of education have been involved in European and international collaboration at various levels: academic staff have attended conferences, meeting new colleagues and developing collegial and research networks. Small groups of students have had European and international experiences of various kinds such as Modern Foreign Language studenst; visits to schools in developing countries etc. The experiences are undoubtedly of value to those concerned:

Tutor comments – ‘Raising my expectations…until I’d gone with students into a different setting I had underestimated their ability to reflect on a much higher level’

Students comments - ‘It improves my teaching and understanding. Emotionally I have benefited. I now have true empathy with children who feel unsure and sometimes alone’

‘It is learning another way of life’

‘This is something you cannot learn from reading a book’
However he impact on the life of faculties of education and ITT is minimal in terms of embedding experiences and outcomes across and teacher educations programmes. To overcome this some faculties of education have taken a strategic decision to embed the European and international dimensions across their programmes. The need for flexibility and creativity when validating and managing programmes has been recognised. The encouragement of ITT staff to experience Erasmus tutor exchange as part of professional development has encouraged a wider more reflective approach to planning ITT programmes. The impact of including international electives has been identified as a key element for increasing mobility of students across many English universities. Opportunities to study European and international education modules are growing, particularly with the emergence of Education Studies degrees. What has happened over time is that staff and students’ expectations have been raised and their horizons widened. They have come to realise that education does not necessarily mean the same thing in all societies, and that this diversity of policy and practice is a strength. In universities where this European and international development is embedded, staff and students now ask for and plan for opportunities that will be open for them, but more importantly they are increasingly considering educational issues from European and international perspectives.

**Conclusion**

The internationalisation of teacher education is a key strategic challenge for the coming years. It is challenging and changing the way we think about education and the impact it has on curriculum and the student experience. However strongly the Bologna Process promotes development in HE it will not have an impact on ITT until it is explicit within education programmes. We should not wait until different government departments have consistency across their demands.

It is the responsibility of ITT providers, as academics in teacher education, to harness out understanding and enthusiasm for education that is outward looking, democratic and cognisant of diversity. We need to look beyond training and return to teacher education ensuring that we are
providing the very best experience we can for our students in terms of ideology, curriculum, social and cultural understandings. The Europeanisation and internationalisation of our programmes and approaches are key to enhancing student learning and producing teachers with both the global competency and cultural intelligence required for success and well-being in a diverse democracy and an increasingly interconnected world.
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As part of the European agenda on Education & Training 2010 the European Commission has established a number of Clusters to facilitate peer learning between European member states. Within these Clusters, peer learning activities are organized where representatives from member states exchange examples of good policy practice and explore the implications of the EU’s ambitions for new education policies.

One of these Clusters is the Cluster Teachers & Trainers, which has organized peer learning activities on a variety of topics concerning teachers and teacher education: continuous professional development; schools as learning communities; school leadership; preparing teachers (and student teachers) to teach in culturally diverse classroom settings; partnership between VET schools and companies; relations between schools and teacher education institutes. From these peer learning activities policy recommendations are derived that can support ministries in member states to improve their policies on teachers and teacher education.

In our paper we present a synthesis of the work of the Cluster Teachers & Trainers after two years of experience. Bridging the different peer learning activities and reports, we will investigate the outcomes and effectiveness of the peer learning activities.

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The context for peer learning on teacher education policies: Education & Training 2010

In the year 2000 the Council of the European Union announced its ambition to become ‘the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion’.

To achieve this ambitious goal, it is necessary to invest in the quality of education. Therefore, in 2001 the Council identified concrete future objectives of education and training systems (European Council, 2001). In these objectives, three major goals were emphasized:

- to improve the quality and effectiveness of EU education and training systems;
- to ensure that they are accessible to all;
- to open up education and training to the wider world.

To achieve these goals, the Ministers of education of the member states of the European Union agreed on a detailed work programme Education & Training 2010 with thirteen specific objectives (European Council, 2002). Education systems in the member states have to improve on a variety of areas: teacher quality and teacher education; basic skills; integration of Information and Communication Technologies; efficiency of investments; language learning; lifelong guidance; flexibility of the systems to make learning accessible to all, mobility, citizenship education, etc.

With respect to the objective concerning teachers and teacher training, the work programme identifies four key issues:

1. Identifying the skills that teachers and trainers should have, given their changing roles in knowledge society;
2. Providing the conditions which adequately support teachers and trainers as they respond to the challenges of the knowledge society, including through initial and in-service training in the perspective of lifelong learning;
3. Securing a sufficient level of entry to the teaching profession, across all subjects and levels, as well as providing for the long-term needs of the profession by making teaching and training even more attractive;
4. Attracting recruits to teaching and training who have professional experience in other fields.

The open method of co-ordination

Although the ambitions of the European Union with respect to education are high, the authority of the European Council with respect to education is limited as it has no legislative authority in the field of education. Therefore the realization of the work programme Education & Training 2010 is in the hands of the individual member states. However, the European Council and the European Commission still have a number of policy tools to support the work programme. These tools are part of the so called ‘open method of co-ordination’.

The Open Method of Co-ordination (OMC) is a way of co-ordinating and stimulating policy development at national levels. The OMC starts with defining shared goals and timetables for reaching these goals, followed by the definition of qualitative and quantitative indicators and benchmarks, development of national policy plans with targets, sharing of national experiences through peer learning and peer review and finally periodic monitoring and evaluation, both on a national and a European level (Presidency Conclusions, point 37, European Council, Lisbon 23–24 March 2000).

The OMC is seen as a soft law mechanism, based on the voluntary co-operation of the member states, as no sanctions are involved.

The OMC has several characteristics:

- normative: by setting specific targets and by defining indicators that can be used as benchmarks, a normative framework is created;
- oriented on mutual learning: through exchange of policy examples and good and bad experiences and through the shared discussion of existing dilemmas, mutual learning is stimulated;
- competitive: through benchmarks and rankings, member states tend to compare their performance with performances of other member states. No country wants to end up at
the end of a ranking list. On the other hand, (economic) competitiveness between member states can frustrate processes of peer learning when countries are reluctant to share their policy practices, in order to protect their leading position;

- quantitative: to develop effective benchmarks and monitor instruments, indicators need to focus on clearly defined and easy to measure quantitative outcomes.

Within the work programme Education & Training 2010, the Open Method of Co-ordination is used as the main instrument for policy development. In the work programme the goals, timetable and indicators are defined; through benchmarks the development of these indicators are monitored and evaluated on a two yearly base (see for example European Commission, 2004) and peer learning between member states is stimulated through peer learning activities focusing on specific topics within the overall Education & Training 2010 work programme.

**Policy development through Peer Learning**

Within the context of the Education & Training 2010 work programme, peer learning is seen as a process of cooperation at a European level whereby both policy makers and practitioners from one country learn, through direct contact and practical cooperation, from the experiences of their counterparts elsewhere in Europe in implementing reforms in areas of shared interest and concern. Around some of the objectives of the work programme, the Commission has created Clusters of representatives from member states that are interested in that specific theme. A Cluster consists of representatives from countries that have a vested interest in that specific objective and have expressed a desire to learn from other interested countries, or to share with others their successful or unsuccessful experiences. This peer learning is facilitated by peer learning activities (PLAs), thematic working conferences where specific policy issues are discussed through presentations of policy examples from the host country and other countries. Visits to relevant locations which give an insight into the particular policy theme are often part of those working conferences.

Aim of the peer learning activities are (European Commission, 2006):

- to develop a common understanding of success factors for the improvement of policy-making and the implementation of reform;
- to identify and disseminate key conclusions which can be fed into policy-making and implementation at the national level and European level.

In general, PLAs are small scale working sessions of four days with two representatives from each Cluster country that decides to join that specific PLA: one represents the policy level, who should be able to address the critical factors for policy development, and one is from the operational level, who is expected to address the critical factors for implementation.

During the Cluster meetings the PLAs are prepared, the outcomes are discussed and the impact of PLAs on national policy making is shared.

**Summary of the five PLAs**

Within the Cluster Teachers & Trainers, 21 countries are represented. The cluster started in April 2005 and five peer learning activities have been organized:

The selection of the topics for the PLAs was based on their relevance for the participating countries and on the willingness of a host country to organize a PLA on that specific topic.

**Continuous Professional Development for Teachers and Trainers**

The first PLA of the Cluster 'Teachers and Trainers' was held in Dublin, 26-29 September 2005 and focused on Continuous Professional Development (CPD) of teachers and trainers in the context of lifelong learning.

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1 AT, BE (Fr), BE(NL), CR, CZ, CY, DK, ES, EST, FR, GE, FI, IC, IR, IT, NL, NO, RO, SL, SW, TU
2 The reports of the peer learning activities can be found at http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/objectives_en.html#training
Starting from the question of how to improve the quality of teachers in general, members of the PLA wanted among others to concentrate on the following policy related issues:

- existing reform options in the Irish system for CPD
- creating a genuine continuum through initial teacher education, induction and CPD
- facilitating schools to support and empower their staff in the process of lifelong learning and teachers to take greater ownership and responsibility in this endeavour.

The idea of the presented action research project ‘Teaching and Learning for the Twenty First Century’ (TL21), and the second national project ‘Leadership Development for Schools’ (LDS) as well, get to the heart of improving classroom teaching, challenging teacher learning by support based on clear vision within the education system. They were linked to induction, subject-based in-service training, mentorship training and qualifications reforms.

Among the PLA participants, there was consensus that the presented policy examples of collaborative teacher learning in cooperation with initial research based actions tend to raise teachers’ engagement and personal involvement in becoming aware of their personal needs for further professional development. Reflecting their individual progress at that stage of professional learning also raises their awareness for learner oriented teaching and re-empowers them to intensify their responses to different learner typologies of their students. Attempting to equip future school leaders with management skills as well as the confidence and competence to support change and advance further staff development on one hand and to assist school management to develop positive leadership roles to support teachers in managing their individual change on the other, seemed to promote the idea of a learning community for all involved groups, pupils as well as teachers.

One main policy issue in the final discussion of the PLA referred to the period of induction for novice teachers supported by experienced teachers as mentors. Induction programmes were also understood as highly supportive for teachers re-entering the profession after years, for those changing schools and of course for newly appointed school-leaders. Despite the different national approaches (centralised or de-centralised systems) participants of the PLA found an appropriate balance to meet their own requirements or policy innovation. As it was the first experience of the Cluster T&T with a PLA, several process related issues within a PLA were discussed for consideration in further PLA planning.

**Schools as Learning Communities for their Teachers (The Netherlands, May 2006)**

In the concluding discussion and reflection on the PLA in Dublin, it had become obvious how the awareness for schools to define themselves as learning organizations can take a decisive effect on teachers’ encouragement and motivation to fully engage in their personal professional development. All members of the Cluster agreed that on the way to the learning and knowledge society, school staffs need support to review their own learning culture, while at the same time policy makers, supervision boards and school leaders should question themselves how they motivate teachers for their own learning and further development. Teachers themselves should increasingly focus on their individual needs, aligning them to their personal professional self-concept and perceiving them in the context of school development in a collaborative creative process.

Consequently the Dutch model of ‘Schools as Learning Communities for their Teachers’ was a challenging and exciting topic for a follow-up PLA.

During the regular four days of the activity the participants in the peer learning activity had the chance to visit schools that were experienced as learning environments. Further inspiration for the discussions between the participants was provided through presentations from different stakeholders (the Ministry, the Inspectorate, school leaders, teacher educators and student teachers). Pupils, teachers and school leaders presented a wide range of issues and many more were stimulated by questions of PLA participants.

While the country representatives had their own vision of how the development of learning communities could be promoted in their national systemic and policy contexts, the group gradually began to consider possible common implications of this concept throughout Europe.

Despite the differences in teaching and training approaches in the member states and the national traditions of responsibilities, steering strategies and other preconditions, there was high
level of agreement that the examples of learning schools are apt to make an important contribution to school improvement, the development of new expertise for teachers and their own learning with a great benefit for the individual pupil experiencing learning teachers as positive role models in lifelong learning.

The following issues were especially pointed out as relevant for national and European policy:
- it is regarded to be more effective for teachers’ professional development when there are systematic opportunities with conditions that allow change to happen with all partners involved
- highly prescribed CPD programmes, which do not take the individual development needs or the local circumstances and the participating actors into account are not likely to succeed
- irrespective of the different approaches like autonomy, centralization, de-centralization and shared responsibilities among teacher education institutions, all partners in the school sector should highly value the establishment of a new learning culture and encourage teachers accordingly
- following the vision to improve pupils’ performances and results by means of improving the quality of teachers’ professional development, the Dutch approach was perceived as a highly stimulating and inspiring future concept.

Along with parallel policy examples from Cyprus and Turkey the PLA allowed for a deep analysis of contrasting experiences enabling participants to reflect their national systems.

Partnership between Schools for Vocational Education and Training (VET) and Companies (Austria, March 2007)

The main goal of the PLA was that the participants learn and exchange about the different ways in which partnerships between schools and companies are managed, developed and supported in different countries, and how these contribute to the overall quality of their VET system. A special focus was put on teachers and trainers as main linking pins between the school world and the world of work at provider level.

A number of countries have school based systems where practical training in companies is an obligatory component, like the "sandwich model" of Iceland, the obligatory work experience in the different Irish programmes or the practical, contract-based training in companies in Estonia and Slovenia. In a number of countries (Portugal, Italy, and the Netherlands), both school- and company based systems coexist side by side, in some cases sharing the same target groups, learning objectives, and certifications.

While the majority of the countries state that the country either has adopted or is working towards a competence based approach, closer scrutiny showed that "competence based" seems to be interpreted quite differently.

In most of the participating countries VET schools employ both academics and persons with a professional background.

There appeared to be large differences between countries concerning the organisation of company based training and the roles and qualifications of company trainers. A few countries have no concepts of company based trainers. The formal requirements for trainers’ qualifications appeared very varied. The extreme points were Germany, where trainers - besides a vocational qualification - are required to follow a course of 120 hours and pass an examination; and Italy, where enterprise tutors have to attend a compulsory training course of at least 8 hours.

The three main challenges that VET teachers and trainers face at the moment are the recruitment of teachers, the necessity for new competence requirements for teachers, the possibility for competence development of teachers and trainers and the definition of standards at national level to ensure the quality of training.

The partnership between the world of school and the world of work seemed quite institutionalised at national or regional levels; however, cooperation at the school-company level depended to a
large extent on the initiative from the school. The crucial challenge from the policy perspective was to bring teachers and trainers closer together.

Preparing Teachers to Teach Effectively in Culturally Diverse Settings (Norway, May 2007)
The experience of a changing school population and an increasing number of pupils with migration background has become a great challenge for some countries while others are rather experienced and have a long tradition with intercultural models and inclusive teaching approaches in the context of minorities in their society. Yet, in most countries teachers obviously do not feel adequately prepared to teach in culturally diverse settings. The follow-up PLA was conducted in Norway as one of the countries with interesting policy examples and a national institution that acts as bridge between policy-makers, researchers and schools. This Norwegian National Centre for Multicultural Education (NAFO) offers assistance in issues like awareness raising, intercultural competence development, networking and the dissemination of good practice examples.

Again in this peer learning activity the vital role of school leaders was noted by the participants and especially the need for a range of extra competences when leading a multicultural learning community. The participants in the PLA cluster had the possibility to visit different school settings and concluded, that decision making regarding culturally diverse schools needs policy makers, who are aware of the sensitivities in the field of cultural diversity and their societal implications with respect to social partners, parents’ associations and others more. The very personal discussion with a mother involved in parents’ work in this context deeply impressed the participants. There was great consensus that teachers in this specific field have to be prepared already in their initial phase of education. In this phase student teachers need to be confronted with the latest research results in the area of stereotyping and discrimination as well as gain background knowledge about the countries, the migrant families come from. The correlation of school success and the awareness of acceptance or lack of acceptance in society has been object for research especially in the Netherlands in the field of language teaching to children with migration background.

Another impressing policy example from the initial stage of teacher education in the Netherlands was the model of a teaching practicum abroad (without a Dutch mentor) for a large number of student teachers in countries like Turkey, African countries and others to become familiar with the cultural background of their pupils and experiencing some of the basic problems of living and working in a different cultural context; at the same time examining or reassessing their attitudes towards different cultures.

In the reflecting discussion, the participants concluded that teacher educators themselves should have specific competences in these issues and should strongly enhance research with closer contact to the daily teaching in such classroom settings. Further more, they should be willing and be able to support student teachers in developing their competences to deal appropriately with prejudice at school and to develop interpersonal and social skills like empathy and cultural sensitivity in communicating with pupils and parents. Student teachers disregarding the future level of teaching should be offered the chance for a teaching practicum in a multicultural setting during their initial teacher education. Such core knowledge and intercultural skills are regarded as a minimum standard for future teachers and those already at school should have the chance to develop further competences in the context of CPD.

Relationships between Teacher Education Institutes and schools (Denmark/Sweden, October 2007)
In all preceding PLAs participants continually engaged in parallel discussions on the cooperation of involved actors or even institutionalized partnership between parties in the addressed field. It was obvious that specific projects could be more successful and effective if the involved parties, especially teacher education institutions and schools (including CPD) were able to bring to life strategic partnerships to bridge the often experienced gap between ‘theory’ and ‘practice’ and to take advantage of the fruitful contributions that each party can make to the other.
As a number of member states were interested in exploring such approaches, Denmark offered to host a follow-up PLA to review and discuss existing policy and to contrast these models with further examples from Sweden, Germany and the Netherlands.

The view, that schools should play a central and active role in developing teaching methodology was shared in all models and by all participants. Partnerships between teacher education institutions and schools can contribute to the development of new knowledge about learning (learning to learn) and consequently to the design of teaching approaches that respond to learner typology, leading to curriculum improvements both in schools and in teacher education. To increase the benefits for both partners, the partnership should not only focus on the education of student teachers, but also on the professional development of staff within schools, on curriculum innovation and on shared research (like in the Swedish ThinkTanks).

While in some countries regional partnerships are already functioning effectively (like system where special teacher training schools are connected with universities like in Finland) others are in the process of developing such support systems to meet the above described ambitions.

The participants in the PLA strongly supported the vision that in the future all schools should be able to benefit from the partnership systems and the outcomes of partnerships within a national system. The quality of the outcomes and the effectiveness of the partnership in the light of the intentions involved should be externally evaluated and conclusions should be multiplied.

In the creation of such partnership models, especially in providing the necessary conditions for this endeavor, the members of the PLA identified a strong role for educational policy makers on national and regional level by intentional steering. Essential conditions for effective partnerships are: resources for the long term sustainability of partnerships, formally binding frameworks (e.g. by connecting these frameworks to accreditation criteria) with a focus on quality criteria and assurance, and flexibility to adapt the partnership to local conditions and contexts.

**Common themes**

Analysis of the reports from the four PLAs shows that there are a number of common issues that arose in more than one PLA. These issues seem to be relevant for most member states countries in their policy development and in need of further development.

1. The theme of **lifelong learning of teachers** came up in all of the PLAs. The importance of lifelong learning for the teaching and training professions continues to be an important policy issue in driving up standards of teaching and learning in order to enhance pupils’ and students’ achievement. Through this, national governments recognize that initial teacher education could never be sufficient to prepare for the range of contexts and developments which teachers would experience and recognize the necessity to prepare and up-skill teachers for the emerging knowledge society and economy and to modernize working practices.

To support lifelong learning of teachers, two important structures have been suggested:

a. The importance of competences and standards: Establishing and clarifying what should be expected from teachers has become a widespread policy goal. In many countries the role of these competences and standards is restricted to the area of initial teacher education, clarifying what a beginning teacher should be able to do. During the PLAs the importance of competences and standards that play a role during the whole of the teaching career was emphasized. Such a framework can stimulate ongoing professional development and lifelong learning of teachers.

b. The need for systems that support lifelong learning of teachers: the need to encourage and support teachers’ lifelong learning has underpinned much of the policy debate in member states. During the PLAs, participants noted that although the training policy approaches differed in terms of location (school based or training centres), responsibility (individual schools or a central ministry),

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3 In this analysis, an interim report on the work of the cluster from October 2005 to November 2006 has been used (Brumfitt, 2006).
and focus (on delivering the curriculum, on managing pupil behaviour or on teaching and learning), the underlying policy need to support serving teachers was constant.

2 **Ownership, self-esteem and self-accountability of teachers** were seen as important preconditions for both raising the attractiveness of the teaching profession and improving the quality of teaching and learning. The teaching profession should be seen as a profession with an extended professionalism (Hoyle, 1975). Professionals in education should play an important part in the design and innovation of curricula and learning environments for their pupils. Quality awareness and quality control by teachers and an attitude of self-accountability towards external stakeholders should be stimulated.

Policy measures should respect and support this ownership of teachers.

3 **Leadership** was mentioned in all PLAs. The role of the head of the school in creating conditions for quality improvement, innovation and peer learning within schools was recognized by all PLA participants. Underlying this process has been the view that school improvement is best brought about by concentrating development efforts at the school level and seeing the school as the major unit of change in the education system. Associated with this trend has been the recognition that leadership and management need to be redefined and that a clearer shift away from the traditional hierarchical control mechanisms is needed toward a culture of shared leadership. As a result, attracting, training and retaining high quality school leaders is an important issue in policy making within member states.

In the discussion, attention was drawn to leadership which moves away from a purely authoritative style of administration to a more collaborative style of management and distributed leadership. This asks for teachers that have leadership qualities and who are willing to become actors and equal partners in a change of culture and philosophy in schools today.

4 Many of the policy examples that were seen as promising policy approaches involved **partnerships between schools and teacher education institutions.** Such partnerships did not only focus on the education of new teachers. In such partnerships, initial education of teachers, continuous professional development, curriculum innovation, school improvement and knowledge development through research were integrated. The potential benefits of partnerships between schools and teacher education institutions are increased when the benefits of all participants (student teachers, schools, teacher education institutions and the system) are taken into account and when there is flexibility in the specific design of the partnership, leaving room for adaptation to local needs and conditions.

5 During several PLAs the concept of ‘trust’ was mentioned. Transferring responsibilities to schools and teachers involves the transfer of trust. When school systems are dominated by control mechanisms, defensive attitudes might dominate, frustrating entrepreneurship within schools. The creation of an environment of trust allows school leaders and teachers to be confident that mistakes are part of the learning process, encourages more risk-taking with further ‘trial and error’ and therefore more innovative approaches.

Trust needs to be developed on different levels: trust between ministries and schools, between teachers and school leaders, between teachers (schools) and parents and between schools and teacher education institutions.

Trust can have different manifestations and should not only be based on formal contracts, but also on the relation and intentions of the participants involved (Byrk & Schneider, 2002).

Policy measures should explicitly be evaluated on the extent to which they stimulate or frustrate trust between stakeholders within the education system.

6 To stimulate new policies and approaches it can be helpful to facilitate small scale projects. However, as the quality of teachers and teacher education is important for the whole of the education system, attention should be given to questions how to **stimulate, support and resource the whole of the education system.** Allocation
of time, effort and resources is needed to develop professional qualities through lifelong learning, to create learning communities within schools and to establish effective partnerships.

The sources of finance can vary, depending on national structures, resources and possibilities; they can be institutional (by changing priorities), regional (e.g. through local authorities), national (e.g. by project funding) or international (e.g. through the EU Lifelong Learning Programme). Financial support should always take into account the need for long term sustainability.

These common issues were considered important for developing and improving policies in all member states involved. The discussions considered both the strategic role of a central education ministry and the level of operational detail that was managed by centrally based officials or was left to the autonomy of the school. There was a consensus that the level of centralisation was not the most significant aspect in establishing and maintaining an effective education system. Far more important was ensuring a common understanding of how the system works, how roles and responsibilities are assigned, how progress and developments are monitored, and how each part of the system is held accountable for its performance. The level of regulation and deregulation should not only be seen as a deliberate policy measure to improve educational attainment and school performance, but has also to be regarded as the result of tradition and culture.

**Benefits of peer learning**

The concept of peer learning within the context of the European Union is relatively new. Within the Cluster Teachers & Trainers the participants have developed their own way of working based on the general outline of the European Commission.

The question is whether this way of working has been effective with respect to its aims:

- to develop a common understanding of success factors for the improvement of policy-making and the implementation of reform;
- to identify and disseminate key conclusions which can be fed into policy-making and implementation at the national level and European level.

In all PLA reports and evaluations, the peer learning activities are considered as an effective way of exchanging policy practices and to discuss underlying policy questions. The reports that result from each PLA summarize the common trends and conclusions, making the common understanding explicit. This has lead to an ideational convergence, a convergence at the level of ideas. This means ‘that policy-makers converge in their assessment of causal mechanisms at work in policy areas, definitions of desirable and unacceptable policies, and beliefs about how policies work’ (Radaelli, 2003).

Both at the end of PLAs and at Cluster meetings, participants reported individual insights or findings that they could report and bring back into their own national systems. This indicates that participants were able to identify key conclusions on a national level.

Key conclusions that are fed into policy making and implementation on a European level are more difficult to identify. A clear and explicit mechanism for reporting and implementing outcomes on a European level is missing, as a result of the limited authority of the European Council with respect to education. However, themes and recommendations discussed during the PLAs can be recognized in the communication of the European Commission on improving the quality of teacher education (European Commission, 2007) and the Council’s conclusions on teacher education (European Council, 2007). More implicit mechanisms for transferring PLA outcomes to the EU policy level can also be found:

- The Cluster is seen as an important European platform for policy development on the area of teacher education, as can be seen in the invitation for the EU conference ‘Teacher professional development for the quality and equity of lifelong learning’ organized by the Portuguese Presidency in September 2007.
A number of the Cluster members are also members of the European Network on Teacher Education Policy (ENTEP). This combined membership stimulates the mutual exchange of conclusions and recommendations on a wider scale.

The Cluster is supported by the European Commission. The Commission’s representative feeds the outcomes of the PLAs towards the Commission and to the Education and Training Co-ordination Group, consisting of representatives from the member states and responsible for the overall co-ordination of the Education & Training 2010 work programme.

The peer learning format that has been used by the Cluster T&T differs in several aspects from more traditional conferences or study visits:

- The PLAs have a unique combination of senior policy officials, academics and practitioners. In this way policy development is enriched by outcomes of research and academic discourse and by evaluation of the possible effects of implementation of policy measures in the reality of practice in schools and teacher education. At the same time academics are challenged to apply research outcomes and theories to the reality and limitations of policy making. This interactive and heterogeneous context creates a powerful learning environment that is valued by the participants.

- Despite the fact that the starting point of most PLAs is a specific policy practice in the host country, the PLAs extend to the underlying policy issues that are relevant for all countries. Therefore the PLA is more than a study visit or peer review, leading to common conclusions and recommendations that have a wider relevance for all member states.

- Starting with exchange of existing policy practices in the host country and in other countries, the aim is not to identify ‘best practices’ but ‘next practices’, policy practices that take into account current trends and developments and that are necessary to support schools in the 21st century.

Dilemmas in peer learning

Although the benefits of peer learning within the Cluster Teachers & Trainers are described above, the effectiveness of this peer learning can be questioned at the same time. The aim of the peer learning methodology is to stimulate policy learning within the member states. The effectiveness of this peer learning should become visible in new policy approaches within member states. However, clear structures to evaluate the effectiveness of PLAs are missing. There is no systematic follow-up process gauging the impact that PLAs have on the development of national policies.

Not only evaluation structures are missing, but also support systems to help PLA participants to extend the learning benefits of individual participants to other stakeholders on a national or local level. The implicit expectation is that the (two) participants are able to transfer the growth of their personal understanding of the policy issue discussed during the PLA to a wider audience of policy makers, to extend personal peer learning to national peer learning.

This problem already starts at the level of the PLA participants and the Cluster. Not all Cluster members take part in each PLA. Although the PLA reports try to highlight the common understanding that has been reached during a PLA, the learning impact differs considerably for those that took part in the PLA and those cluster members that could not participate in the PLA and that can only experience second hand information through the PLA report.

The same problem arises again when participants in PLAs have to report back into their national or local context and to feed their personal learning experiences into the national policy processes. The question arises how authentic experiences can be shared.

At least four mechanisms for this transfer problem can be found. First there is the problem of a missing learning environment. The PLAs are evaluated as effective learning environments for the participants. While feeding back the outcomes of the PLAs to other policy makers at the local, national or cluster level, this learning environment is missing. Second, the eagerness of national governments to learn from other countries varies. Although not supported by clear evidence, we have the impression that new member countries are more eager to use the outcomes of the PLAs
to improve their policy making. Third, the impact of PLAs on national policy making seems also to be influenced by the size of ministries or departments and by the status of the PLA participant. Finally, the effectiveness of transfer is influenced by the under-estimation of learning within a political context. During the PLAs the participants have the freedom to open up to new ideas and approaches. However, ‘learning in the context of the OMC is a political exercise. Policy-makers are not seeking truth, but power. They may be open to reasoned argumentation, but not to the point of overcoming the basic fact that they are engaged with politically-sensitive policies’ (Radaelli, 2003). When PLA participants return home to their ministries, they face colleagues who are focussed on the limitations of the national political preoccupations.

Both the political sensitive aspects of peer learning and the problems of effective transfer of learning benefits have received little attention within the Cluster.

Another problem is the involvement of other stakeholders in the peer learning process. Participation is essential for two reasons. One is obvious, that is, legitimacy. The other is less obvious: effectiveness. The method can work like a radar searching solutions only if it involves many different actors. Accordingly, participation should not be limited to those who operate in EU-level committees, but it should be extended to local-level actors’ (Radaelli, 2003). This problem is also recognized by the European Commission as it formulates the ambition to find ways to increase ‘the involvement of the broader education and training community, without diluting the existing exchanges between the Commission and Member States’. (European Commission, 2007b)

Finally, from the list of PLAs it becomes clear that the PLAs have been hosted by countries in the North-West of Europe. Also policy examples have come mainly from those countries. As a result there is no balance in the peer learning process. This imbalance has been addressed several times, inviting countries from the east and south of Europe to host a PLA. However, those countries seem to be reluctant in offering to host a PLA. The reason behind this is still unclear; the reluctance could be connected to the fear of not being able to provide good or best policy practice or to the fact that hosting a PLA is a time consuming activity for ministries which are overloaded with policy innovations. Both assumptions point to a noticeable imbalance between countries in the different parts of Europe.

Finally

The peer learning method is just one of several activities of the open method of co-ordination. It seems to be an essential part of the OMC as it supports member states in reaching the goals of the Education & Training 2010 work programme, although only few representatives can take part. Benchmarks can be useful in showing progress on those goals, but show no insight in ‘how to improve’, give no deeper understanding, and do not contribute to problem solving. It is the process of exchange and discussion of policy practices which gives insight into the “how to” question, thus contributing to improvement.

The shared ambition of Education & Training 2010 needs to be connected to shared learning. The challenge of the Cluster is to feed the learning outcomes of the PLAs into the local and national policy making and to extend the peer learning beyond the boundaries of ministries by involving other national and local stakeholders like schools and teacher education institutions.
References


Teacher Education in Kosovo - International Influence in shaping it and obstacles in making it work in the local context

By Blerim Saqipi, M.Ed.

Key words: International support, local context, sustainability, vision, strategy.

Abstract

Teacher Education in Kosovo has undergone significant restructuring and changes after the 1999 conflict. This did not come only as a need for development of a post-conflict society but also as a need to reform the previous disintegrated and disharmonized 2 year Teacher Education programs in the country so that they are compliant with Bologna standards and European best practice.

The restructuring and change was implemented with support of international donors thus trying to copy as much as possible the best international practice. Such an example was the support from the Canadian Government in establishing the Faculty of Education at the only public University in country. Support was coming from other donors too.

The challenge that the institution is now facing is how to ensure the sustainability of initiatives in the local context once the donor support is withdrawn. Employing the evaluation and assessment policy studies, i.e. evaluation culture, from the very outset of the projects, would have prevented the spontaneous development of the provision of Teacher Education, which normally should have been a carefully planned and guided segment by the Government.

This paper is a personal reflection on the developments in reforming Teacher Education in Kosovo over the last seven years. In a way, this paper is a case study and the conference audience may find these developments useful when, and if, undergoing similar processes. This paper is a contribution to the conference sub-theme: Enhancing quality through the renewal of evaluation cultures in Teacher Education

Introduction and background of developments

After decades of hardship and difficulties for the country, including educational system, Kosovo welcomed international support after the conflict in 1999 in all the fields. It was about a decade University of Prishtina was operating underground due to the difficulties the then
Serbian regime was causing to its regular operation. Understandably enough, the quality of education suffered significantly. One of the areas that became focus of intervention for the international support was reforming the Teacher Education and aligning it with best international practices by upgrading the old teacher education programs and making them Bologna compatible, and more importantly in line with national policies and standards: 4 years Teacher Education Programs, with a proportional division of academic and professional courses, and a practicum component of developmental nature.

Canadian government supported this reform effort, in other words guided the reform, by phasing out the old outdated two years Teacher Education colleges and establishing a Faculty of Education as the only institutions at the University of Prishtina to be in charge of educating teachers complying with the Government standards and policies on Teacher Education. From the very outset of the Project, local partners, especially people from those old programs, whose job was at risk, were resistant to this change and continuously reacted against such initiative.

However, with the instruction of the Government, University decided to embark on this reform agenda without examining the risk of resistance from people within University. Being unable to reject the decision by Government and University, these people continued their resistance from within the new Faculty, after getting teaching jobs with it. As Anderson and Wenderoth suggest “Universities are stable institutions and by nature they change slowly. Changing universities has not been easy in other parts of the world either” (p158). The main motivation behind this resistance was that these people were nearing their retirement age and the establishment of this new faculty demanded also the change in classroom teaching and the whole philosophy to education, which these people found difficult to embrace at this stage of their career. Fullan (1993) warns that resistance is a normal reaction to change. But of course this did not mean that as a result resistance should be ignored, as was the case perhaps in Kosovo context.

The Canadian project was not strict enough in imposing the dynamics of the development of this new Faculty by thinking that giving local partners bigger say would help the sustainability. This led to rapid growth resulting with 10 degree programs after one year of operation. This of course satisfied everyone’s expectations and enthusiasm about this new Faculty, but the issue of management and quality aspects of the programs, including staffing, were the biggest challenge this institution is still facing, which were taken into account by Teacher Education policy makers at that time.
The Canadian project commissioned twice policy studies on the sustainability and quality aspects in the Faculty of Education. But, in this case, the attempts to implement the recommendations of these studies ended at the stage when the project ended. No one seemed to be asking the question: Are we taking the risk of producing lower quality teachers than those we already have in school system?! What would then be the whole purpose of this reform? And what is the impact of low quality Teacher Education in the societal development in a post-conflict country?

The establishment of Faculty of Education marked the biggest milestone in reforming teacher education in Kosovo. The initial structure and philosophy of its functioning should surely become a model for the west Balkan region. The program content, with a proportional division between academic, professional and practicum component, marked a significant paradigm shift in the country as to what type of teachers we want for our schools. However, as the donor community had a clear picture regarding the modern teacher education system, a significant majority of the local partners seem to be acting with the old thinking in the new environment.

Despite the changes in the approach and programme, teaching in the classroom remained the same – old rote memorization approach to teaching and learning. The question is what could have been done in order to avoid the risk of having the old traditional teaching methodologies be implemented in the new program. The problem was local mentality and what most of the teaching staff in the Faculty considered being value. In one sentence, the majority of the staff from the establishment of the faculty considered that a good teacher is the one that knows the subject well. Requirements in hiring staff in the public university made impossible bringing new modern thinking and reform oriented people to teach in this Faculty. Thus, change was, and still is to some extent, difficult to happen.

The concern from the very beginning whether the reform was going to produce concrete tangible results was understandable. Copying literally the Canadian or European model in the local circumstances was the weakness. Local capacities to implement this innovation was lacking and the donor support was not perhaps careful enough in addressing this issue, or even more the timeline of project implementation was too short for solving problems of this nature – reforming teaching in the University classroom.

Lack of local ownership and strategy in reform implementation
Regardless of the good will and intention of the international donors to support the Teacher Education reform in Kosovo, there was no
mechanism established to guarantee the sustainability of the structures being created, after the funding withdrew, and the maintenance and enhancement of quality. Of course the best mechanism would be local ownership and commitment.

Senge (1990) suggests that a vision proceeds success and serves as the overall concept and the compelling force of the organization. Lack of a local strategy and vision, by the Government and University Management for the Faculty of Education enabled the rapid growth of this Faculty which has now turned into an unmanageable organization given the resources made available by the Government. For some people, and their viewpoint, this rapid growth of Faculty was considered a success, without worrying too much about the quality of teaching and employability of graduates.

Because of this particular reason – lack of a proper development strategy – Faculty of Education is only training teachers for pre-primary and primary schools whereas, without thinking long-term and strategically, education of teachers for Upper Secondary Schools was decided to be left with the academic departments. The programs of these departments were far away from meeting national teacher education standards. However, the spirit of compromise seemed to have prevailed at the time when decision about establishing a new faculty was made.

It took 5 years to the Academic Departments to realize that teachers they were training for Upper Secondary Schools were not going to be licensed from the Government, and this means that they would need to review their programs. In order to keep their old tradition of training professionals and to obtain the status of institutions training upper secondary school teachers, these departments decided to launch the program review by duplicating their programs as a result. The final outcome was that they would keep their old programs and offer teacher education programs in addition.

The question is whether or not these departments had the sufficient expertise in the field of teacher education to offer the education/pedagogy component of the program. They always thought they had that expertise, or they underestimated the real importance of education/pedagogy component in teacher education programs. A teacher, for the academic departments, even now needs to know the subject very well and transfer the knowledge to the students. However, the importance of how to transfer the knowledge is minimized. Let alone the fact that it is not only knowledge that we want our future teachers to have – what about skills and competences, and attitudes?
Another defect in the sector is the division between teacher education and educational sciences. The Department of Pedagogy has been developing in parallel to Faculty of Education Master Programs in Social Education and Educational Management. The rational was rather to create reasons for existing as separate department than responding to a request from senior management and other stakeholders, such as labour market.

Given the nature of programs offered at Department of Pedagogy and Faculty of Education, many of the education courses could be offered jointly, perhaps in more sections if needed. Lack of qualified human resources is a general problem in Kosovo, and lack of qualified teaching staff in University is particularly a concern that needs to be addressed. Utilizing existing resources by avoiding duplication of courses could have contributed significantly to the quality enhancement.

Furthermore, joining forces would enable that the teaching component in the Faculty of Education is supplemented by the educational research that would be boosted by the researchers that the department of Pedagogy possesses. Except educating teachers, Faculty of Education should complete its other part of the mission which is conducting research and guiding the development of the school system.

Being a new Faculty, Faculty of Education did not have a strong influence and powerful voice in the University decision making bodies to raise the voice against these disharmonized actions and development in the field of teacher education and educational sciences. Furthermore, Faculty of Education had not yet had the chance to prove its successes so that it would be granted with more responsibilities. Other made use of this situation. However, this perception was wrong and the issue was not giving more responsibilities but joining forces, sharing responsibilities and rationalizing the use of resources, which are scarce anyway.

The so far unsuccessful attempts of the Faculty of Education to position itself in a better way within University cannot be considered only as a failure of the faculty itself. It is a failure of University to develop a modern Teacher Education system by allowing the fragmented structuring of the bodies in charge of teacher education and educational sciences. It is a failure of the University as an institution towards the society by providing low quality teacher education and educational research.

Where does the international influence and support fit in this context? Is there anything that donors could have influenced to avoid this unplanned and spontaneous development of the Teacher Education in
Kosovo? Certainly yes. International donors could have facilitated the development of a shared vision among local stakeholders for the new Faculty of Education that was being created. Not that the donors were not aware of this need, but it seems that they fell victims of the compromises that were made in mitigating addressing the resistance against the change taking place.

The other problem with the donor influence was that such projects try to limit their influence within the frames and context of the same country providing the support, without looking at what are different options and what is the combination that would best suit the local context. The same situation occurs also with different partnership projects with Western Europe Universities. The model of that single country or institution is attempted to be copied in the local context. There is no single model that fits Kosovo Education system given its challenges and history in the last two decades. The work done by European Commission funded project “Tuning Educational Structures in Europe” would be a perfect example of how can different structures be harmonized and still keep their originality.

The system cannot afford the risk to educate lower quality teachers than the ones we already have in schools. Of course, this was not the objective of the international support. If local partners and beneficiaries all had moral purpose in this reform and international donors a clearer strategy and better understanding of local context, results could have been what everyone wanted at the beginning: elimination of disintegrated and disharmonized low quality Teacher Education structures in University of Prishtina.

**Conclusions and lessons learned**

What is the way forward now? And, how the decision on way forward is going to be made given the history of policy decision making in regards to Teacher Education in Kosovo! Establishment of the Faculty of Education was the beginning but the biggest success in reforming Teacher Education, thanks to international funding and more importantly expertise. Thus, all the stakeholders should do their utmost to build on that so that Kosovo schools have as good teachers as those in Western Europe.

The most important aspect is that University itself should be proactive by having a development strategy. This would mark the end of the short-sighted and uninformed decision making in the past that was not always in the best interest of developing an integrated and full fledged teacher education institution in the only public University in the country.

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1 For more information on Tuning Project: [http://www.tuning.unideusto.org/tuningeu/](http://www.tuning.unideusto.org/tuningeu/)
The evaluation and policy studies culture should be embodied in the institution, and system in general, so that in future decisions regarding the development of Teacher Education are well informed. This would be the best preventive measure for defects in the system that usually takes generations to recover.

Having a shared vision and a development strategy at the institutional level, reflecting the agreed upon vision, would have of course avoided the biggest mistake that University of Prishtina is making in regards to Teacher Education – going back to the old former Yugoslav fashion of offering Teacher Education at more than one Faculty within the same University, with a separate Pedagogy Department as well. All this, without basing their work on common standards and values. The question that policy making bodies will ask at some stage, after getting familiar with a broader picture of Teacher Education or Educational Sciences in wider Europe, is: How can we come to point zero and then be in line with modern development trends in Teacher Education. It is already too late if we do not act now.

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The author is lecturer at the Faculty of Education in University of Prishtina, Kosovo, responsible for education courses at the English Program. His research interest is “the shift from prescriptivism to task-based and communicative approach in teaching” in the post-conflict Kosovo, with a special focus on teaching English.
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European Commission Funded project “Tuning Education Structures in Europe: http://www.tuning.unideusto.org/tuningeu/


Main Trends in Foreign Languages Teacher Education in Latvia and Europe

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Abstract. In order to determine what improvements are necessary in foreign language teacher education in Latvia, the article describes the evolution of educational approaches in Europe from the end of the 19th century until the last decade the 20th century with a vision for teacher education in the 21st century.

Keywords: teacher education, foreign languages, teaching methods, education paradigms

Introduction

As Latvia was isolated from other European countries since 1940, the initial teacher education in foreign languages had not gradually gone through all the popular education approaches in the world. After getting the independence from the Soviet Union in 1991, Latvia made fast transition to democracy and market economy that brought significant changes in politics, economics and education. It was necessary to transform the 'soviet' model of the higher education and integrate it into the democratic society and knowledge-based market economy of the European Union (EU) that had started the reforms of the higher education in 70s and 80s.

Language teachers often look for what is new, but they very rarely look back, and there is far too much rediscovering of the wheel. Sometimes the teachers lack of historical perspective (Brumfit et al., 1981, p. 35). They often have “collective professional amnesia” and they “live in a capsule of the present moment, with no time for a backward glance” (Maley, 2001, p. 5). The cultural and social developments of the past century often are considered not very important though they affect the way how, why, and in what manner the foreign language is taught and learnt.
At the same time by looking into the past, it is possibly to discover important issues of the future. In order to determine what improvements are necessary in foreign language teacher education in Latvia, the article describes the evolution of foreign language teacher education and educational approaches in Europe from the end of the 19th century until the end of the 20th century with a vision for teacher education in the 21st century. It is analyzed how political and historical circumstances have changed the teacher’s identity in the society: from the passive cooperating teachers, following the directions of the program guidelines and procedures, to the active teachers, guides and mediators who promote the learners’ involvement.

The experience of other countries can be of value in changing teacher training, particularly foreign language education in Latvia that has started its reforms and the way to outcomes based education only in the middle of 1990s. Based on the main trends in teachers’ education in the world, the article analyses the possible ways along which the language teaching profession in Latvia could move ahead in a near future.

**Years 1890-1970 in Foreign Languages Teacher Education**

In Europe, since the 19th century, the foreign languages teachers’ education was determined not only by psychological, linguistic, learning and language theories and availability of pedagogical resources but also by social, economical, political, historical and educational conditions that influenced and changed approaches to language teaching and learning.

In the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century, teachers were regarded as special people. They were individuals with particular qualities, ability, knowledge and necessary skills in knowledge scarce environment. They held social status, especially in small communities, and often fulfilled many other community leadership roles, which required the exercise of the knowledge and communicative skills they possessed. Knowledge was seen as authoritative, and in some cases was authorized through mandated curricula. It was also concentrated in the person of the teacher and the site of the school. (Heath, 2001). Teachers did not need to have any special training. They simply had to know how to read, write, and handle children.

The learning of foreign languages was for a long time reserved to privileged social classes but the first teachers of foreign languages had studied a foreign language on their own. The more experience English teachers had learning languages, the more they knew about how to teach learners. Their own experience could tell them about the most effective teaching methods. English teachers who had an experience as language
learners could also better understand the difficulties students face while learning a foreign language. The teachers remembered how they learnt the language and knew what was most difficult for students. (Snow, 2006).

In the first teacher training colleges of the 19th and 20th centuries, the foreign language teachers’ education was led through continuous changes in teaching methods and approaches. Though every new method and approach differed from the previous one, it maintained a link with the past by incorporating positive aspects of previous education paradigms.

Anyway, the idea about the teacher who is considered as an authority transmitting knowledge to students who do not know anything remained unchanged in the 19th century and the first two decades of the 20th century.

From 1840 until 1940, the foreign languages teaching methodology was based on using the Grammar Translation Method (also the Prussian Method) in Europe. Anyway, there was the following weakness of the method: even after years of learning a foreign language, students were unable to use it for communicative purposes. In the Grammar Translation Method the classrooms were mostly teacher-centred. The emphasis was on vocabulary and grammar, reading and writing were considered more important than speaking and listening (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Even in the 19th century, several educators criticized the method for the cold and lifeless approach to language teaching. The young teachers were trained not to tolerate any errors and be ready for learners’ physical punishment. The learners’ diligence and intelligence was developed by demanding to memorize long bilingual word lists. The learners had to memorize words and grammar rules for reading the foreign literature, not for speaking (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The method was quite popular in the Soviet Union, also in Latvia until 1991, when people were not allowed to go outside the country and communicate with foreigners. Sometimes the teachers of Latvia use the method also nowadays: in the situations where the learners need to handle written texts in a foreign language.

In Western Europe, the teaching methods and approaches were developed in opposition to the Grammar Translation Method at the beginning of the 20th century. The time of growing industry world, international trade, and travel demanded real communication skills and more effective language teaching and learning. The necessity to avoid translation in teaching the foreign languages led to growing importance of learners’ listening and speaking skills, necessity for meaningful contexts for learning. These principles made the bases for the the Direct Method sometimes called the Natural
or Berlitz Method. The teachers of foreign languages were trained to use the method from 1870 to 1920. The educators also criticized the method and called it “waiter’s English” because of the lack of mental training.

From 1930s to the 60s, the British applied linguists developed the Situational Language Teaching Method for the teachers and learners. The teacher’s task remained unchanged: to lead teacher-centred classes, control the learner and not to tolerate any errors. Not the textbooks but the teacher was the principal source of the information. The learners had to imitate the teacher, train memory and respond quickly and accurately in speech situations.

On the other hand, the method started to stress the learners’ needs. The first time in the history of foreign language pedagogy, teachers of foreign languages faced the need to develop the syllabus, which would be motivating also for learners.

Anyway, the learners were not encouraged to imitate any conversation because of the possible language mistakes also in the Audiolingual Method, which was popular around 1950s, especially in the USA. The method was based on stimulus and response (answer-question) so the teachers did not have to practice communicative exercises in the lesson. The teachers were supposed to prepare a lot of drilling exercises instead, correct the learners’ errors immediately, and be central and active in the classroom. The method needed the tape recorders and language laboratories. The Audiolingual Method mostly involved learning about the language rather than the language itself. As a result, the students were often unable to use the gained skills to real communication outside the classroom.

The method was very popular in Latvia in 70s and 80, when the country was under the Soviet rule. The teachers of foreign languages had to follow the centralized Moscow’s curricula, which determined usage of the Audiolingual Method in the language laboratories. The Soviet education system did not need real communication in foreign environment therefore the educators were recommended to use also the Grammar –Translation method as an addition to the Audiolingual Method. The teachers had very limited possibilities to decide about other approaches in teaching foreign languages. They continued teacher-centred and knowledge based (input-focused) approach: the how (grammar) to say what (vocabulary). The learners had to pursue a level of grammatical correctness in the speech and mostly listen to teacher’s instructions. As a result, the pupils learnt foreign languages passively, according to a teacher's tasks and instructions.

The people who studied at schools and universities in the Soviet times (1960s-1990s), note the weakest knowledge of foreign languages. According to the survey of the
social research firm Data Serviss in collaboration with the State Language Agency of Latvia in 2005, only 2, 4% of 36-45 year old people of Latvia can speak in a foreign language (Ābolīņš, 2006).

Years 1970s-2000s: Post-Method Era in Foreign Languages Teacher Education

In the Soviet times, the beginning teachers of foreign languages in Latvia had a lot of theoretical linguistic knowledge, but little idea how to integrate it with practical classroom pedagogy. For example, they knew a lot about the phonology of English, but had no idea about how to teach pronunciation (Urr, 1986).

Before 1990, the usual qualification for foreign language teachers in Eastern Europe, also in Latvia, was a five-year philology degree providing trainees with thorough linguistic and literary knowledge. The traditional model of university-based teacher training in many Eastern European countries was characterised as a strong applied science model. According to this model, theory was the foundation of the training programme. The language teachers were taught to rely mainly on linguistics as a basis for teaching. Most of their theoretical courses and reading was based on linguistic subjects; relatively little on pedagogy or education as such. (Heyworth, 2003). The teaching practice was short: two or three weeks.

At the same time the educators of Western Europe had realized that theoretical knowledge of pedagogy did not ensure that teachers would know how to handle real problems with real learners. Teaching thorough linguistic, drilling, memorization had not resulted in a language competence.

In 1970s, there started widening of the European Common Market that led to the necessity to teach adults the major languages of the European Union (EU). The Council of Europe, a regional organization for cultural and educational cooperation, sponsored international conferences and published the books on language teaching. The educators focused pedagogical attention on the importance of having real, meaningful communicative exercises in the lessons and stressed the importance of teaching the real-world language: a sentence must not only be grammatically correct; it must also be related to the context in which it is used.

The educators faced a paradigm change in language teaching. Before 1970s, the language teaching focused mainly on linguistic goals. Communicative and cultural elements in teaching foreign languages tended to be weak. In the new paradigm of 70s, the language teachers of Western Europe had to teach not only language and a single linguistic knowledge but also non-language-related aspects, for example, how to behave.
and what to do in different national and international contexts. The language teachers had to teach foreign languages as a means of communication.

The new mode of teaching foreign languages had strong cultural element and included strong intercultural awareness. It became clear that teaching foreign languages was different from other subject areas. (Heyworth, 2003). Anyway, there were no clear methodological guidelines or methodologies for incorporating the new ideas about the real world tasks in foreign language teacher education. The road from the pattern and drill and towards communication in the language led to the crisis in foreign language teaching system in Europe.

In 1970s, there started the period of innovation and experimentation, called Post Method Era. Before 1970s, the West European teacher was a conduit of the knowledge, doer, and implementer of other people’s ideas about curriculum, methodology, and students learning. In 1970s-80s, the teacher became the facilitator and guide as learners construct their own knowledge. Teachers assisted the learners and learnt to acquire student -centred classroom management skills, to monitor and encourage the language learners’ needs.

Around 1980s, the term “teacher education” became more popular than the previous one “teacher training”. Teachers’ mission was not only to teach but rather to educate. The role of the language teacher might therefore be better described as that of the language educator. The changes grew out of shifts in pedagogical approaches in society.

The changing teacher’s role changed also the learner’s role in all the education process. The education curricula became more learner-centered and focused on the outcomes or outputs of learning in the development of study programs. The foreign language teaching methodology courses included several new alternative method proposals like Audiolingualism, Counseling-Learning, Situational Language Teaching, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia and Total Physical Response etc. In teacher education, the study process was not based on teaching just one method as it was before 1970s. As a result, the student teachers were taught to choose between several methods and approaches when teaching foreign languages.

The changes in teacher education and investigations of the new alternative methods led to several new approaches in language teaching named Cooperative Learning, Multiple Intelligence, Neurolinguistic Programming, Whole Language Communicative Language Teaching, Content Based Teaching, Outcomes/Competency Based Teaching etc. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).
New Approaches in Foreign Language Teachers’ Education

In the last decade of the 20th century, the most popular approaches in foreign language methodology courses were Communicative, Content Based Teaching and Outcomes Based Teaching approaches.

Western educators started to emphasize the necessity for the new Communicative-Approach in language teaching and foreign languages teacher education curriculum in 70s. The beginning teachers were supposed to practice the activities that involve meaningful learning and language use in real world applications that demand the communicative competences for speaking to people in different countries; greater attention was paid to individual learner. The educators and researchers saw the need to focus on language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures.

Modern Europe faced linguistic and cultural diversity and exchanges between languages and cultures. It was very important to successfully interact with people with other languages and cultures. The task of the language teachers was to make languages a means of open communication, and provide access to people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. (Heyworth, 2003).

The teachers of foreign languages were educated to use the communicative language programs and textbooks (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The communicative approach was further promoted not only by textbook writers but also by language teaching specialists, curriculum development centers and governments.

Since mid 1970s, the scope of Communicative Language Teaching expanded making the Western educators analyze the teacher and learner’s role in education. In comparison to previous methods and approaches, the Communicative Language Teaching accepted learners’ errors as a part of language learning. The teachers could not lead the oral communication; they assisted the learner and they did not know what language the learner would use.

First in the history of foreign teachers’ education, learners’ mistakes were seen as a normal phenomenon in the communicative process. The beginning teachers were taught not to interrupt the speaker and encourage the learners’ individuality and creativity (Williams & Burden, 1997). By talking to others in a foreign language, the learner opened himself to the other cultural realities and subjects, particularly to those which are about communication or international contacts. Foreign language was not a pure academic subject any more. Language teachers were not considered only language
teachers. They had to teach not only language but also non-language-related aspects: ICT, Business studies, Tourism, etc. In the real world, people learn language and content simultaneously so teachers needed to be able to address both within their classrooms. (Crandall, 1994).

Beginning language teachers felt difficulties in teaching both language and content. They were unprepared to integrate authentic texts, tasks, or tests from content areas in their English classes. In order to solve the problem, the teacher education institutions started to implement one more approach in foreign language pedagogy the Content Based Teaching Approach in the early 1990s. It was also called integrated cross-disciplinary approach in the foreign language teachers’ methodology course. When speaking about the integrated approach to teaching and learning, the American educators used the term “content based second language instruction” or “language enriched content instruction” (Snow, Met & Genesee, 1989).

In Europe, the integrated approach was defined also as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in 1994 by University of Jyvaskyla. The Finnish educators described the educational method where subjects are taught in a foreign language through the learning of content and a foreign language in tandem. The term stressed neither language nor content but saw both as equally important. CLIL was the term used for any subject that is taught through the medium of the language other than the mother tongue, for example, history through German, geography through French, citizenship through Spanish, economics through English.

The Content Based Teaching Approach is based on making meaningful real life situations in the foreign language. Content-based instruction emphasizes a connection to real life, real world skills. In content based classes the teachers were educated to teach, for example, intercultural relations, immigration, multiculturalism or other global issues and easily provide students with the opportunity of learning about the world realities while advancing their language proficiency.

The approach was implemented in West European teacher education curricula in 90s. There had been some criticism about the possibility to implement CLIL based approach in foreign languages teacher education programs. The traditional curriculum supposes that language teachers have been trained to teach language as a skill rather than to teach a content subject. Because of the former traditional approach, the student teachers may be insufficiently prepared to teach subject matter in which they have not been trained (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As a result, team –teaching proposals
involving language teachers and subject teachers often are ineffective and boring for both the sides.

In the end of 1980s and 1990s, the language teachers’ education in Europe faced one more approach named *Outcomes or Competency Based Language Teaching*. Outcomes Based Language Teaching was an application of the principles of Outcomes Based Education movement in general education to language teaching. The focus what students know about language was changed to the focus what they can do with the language: what learning outcomes the teachers can develop.

Learning outcomes are statements of what is expected that a student will be able to do as a result of a learning activity. The outcomes were called “expectations and learning goals, standards, concepts, performance expectations, and performance based education, objectives, learner processes, learner competences (Cramer, 1994).

Floyd Boschee and Mark Baron described the outcomes as learner-centered, future oriented, publicly defined, focused on life skills and contexts (Boschee and Baron, 1994). The educators use the term “learning outcomes” to indicate what a learner is expected to know, understand and /or be able to demonstrate at the end of a period of learning, i.e., the knowledge, skills and abilities named also “competences”.

The educators often use the term “learning outcomes” when meaning learners’ competences. In general, competence means aptitude, proficiency, capability, skills, and understanding. A competent person is someone with sufficient skills, knowledge, and capabilities (Stephen, 2004). Competencies describe the student’s ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life. Competences are described by the words the student “knows”, “demonstrates ability”, “explains”, “identifies” according to Bloom’s educational objective levels of knowledge. (Bloom, 1954).

The necessity for outcomes and competencies appeared while building the transparent higher education system in European Higher Education Area in 90s. It was necessary to enable international transparency, international recognition of qualifications and international mobility of learners and graduates. (Schleicher, 2006). The sending and accepting higher education institutions had to find the solutions how to compare the study programs. Learning outcomes became important tools in clarifying the learning results not only for the students but also for the professors and employers. The shift from an education mainly focusing on the inputs, teacher centred and content based gave way to output, student-centred and competence based learning, first in isolated cases.
Application of Learning Outcomes Approach in International Projects and Documents

In order to improve the recognition, transparency, transfer, and recognition of qualifications and competences in higher education areas, around 2000, there were developed several meaningful documents and projects in Europe: for example, a Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, Tuning Educational Structures in Europe, the Bologna Qualifications Framework (BQF) and European Qualifications Framework (EQF), etc.

Common European Higher Education Area facilitated discussions also in foreign languages student teachers education about transparency and coherence in language teaching and learning and common criteria for a description of language competencies. Between 1989 and 1996, a number of leading applied linguists and pedagogical specialists from the 41 member states of the Council of Europe were involved in the research “Language Learning for European Citizenship”. As the main part of the project, there was developed the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, or CEFR. The framework was a guideline used to describe achievements of learners of foreign languages across all Europe. The learners’ outcomes were evaluated in an internationally comparable manner. (A Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2001).

The trend to output, student-centred and competence based learning was especially stressed in the project “Tuning Educational Structures in Europe” (2000-2004), which was a collective work on learning outcomes as stages in competence-based learning. About 100 European universities decided to accept the ‘Bologna challenge’ and developed a common and modern methodology to support a complete renovation of education programmes. The project developed professional profiles and comparable and compatible learning outcomes and facilitated graduates’ employability by promoting transparency in educational structures (easily readable and comparable degrees or “tuned” study structures). (Tuning Educational Structures, 2004).

In order to provide international transparency, cooperation, transferability, international recognition of qualifications and mobility of learners and graduates in a common European Higher Education Area (EHEA), there was adopted the Bologna Qualifications Framework in 2005. It was based on the first, second and third cycles identified in the Bologna Process. The framework supported the development and recognition of joint degrees from more than one country.
Parallel to BQF there was developed also the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) in 2005. The EQF contains 8 levels and relates to all education and training awards in Europe. “The core element of the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) is a set of eight reference levels describing what a learner knows, understands and is able to do - their 'learning outcomes' - regardless of the system where a particular qualification was acquired. The EQF reference levels therefore shift the focus away from the traditional approach, which emphasises learning inputs (length of a learning experience, type of institution).” (The European Qualifications Framework, 2007).

Both the frameworks promote the European and international students’, also future teachers’ mobility, when they try to move from one country to another to learn or work, or build upon previous education or training. They increase mobility for learning or working. The frameworks could prove important for the assessment and recognition of immigrants also from outside the EU.

The competences that could be included in the foreign languages teacher curriculum of the 21st century were investigated in the document named “European Profile for Language Teacher Education in the 21st century.” The document was prepared by a wide range of European experts on language teacher education, and used the experience of eleven European teacher education institutions. The teacher educators were asked how language teacher education could be improved from national and European perspectives. The Profile dealt with the structure of educational courses, the diversity of teaching and learning strategies, the knowledge, and understanding central to foreign language teaching, and the skills and values language teachers should encourage and promote in the 21st century (Kelly and Grenfeld, 2004).

In 1990s and 2000s, there were developed a lot of documents about learning outcomes and competences. However, relatively few European countries or higher education institutions had implemented learning outcomes in a systematic way like, for example, Denmark, Ireland, Sweden, UK etc. (Stephen, 2004).

**Learning Outcomes and Competences in Latvia**

There is some evidence of the development of learning outcomes approaches in Latvia. The documents ‘Regulation on the standards for academic education’ and ‘Regulation on the standard of professional higher education’ both include an important role for the notion of learning outcomes. (Stephen, 2004). At the time when implementing the Outcomes Based Education was occurring in Western Europe, Latvia was undergoing major political and economic changes. During the last 17 years, Latvia has made a rapid progress in its effort to
leave behind its Soviet past and join modern democratic market economy. New methods of accreditation, compatible systems of course credits, common undergraduate and postgraduate structures and degrees for all European Union countries have been invented. However, in many teacher education institutions the focus is on the content and process of education.

The first attempts to change the existing knowledge based approach to outcomes and competency based approach appeared in some higher education institutions only around 2005. For example, the Faculty of Pedagogy at the University of Latvia had started to develop the foreign languages teacher education study programs according to the principles of outcomes based education that firstly demands identifying the expected results, determining acceptable evidence, and only secondly planning instructions and assessment. Other higher education institutions of Latvia mostly have not started implementing the new outcomes based approach in their teacher education study programs.

The slow shift to learning outcomes can be explained by historical and political reasons. In Latvia, the education reform started in the early 1990s, after gaining its independence from the Soviet Union. When Latvia achieved independence, it moved to a decentralized system and developed “knowledge” standards. At the same time, educational institutions in Western Europe were embracing outcomes based educational standards that also included requirements for the teaching not only knowledge but also skills and values.

The competencies were not required in the Soviet times, they are not particularly stressed in the General Teacher’s Standard of Latvia therefore many professors and lecturers do not implement them in their teaching nowadays. Slow shift to learning outcomes makes the teacher education programs rather theoretical, content-oriented and even authoritarian. (Geske, Grīnfelds, Kangro, Zaķis, 2003; Seile, 2003).

There is a possibility that the young graduating teachers will continue the same traditional input orientated approach in their own classes if they have experienced mostly the traditional instructions and traditional assessments instead of performance-based instructions and assessments.

It is necessary to develop the new standards for the teachers of the foreign languages stressing not only the knowledge but also skills and values. The development of the standards would mark an important shift from an input based view of language instruction-focused on the information and knowledge students learn in a curriculum, to an output based view centred on what students should know and be able to do as a result of language study. The language teachers’ educational system of Latvia should move to a split of knowledge, skills, and values.
However, Western Europe had about 30 years for implementing the learning outcomes and learner-centered approach in foreign language teacher education. Latvia, as a post Soviet country, has to renew the teacher education system much faster if it wants to become a competitive partner in the new world of the 21st century.

References


Abstract:
The Scandinavian teachers education programs have been evaluated over the last five years: Denmark 2003, Sweden 2005, and Norway 2006. One among other conclusions was that the subject of pedagogy (educational theory) needed to be revitalized. The subject is attributed quite many hours and study credit points in the programs but does not seem to function most advantageous for the education as such or for the other subjects in the teachers education programs. After a brief introduction to contemporary challenges to teachers education this paper introduces with inspiration from sociological systems theory a distinction between three different forms of knowledge of importance for teacher education, secondly gives a presentation of similarities and differences in respect to pedagogy and subject didactics in the Nordic teachers education programs as they can be derived from the evaluations, and finally analyze the seminarium-based status of pedagogy and subject didactics seen in relation to demands for research based teacher education.

Keywords:
Teacher education programs, pedagogy, subject didactics, forms of knowledge.
Teacher education is in a process of transformation. The seminarium-based education which for more than two hundred years has been the foundation for teacher education in the Nordic countries seems no longer to be an adequate basis in modern knowledge societies for the performance of teaching. The seminarium-tradition for teacher education is under pressure and much indicates that this tradition has reached a critical point where it is no longer able to live up to its function. In the evaluations of the Danish (2003), the Swedish (2005) and the Norwegian (2006) teacher education programs the criticism and concern of the existing programs are confirmed even though the education in Norway and Sweden has been moved away from the seminars. Why is it that the seminarium-tradition to day seems inadequate? Why is teacher education in a process of transformation? Many quite different reasons can be given for this dependent on whether teacher education is observed from outside, i.e. from the environments external perspective or from the inside, i.e. from its self conception. It is conspicuous but maybe not surprising that the environment represents a much more critical view on teacher education than teacher education itself.

**Environmental parameters**
The pressure on teacher education as a traditional seminarium-education whether it actually is placed at a seminarium or at a place where the seminarium-tradition still is strong as it is the case in all Nordic teacher education programs, is coming from the political system, research and the school.

**Policy**
From the political perspective two issues are at stake. The first is the adaptations to the Bologna process which all European countries are involved in. This process that was launched with the Bologna declaration of June 1999 aims at creating a European higher education area. Important elements in this endeavor is the organization of a 3-2-3 structure with three year long bachelor programs, two year long master programs and three year long PhD programs, introduction of ECTS-points (European Credit Transfer System) for measuring the volume of full educational programs and elements of single programs, diploma supplements for making it easier to compare exams in different educational programs and countries, and the introduction of quality assurance systems.

The second issue is that the Nordic educational systems are in a period of adaptation to the accountability policy that with differences among the countries has developed into the prevailing political steering strategy for public institutions. Accountability policy is interested in who can be held responsible by whom for what with which consequences in the full range from political decision makers through national as well as regional administration, educational institutions to teachers. Over the last more than twenty years this strategy has been developed through different reforms on decentralization of tasks, distribution of responsibility and competences to local authorities, and introduction of frame steering as a substitute to the inflexible detail-steering of previous times. To this must be added the introduction of elements such as market control mechanisms and competition among public as well as private enterprises, and the introduction of quality assurance as evaluation of public institutions. To realize this policy public, legitimate
standards including strategies for their use and test systems have been introduced together with different forms of accreditation systems.

The accountability strategy takes its departure in the basic assumption that in order to be in a position to hold the different levels of society responsible they must be given freedom and autonomy to make decisions on local issues. Accountability is a strategy that makes it possible for the different levels to document and compare quality in order to bring the different levels in a position of self steering. This policy is not an abolishing or reduction of state control but a change in state control from control of processes to control of results. With such endeavors educational policy rearrange itself to input steering by control of outputs or to steering by expectations: Standards and certification systems express on the input side society’s expectations to what students in the educational system are supposed to learn, tests and evaluations are employed to control if these expectations are kept (Rasmussen, 2007).

Research
From the perspective of educational research especially international comparative studies like first of all PISA but also TIMMS and a series of reading studies have brought the performance of the school into focus. These studies have pointed out that the Nordic countries with Finland as an exception in reading and math are performing mediocre, and that a substantial gap between better and poor performing students is found in more of the Nordic countries.

From the kind of research in teacher education that defines teacher quality as student achievements it is shown that the teacher is the single largest factor that adds value to students learning, overshadowing students’ previous achievement, class size, ethnic and socioeconomic status (Hanushek, 2002; Rivers & Sanders, 2002). The kind of teacher education research that defines teacher quality as teacher qualifications is additionally engaged in identification of teacher competences of specific relevance for creating better student outcomes. This kind of research has pointed out that students learn more from teachers with a teacher education certificate and with high grades in their final examination certificate (Linda Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002; Rice, 2003). It also shows that students achieve higher with teachers who are able to combine subject matter knowledge, subject didactic knowledge and teaching competences (Linda Darling-Hammond & Brasford, 2005; Linda Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002; Helmke & Weinert, 1997; Weinert et al., 1990).

The school
Finally a movement away from normative guiding pictures based on philosophy of man and society towards emphasis on research based knowledge as indication for educational praxis can be observed in the school. In way with this the evaluations of the Danish, the Norwegian and the Swedish teacher education concurrently point out that national as well as international research results especially in subject didactics have to be drawn into teacher education and that the students must be educated in a way that makes them able to interpret – gladly critical – research results that shows what works and what works better than something else in regard to obtaining as good student outcomes as possible. OECD speaks in this
respect about teaching as a research based profession (OECD, 2003), and EU about an academic and scientific foundation in teacher education (European Commission, 2005).

All things considered these efforts point in the direction of a research basis of teachers’ practice. In teacher education this movement has been named academicism, which to some degree is misleading and in worst case destructive not only to teacher education but also to other professional education programs. Instead of academicism we should rightly speak about research foundation of these programs with the purpose of making the practitioners research informed practitioners. It is not a question about making professional education more theoretical as such, but about what kind of theory or knowledge is being applied. After a short introduction to the conceptualization of society found in sociological systems theory I will discuss the relationship between three different forms of theory and theoretical knowledge in teacher education.

**Society as functionally differentiated**

In contemporary sociological systems theory society is described as differentiated into a number of systems such as economy, politics, science, art, law, education, health etc. each of them handling their specific function (Luhmann, 1997). Two sets of concepts are used to describe the individual systems. The one is function, performance and reflexivity; the other is media, code and program. Generally speaking each system maintains its function in relation to society as such, its performance in relation to other systems and its reflexivity in relation to itself, i.e. its function and performance. Systems specify their function in respect to their own success criteria (media and code) and its own developed activities (program). Functionally differentiated systems have developed own self descriptions as descriptions of their identity. Such descriptions are as theories produced within a system for the system named theories of reflexivity. In this context the interest is especially related to society’s systems of science and education.

The system of science constitutes itself from the form of communication that as its function has production of new knowledge, and as its performance contribution of new knowledge of relevance to other systems. Its theory of reflexivity is dealing with theories of science, and now a days especially epistemology. The symbolic generalized media of communication is truth, the code connected to this media is true/false, and the programs that tell how the code can be applied to the media are related to research methodology.

The function of the educational system is education (fostering, upbringing, teaching, Bildung) and its performance has traditionally been to provide the rising generation with knowledge and competences of importance and value. Today its purpose is not restricted to the rising generation but includes the full course of life in a life long learning perspective that emphasizes that the ability to learn also has to be learned. Learning to learn is not the aim of the educational system but a theme of reflexivity related to its function and performance. The full course of life has become the symbolic media of communication, which is connected to the primary code mediable/not-mediable (+ teaching/- teaching) and the secondary code bet-
ter/worse. The programs of the educational system are curriculum theory as well as curricula.

These distinctions have roots back to Johan Friedrich Herbart who in his lectures from 1802 already made a distinction between what he called the three circles of pedagogy, namely pedagogy as science, pedagogy as education in the art of teaching and pedagogy as a more accidental intercourse (Herbart, 1887, s. 284). This distinction is quite similar to Emile Durkheim’s pointing out that pedagogy is not teaching but reflections on teaching with the aim of guiding the teaching practice, and further more his distinction between pedagogy as a category of reflection occupied with theories about what teaching ideally should be and educational science aiming at studying teaching as it appears and consequently has educational practice as well as educational theories of reflection as its object (Durkheim, 1975 (1914), s. 60f.). In a contemporary terminology it is possible as it has been done above to distinguish between educational research, educational professionalism and educational practice with each of these related to a specific form of knowledge, namely scientific knowledge, professional knowledge and praxis knowledge.

Science of education and education are two totally different occupations and sets of criteria: the researcher is committed to truth, the educator to producing good or better student outcomes. The following table is meant to give a survey of the above explanation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Performance</th>
<th>Reflexivity</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>Truth</td>
<td>Theory and methods</td>
<td>New knowledge</td>
<td>Relevant new knowledge</td>
<td>Theory of science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Course of life</td>
<td>+ Teaching/- teaching Better/worse</td>
<td>Curricula</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this it is possible to see that theory is to be found in the system of science as well as in society’s other systems, but as two different kinds of theory. The system of science is in the particular position that it produces theory, but all systems produce and use theory in the sense of theory of reflexivity.

*Theories of reflexivity* are theories of praxis and praxis technologies. Such technologies are in science oriented towards the production of true – not false – knowledge and in education at how it is possible through teaching to get better – not worse – student outcomes. Reflexive theory must be able to explain praxis in a way that makes it possible to intervene to make the performance better. Therefore it is occupied with what works and best practice questions. *Scientific theory* is in difference to reflexive theory able to restrict itself only to explain and perhaps also understand a phenomenon; it does not necessarily need to tell how to intervene. Theory of science has to live up to the criteria of science, which means its particular demands to methodology, theoretical anchoring, and clear use of concepts, while theory of reflexivity just needs to be expedient for the system. Scientific theory is evaluated in relation to concepts like validity and reliability while reflexive theory is evaluated in relation to its ability to solve context-related prob-
lems; i.e. if it works or is social robust (Nowotny et al., 2001, p. 179). Scientific theory has the ambition of generating general results, while theory of reflexivity aim at intervention in specific, local conditions in order to solve concrete problems. Such differences are as I see it similar to those used to distinguish between what has been called mode-1 and mode-2 research (Nowotny et al., 2001) as two different ways of knowledge production (Rasmussen et al., 2007, p. 123-127).

The distinction between theory of science and theory of reflexivity is illustrated in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory of science</th>
<th>Theory of reflexivity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Name</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode-1</td>
<td>Mode-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purpose</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining,</td>
<td>Intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understanding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Criteria</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific theory and methodology</td>
<td>What works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validity and reliability</td>
<td>Expediency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ambition</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalized knowledge</td>
<td>Contextualized knowledge</td>
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</table>

**Forms of knowledge in teacher education**

It is recognized that theory on education is produced in as well the system of science as in the educational system but with the consequence that scientific theory not always is direct useful in and for praxis and that theory of reflexivity is not directly useful for research because the two forms of theory are constructed from different premises and relate to different systems with different preferences and criteria (codes). Theory and knowledge of reflexivity gets its legitimacy from the code instructive/not- instructive because it offers a contribution to optimization of the systems’ function and performance. From this and as shown in the next table it becomes clear that three different forms of knowledge are at stake: 1) Educational praxis knowledge as the form of knowledge developed by practitioners in each of society’s different realms on the basis of experience, 2) educational reflexive knowledge or professional knowledge as a form of knowledge developed by the professions when doing reflections on how to improve praxis, and 3) research knowledge as a result of research praxis with its demands to methodology, theoretical anchoring and a clear application of concepts. Knowledge is produced not only in science but also in society’s other functional systems; they so to speak embody a knowledge production of their own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Science</th>
<th>Education</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational research</td>
<td>Educational intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research praxis</td>
<td>Theory of reflexivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational praxis</td>
<td>Theory of reflexivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Research knowledge</td>
<td>(1) Educational praxis knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of science</td>
<td>(2) Educational professional knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These different forms of knowledge are not to be considered as staying in a hierarchical relationship to each other; they are different in maintaining different functions but one is not superior to the other. Scientific knowledge is new knowledge bound by truth. It is typically evaluated in peer reviews from criteria such as if it contributes with something new, if the results are well substantiated, if they are in accordance with the applied scientific methods and if the results seem to be
true. Scientific knowledge aims at being universal. It has to measure up to the best in the world. *Praxis knowledge* is knowledge of what works but not only. It also takes into account if what works, works reasonably. One thing is efficient praxis something else is if the professional teacher wants to expose people (students) to it; i.e. if it is acceptable from moral and democratic values. Praxis knowledge is a balancing of these two criteria which probably is the reason that questions concerning ethics and democracy plays such an important role in teacher education. The suggestion offered here is to combine the double code of *what works* and *what works reasonably* to one code, *useful/useless*, as the criteria teachers are keeping in mind when they examine the knowledge they are offered. For the practitioner knowledge can be ever so true, what counts is if it is useful in a teaching practice. Between these two forms of knowledge (scientific knowledge and praxis knowledge) professional knowledge is wedged in as a specific form of knowledge. *Professional knowledge* is characterized by at the same time taking two codes into consideration, namely the codes of the forms of knowledge it is wedging in between. On the one side it is the code of scientific knowledge *true/false* and on the other side it is the code of praxis knowledge, *useful/useless*. Professional knowledge has to take both of these codes into account in order to coordinate them in a third code for professional knowledge which I propose naming *instructive/not-instructive*. Professional knowledge is a form of knowledge that gains ground as an independent form of knowledge with the aim of guiding professional praxis.

<table>
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<tr>
<td>(1) Educational praxis knowledge</td>
<td>(2) Educational professional knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>True/false</td>
<td>Useful/useless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instructive/not-instructive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In teacher education it seems of particular importance to acknowledge these different forms of knowledge and the ways they are generated. Their strength is situated in their dissimilarity. It is important to stress, that they do not form a hierarchy. Each of the three forms of knowledge is able at doing something different in different contexts. Scientific knowledge is expected to be new true knowledge of importance for teacher education and possibly also for teaching praxis. Professional knowledge is knowledge that in a more direct way is instructive for praxis. It seems naïve to think that scientific knowledge or any other knowledge is transferable to practitioners or to professional praxis. If scientific knowledge is going to play a role in teacher education and in professional praxis, and if professional knowledge is going to play a role in educational praxis these forms of knowledge have to be taken into consideration by the teachers in teacher education and by the professional practitioners in their planning and accomplishment of their practices.
Research informed teachers
When the pressure on making teacher education more research oriented is observed from the perspective of these three forms of knowledge it is easy to see that it is not just a question of transforming professional education into academic education. The demand for a more research based teacher education is not to be reduced to a simple question of academicism. The demand for a research based teacher education has been met differently in the Nordic countries, which can be seen from their different lengths, institutional placements, and legislations. These differences are to a great extent to be understood from the degree of attachment to the seminarium-tradition, in which all of the Nordic teacher education programs are rooted.

Finland already in the 1970s decided as the first Nordic country to change its teacher education into a research based education by moving it to today eight universities and adjust it to the faculty and department structure of the universities. Also Finland from the summer of 2005 has been able to adapt their teacher education program to the principles of the Bologna-process. This has been done without major difficulties because the 3+2 structure was implemented already in 1995. Educators in Finnish teacher education hold a masters degree and have as university teachers time and obligation for research (Niemi, 2006; Sjöberg & Hansén, 2006).

Sweden made its teacher education program research based in the 1970s by placing it at colleges. College education is according to the college reform of 1977 placed within the jurisdiction of the universities. The law emphasizes that education must rest on a scientific basis and have a clear attachment to research. Even though teacher education in principle is research based many colleges have a weak connection to research so the 2001 reform of teacher education puts strong expectations to research connection. Research connection is seen as one of the greatest challenges to teacher education in Sweden (Askling, 2006; Högskoleverket, 2005).

Norway decided in 1973 to move its teacher education into the world of academia by making seminariums (lærerskoler) to colleges. With the college reform of 1994 teacher education is placed at university colleges and universities. Both places are under the same common jurisdiction which includes a demand for research based education. Even though it since the 1970s has been a demand to colleges to commit research- and development work it has been a long process to ensure enough research qualified teachers, i.e. teachers that hold a PhD. At most colleges, teachers are assured research time, often different though for different categories of positions. At some colleges research time is allocated strategically based on research applications (Haug, 2003; NOKUT, 2006; Skagen, 2006).

Iceland made already in 1971 its teacher education a study at university and college level. It is placed at a college (Islands Lærerhøjskole i Reykjavik) and a university (Akureyri). From 1997 teacher education in Iceland can be said formally to live up to the demands made to universities. Today teacher education is a three year long bachelor study. In the period 2005-10 Iceland in the spirit of the Bolo-
A process is systematically developing a structure of a three year basic teacher education (BA) and a two year super structure course (MA) so that it is only possible to obtain full teacher competence after five years of study (Aðalsteinsdóttir, 2006).

Greenland has with its new university law of 2007 decided to move teacher education from the Seminarium of Greenland to the University of Greenland. According to the governing law of the university it is obliged to deliver research based education to the highest international level within its subject areas (Grønlands_Hjemmestyre, 2007). At the Faroe Islands a similar process of moving teacher education from seminarium to university has been started.

Today Denmark is the only Nordic country that does not have or is on its way to get a research based teacher education program. In Denmark teacher education is still placed at today eighteen seminariums. These are part of eight university colleges without research right and obligation. The university colleges are thought to ally with universities by so called research connection. With the teacher education reform of 2006 it is emphasized that results from national as well as international research and development (RDD) are introduced in the subject teaching. In Denmark teacher education is a four year study leading to a professional bachelor degree giving admission to some (few) master programs at the universities (Rasmussen, 2006; Rasmussen et al., 2007).

The seminarium-tradition
From the evaluations of the Nordic teacher education programs it can be seen that the seminarium-tradition which is not attached to scientific activity still plays a significant role. In Sweden it has since the closing of the seminarium education been a challenge to combine the seminarium-tradition for teacher education to the basic school and the university-tradition for teacher education to upper secondary education (Askling, 2006, p. 93) and in Norway they speak about the death of the seminarium contract. But what is meant by seminarium tradition and what is a seminarium contract? Inger Anne Kvalbein explains this very much to the point by saying: In the seminarium-tradition and within the seminarium contract students changed a part of their freedom and time with a social community which then shouldered a responsibility for them. Emphasis was placed at the social environment of the education and the teachers assumed responsibility for the student – in difference to the ideal typical university teacher who assumes responsibility for the subject. After entering the seminarium contract the students are lead through the study and if they do not commit fatal mistakes under way they end up with a diploma (Kvalbein, 2003, p. 103, 2006, p. 280).

It is this contract students have denounced already some time ago. Not least in Norway and Denmark this has been noticeable. Students want to keep their freedom during their education which because the contract has not been denounced by the institutions and the teachers in these countries mean that they develop strategies for escaping classes and strategies for getting round assignments. The evaluation of the Danish teacher education express that the culture is very much characterized by “students who have pretty much paid work and therefore limited time
for studies” and also that the students find it easy to complete the education (EVA, 2003, p. 39). It is a major problem for the education it is said that a relatively high amount of students do not show up at lessons and those who show up are different from lesson to lesson (EVA, 2003, s. 87). The evaluation of the Norwegian teacher education expresses that many students work performance are below the acceptable (NOKUT, 2005, p. 31).

The break of the seminarium contract also causes difficulties for the seminarium-tradition of distinguishing between two aims, namely one directed at the profession and another directed at socialization (Bildung). The aim of professionalism is usually related to the subject matter part of the education while the aim of socialization is related to the students personal development, their clarification of own values and development of an identity as a teacher. A strong tradition of seeing this part of the education as best maintained in interaction between students implies students to be present in teaching. The students one sided break of the contract create serious problems not least for this part of the education and it elucidate a split in teacher education which consist in the fact that teacher education in the Nordic countries already in the 1960s-70s was defined as a study without taking the full consequence of this.

This problem is closely examined in the evaluation of the Danish teacher education. Here it is seen as a result of the placement of teacher education between a study based education and an interaction based education in which the interaction based part by emphasizing the importance of personal development presupposes the presence of the students in class. The teacher education is placed in a void between a free study and something which is more school like (EVA, 2003, p. 87). This has resulted in teaching that to a wide degree adapts to these conditions by making fewer and less demands to the students, and by writing down expectations to academic performance. The seminarium-contract has unilaterally been denounced by the students, while the institutions and the teachers all the same and to a large extent maintain an idea of a contract, with the consequence that the academic level in teacher education is lowered.

The legislation on teacher education has also tried to maintain the contract. In Danish teacher education compulsory participation was introduced in 1997. Compulsory participation is not the same as compulsory attendance; it only means that the student is obliged to take active part in the education as it is organized by the seminarium. When it became obvious that this provision did not work compulsory attendance which was repealed with the teacher education act of 1966 was reintroduced with the act of 2006, though only during the first year of study and in course related practice. With this act the demand for compulsory attendance was also strengthened. Instead of giving up the seminarium contract which the students no longer voluntarily ally themselves with the contract has been replaced by provisions of duty. This happens you may assume because the political system finds it more important to maintain the seminarium-tradition than developing teacher education into a research based study as it is known from universities. In Denmark and to some degree also in Norway the seminarium-tradition seems to
be an impediment to the development of the research based teacher education the environment is asking for.

Subjects and subject didactics versus pedagogy
A better way of understanding the endeavour of making teacher education a research based study can be taken in the abovementioned distinction between theory of reflexivity and scientific theory. From a sociological systems theory perspective the relationship between theory and practice can only be observed through a theoretical reflection. The distinction between theory and practice appears only when it is actualized at the theoretical side. Then pedagogy as theory is established but that is as reflexive theory of the educational system and theory of reflexivity observes education as a task not as a problem or a question that can be answered scientifically: “… education can never be science, and therefore cannot carry out its own reflection as science” (Luhmann & Schorr, 1968, p. 408). Pedagogy as a theory of reflection aims at the educational system’s self corrections through own self produced criteria for success and failure.

Pedagogy as theory of reflection is characterized by its more or less normative pictures of the moral or ideologically cultured man. In this it has failed its duty of generating knowledge about the problems educational practice is struggling with (Rasmussen, 2000, s. 46). The normative orientation is of course not irrelevant, but its significance is only related to one of the two codes that together forms the code useful/useless, namely the code of reasonability. This is most likely the reason we have witnessed during the last decades a scaling down of pedagogy in favour of general didactics and especially subject didactics in teacher education. This has happened concurrently with efforts of making teacher education more research based. This scaling down of pedagogy is especially visible in Denmark and Norway but not in Finland.

Within the seminarium-tradition pedagogy has been seen as a subject with a certain priority because of its general character (Løvlie, 2003). Pedagogy has as its aim to knit the different parts of teacher education together, to be the glue of the teacher education programs, as it is often said. In Danish teacher education the size of pedagogy in the period from 1991 to 2006 has been 0,2 full-time equivalent (EVA, 2002, p. 95). With the 2006 reform the educational subjects (general didactics, psychology, pedagogy) are attributed 33 ECTS (0,55 full-time equivalent) (Undervisningsministeriet, 2006). In Norwegian teacher education pedagogy in 1992 where the education was expanded to four years reduced from 0,75 full-time equivalent to 0,5 full-time equivalent, but its position is different from institution to institution. At some institutions pedagogy has a central position at others its position is weak (NOKUT, 2006, p. 55). In Finish teacher education pedagogy amounts to 60 ECTS (1,0 full-time equivalent) (Niemi, 2006, p. 35).

The students in both the Danish and the Norwegian evaluation are of the opinion that teaching in school subject only to a modest degree is related to the didactical and methodological challenges in school. They find that they only to a modest degree are prepared to teach in school subjects and that it is difficult to see the relevance of the teaching in the teacher education (NOKUT, 2006, p. 53). In 2002
Pedagogy in Danish teacher education was evaluated. From this evaluation it became clear that the students have a blurred picture of the subject. They see pedagogy as a subject in which they work with different theories (theory of science, theory of Bildung, educational theory, sociological theory etc.) with the aim through considerations on foundational questions to develop the students philosophy of man and society. Pedagogy to a large extent is occupied with descriptions of educators’, philosophers’ and sociologists’ thoughts on education and teaching. The teaching is often done in a traditional academic way where these descriptions are seen as a goal in itself while they are not related to the kind of problems a teacher is facing in his professional performance. Pedagogy is seen as an attitude-subject in which values are given high priority. In the Danish evaluation the students are of the opinion that the theories taught are related only slightly to professional practice (EVA, 2002, p. 108f.).

Pedagogy has left the code of instructive/not-instructive and therefore take up a marginal position in teacher education. This has happened even though pedagogy in its early definition at for instance Friedrich Daniel Ernst Schleiermacher was close to this code. Schleiermacher called attention to the fact that in modern society religious or political instructions of practice was no longer sufficient. Rather there was a need for knowledge about how processes of teaching takes place and how it is possible to influence them (Schleiermacher, 1957, s. 28ff.). In order to do this general didactics and subject didactics especially have won influence. A major reason is to be found in the pedagogy’s weak and didactics strong contact with educational research. It seems like pedagogy would better be able to maintain its function in teacher education if a clearer distinction between its knowledge part and its socialisation part is made, and if then the knowledge part is given a stronger weight. It is from this side it is possible to establish a theoretically based conceptual ground for considerations and reflections on practice.

To a much higher degree subject didactics seems to be able to provide teachers with advisable knowledge about what is useful in their teaching practice. The observed optimism to didactical research is mirrored in the evaluations of Nordic teacher education programs which can be seen in their advocacy for a strengthening of subject didactics in the programs and for a strengthening of teacher educators’ subject didactic knowledge. Concurrently the evaluations find that results from empirical subject didactic research only rarely enter into the teaching in teacher education. In the Danish evaluation it is recommended that the teacher educators are given further education at university level in subject didactics (EVA, 2003, p. 51). In the Norwegian evaluation it is recommended that the subject didactical part of the program is strengthened and that subject didactic research at the institutions also is strengthened (NOKUT, 2006, p. 79). In the Swedish evaluation it is said that in accordance with the intentions of the program it should be evident that the students become better prepared for being able to relate (critical) to subject didactic research results and to continually follow subject didactic research (Högskoleverket, 2005, p. 138).
Conclusion
Teacher education is today a part of university education in all Nordic countries – with Denmark as an exception. Within the university system teacher education places itself though in an exceptional position which mostly is to be explained with the difficulties they all more or less struggle with in finding a viable alternative to the seminarium-tradition. If a distinction between an internal and an external view on teacher education is taken, this difficulty becomes exceptional visible. From the internal perspective it is seen that elements like personal development and clarification of own values as a teacher are emphasized, while elements like subject knowledge, didactical knowledge and methodological knowledge and competences related to the practice of teaching are weighed higher from an external perspective. The external perspective often connects the difficulties and problems the school is struggling with to deficiencies in teacher education. The seminarium-tradition seems today to be a barrier for the development of the Nordic teacher education programs into research based programs. It is of course important, that such programs do not reduce the importance of practice knowledge but are able to anchor practice knowledge in educational research based results. It seems to be an inevitable precondition for the development of useful and relevant professional knowledge that teacher education is changed into a research based education.

References:


“The future ain’t what it used to be”.

EU education policy and Teachers' Role: Sketching the political background of a paradigm shift.

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Abstract

The present study deals with the quest for a “reformed” role of Teachers, within the new education- learning paradigm (in Kuhn’s terms). It seeks for a contextually embedded approach to such an issue, laying emphasis on the highly influential, supranational, initiative namely the Lisbon Strategy, and more specifically on the Work Programme “Education & Training 2010”. Any endeavor to analyse teachers’ role and the current teacher education policy cannot overlook the effects of the new forms of internationalisation and the emerging transformations in learning, H(uman)R(esourse)D(evelopment), economy and labour market. On these grounds, policy initiatives, discursive practices and interest politics concerning the re-conceptualization of both teaching-learning process and teachers’ role in it, are examined within the public policies complex.

There is no doubt that changes in education, worldwide, constitute an actual paradigm shift. A state retreat, concerning the institutional domain and the legitimative function of education, affects the perception of the teaching and learning process. The econocratic view of policy-making in education and the gradual involvement of interest politics reshape the Education Policy making procedures and the redistributive action of educational systems (Papadakis & Tsakanika 2006: 289-290), while teaching and learning are getting gradually (co-r-)related to employability and competitiveness.

The changing conditions of both
- education (whose teaching is a major determinant) and
- higher education (where teachers initial education usually takes place) interact with the changing role of both Education Institutions and Higher Education Institutions, within a new socio-economic and political environment (see Klemencic 2006: A.1.1-3, p. 2).

The major parameters of the above-mentioned change and mainly the crucial policy initiatives that affect Education (in general) and Higher Education are
- the Lisbon Strategy, that gradually (re)contextualizes Education Policy,
- the Bologna Process (constituted by two main clusters of issues–structural and social dimension- see Zgaga 2004) and the ongoing implementation of policy agendas shaping the complicate venture for a European Higher Education Area,

In the context of both the major, mutual depended, supranational initiatives (namely the Bologna Process and the Lisbon Strategy), education and furthermore education policies are brought “not only at the forefront of discourse but also at the edge of political action” (Papadakis & Tsakanika 2006: 167) as the focal point of a two-pillar strategy. The abovementioned strategy aims at ensuring sustainability (see OECD/IMHE 2003: 1) and promoting both employability and social cohesion within our post-industrial “risk
societies” (in U. Beck’s terms). Indeed, any attempt to analyse education and its major determinants (namely learning and teaching) within the Lisbon Agenda, cannot overlook the effects of the new forms of internationalisation and the emerging transformations in economy and labour market (Lavdas, Papadakis & Gidarakou 2006: 131). All the above mentioned changes reflect the dominant policy rationality within the policy complex, while the macroeconomic intervention (transition from “Keynesianism” to “monetarism”/cf. Lipietz 1990 and Hirst & Thompson 1996: 74-75), and the articulation of educational policy as active employment policy (cf. Commission of the European Communities 1989: 109, European Commission 2002: 15, Papadakis 2006: 203-235, Hviden 2001) facilitate the macroeconomic over-determination of public policy in education and training (Gravaris & Papadakis 2002, Papadakis & Tsakanika 2005). As Taylor-Gooby points out, changes in the labour market structure have a crucial impact on the articulation of any kind of welfare policy (Taylor-Gooby 2004: 30-32). In the case of education, they redefine its compensatory role and subsequently re-contextualize the notion and the extent of inclusion in the Era of flexible Reskilling and Employability.
2. Teaching and Learning within the new policy paradigm on education.

Europeanization, supranationalization of the public policies, the predominance of a new economic-developmental paradigm in the late modern capitalism and the multicultural challenge in the political systems and their civic culture, constitute the context of the major challenges for education today and subsequently redefine the role of teaching and learning in the educational process.

According to one of the fundamental policy documents of the Council of Europe on EDC (Education for Democratic Citizenship):

“society has become highly multicultural and diverse and political and economic conditions often shape the learning experience”

(Council of Europe 2004: 41).

In fact, the arising ritual of educational policy (in Popkewitz’s terms/Popkewitz 1982: 5-29), the relevant politics of change (see Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard & Henry 1997), and the policy priorities underlying them, have re-formed education over Europe during the last two decades and keep on influencing both the teaching process and the teaching profession, that are inevitably becoming more complex and multidimensional than ever.

More specifically:

The European Strategy for Employment, the Lisbon Strategy and the E.U. States’ employment policies (National Action-Plans for Employment) have led in the transformation of the education and training structures and methods, in the context of the “human recourse development”, while the new public management and the transformations regarding the public policy complex redefine the priorities of the educational policy regarding skills (emphasis to the development of soft skills instead of the traditional manpower requirements approach). This major retreat combined with the, worldwide, emergence of “diverse” types of moral action, as the epicurism “welfarism” (see Sen 1987: 39) and the actual re-negotiation of the relation “agency - well being”, seem fundamental in policies that ex definitio should be proactive in enhancing inclusiveness and strengthening citizenship.”

________________________________________
While education is perceived as a domain aiming at promoting employability, economic development and flexibility, as well as social cohesion, an obvious question is raised: how this explicit emphasis on issues of employability and adaptability reflects on the social dimension of teaching and learning, on the teachers’ social role and responsibility and their inclusive operation, on the possibilities of education to act as an inclusive mechanism as well. Especially if we take into consideration that there is a notable increase in skills-related overall inequality mainly manifested in the domains of employment, wages and economy in general (see Machin 2004), because of the ongoing technology-driven paradigm shift and the relevant increase of skills expectations (Gallie, 1996: 447-473). Such findings can explain the turn of the discourse on both Education and Higher Education to the importance of the learning outcomes (see Reichert & Tauch 2005), in order to make feasible and crystal clear to “prospective and present students how their skills and knowledge acquired through the study are intended to be of use in their career development” (UK QAA: URL)

Nevertheless, what is not exactly profound is how this explicit emphasis on employability, effectiveness and competitiveness (namely on issues over determined by the macro-economic agenda) reflects on the social dimension of Education and on the substance of its major operational parameters, Teaching and Learning. As Felicity Armstrong argues “(issues of inclusion/ exclusion in general) are inseparable from issues relating to inclusion and exclusion in education which are about local, national and global policy developments relating to social and economic change, as well as about the making of education policies” (Felicity Armstrong 2003: 1)

Summing up the progress made both in the Bologna process and in the Lisbon Agenda, an unquestionable conclusion can be drown: The objective for competitiveness, employability, adaptability and attractiveness of the European Higher Education Area is posed on the center of every policy agenda promoted. The European Employment Strategy and the Lisbon Agenda raise the issue of skills linked with the qualification frameworks’ development (European Commission 2002: 20). Simultaneously, the venture towards the European Higher Education Area is gradually related to the
guidelines set by the Lisbon Agenda, while social dimension is integrated as a peripheral objective, strategically related to “economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion” (European Council 2000: 2). Within such a context, social dimension and inclusivity through teaching and learning are still an issue raised by both Supranational Structures, Member States and specific challengers, but are far from being a key priority. On the other hand, due to this ongoing redefinition of the operational determinants of teaching and learning, they are both becoming a policy priority themselves.

3. Policy questions and stakes regarding Teachers’ role, within a changing context.

Within such a highly modified context (Wallace 1997), teachers’ role gradually gains in visibility. On the 24th of May 2005, the Council Conclusion on new indicators in education and training invited the Commission to “cooperate with international organisations in order to satisfy the information needs of the EU in indicator areas such as ICT, adult skills and professional development of teachers” (European Council 2005). Following up that invitation, the European Commission “invited experts from the Member States and Candidate countries to conclude on the scope and content of EU data needs on the professional development of teachers” (E.C. 2007c: 1) and subsequently proceeded in

- using effectively OECD’s TALIS survey “Teachers, Teaching and Learning” and
- establishing a new key-indicator on “Teachers Professional Development” (indicator 6E- see Standing Group on Indicators and Benchmarks 2007).

Additionally, an attempt to draw up a set of Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications took place in 2005, ending in the European Commission’s Communication “Improving the Quality of Teacher Education”, adopted in August 2007. This Communication argues for the better regulation, coordination and funding of teacher education and development at national level, the enhancement of the reflecting substance of the teaching profession (in order to reflect the diversity of the society etc), the necessity for the teacher education programmes to be available in the
Bachelor, Master and Doctorate cycles of higher education everywhere in Europe and the development of systems “that ensure that at every point in their career, teachers have the full range of subject knowledge, attitudes and pedagogic skills to be able to help young people to reach their full potential and are able to take charge of their own learning pathways and to develop new knowledge about education and training through reflective practice” (E.C. 2007: 53).

Such a set of policy objectives and priorities reflects the state of play regarding teachers’ education and profession, while coping with the relevant deficits reported by the Member States: shortfalls in teaching skills and difficulties in updating teachers’ skills, high percentage of older workers within the teaching profession, lack of systematic coordination, coherence and continuity mainly between initial education and subsequent in-service training and professional development, limited amount of in-service training available to practising teachers and deficits in many countries concerning the support services provided to teachers in their first years of teaching (see E.C. 2007: 52-53).

Of course a Communication (despite its obvious influence) couldn’t be enough to cope effectively with such a range of remarkable deficits. Several policy initiatives and furthermore reforms have been recently reported by the Member States. According to the European Commission’s recent Cross Country Analysis “reforms of initial teacher education have been undertaken in several countries (BE nl, BG, CY, DK, ES, FR, IE, IS, LI, MT, SI, UK), (including) changes that range from a major reform of initial teacher training in Belgium nl (focusing on more effective practice during initial training and better mentoring during the induction period) to an increase from three to five years of the education of teachers at the pre-primary and compulsory stages in Iceland, to introduction of short-term and long-term qualification courses in new educational contents in innovative training methods and multicultural environment in Bulgaria” (E.C. 2007: 53). At the same time, reforms and changes

✔ related with teachers’ continuing training, qualification improvement, professional development and
reflecting major shifts in educational curricula and subsequent needs in teaching methods and skills,
are underway in many Member States (according their National Reports on the progress towards the Lisbon Objectives).
Additionally the E.C. Cluster on “Teachers and Trainers” (operating within the Work Programme “Education & Training 2010”) has recently identified the key policy conditions for “(a) the successful development of a school as a learning community; (b) the recruitment and development of school leaders; and (c) the establishment of effective partnerships between schools and companies….” (E.C. 2007: ch. 7.2.2. ii), while seeking for best practices regarding teachers’ motivation towards their continuing professional development, teachers’ preparation to teach effectively in multicultural settings and development of effective relationships between Teacher Education Institutions and Schools (European Commission 2007b: 1-2).
It is crystal clear: the more complicated and demanding Teaching & Learning Process becomes, the broader institutional and operational issues (related to the Teaching Profession) are raised.

4. Teachers’ Role restated, Teaching Profession redefined? Instead of epilogue.

Deficits to cope with, new demands to satisfy, diversity to preserve and convergences to support and diverse (even controversial and contradictory) expectations to fulfill. These are probably the main rising challenges for the teaching profession and teachers’ role within the gradually changing educational landscape. Within such a context, teaching and Learning face an inevitable challenge to preserve their inclusive role, to promote the broader meaning of learning, without missing the momentum.
Could that ever be feasible in a rapidly changing “environment”?
In this question, our brief contextually embedded perspective can just quote a Yogi’s comment: “future ain’t what it used to be”. And such a future cannot stand mono-logical answers to multidimensional questions….

NOTES
As the European Commission points out: “teacher education and development is a continuum running from initial pre-service education to induction for newly qualified teachers and in-service / continuing professional development” (E.C. 2007a: 52).

And key-issues related to them, such as structures, reforms and trends (Eurydice 2003: 11).

Citizenship has been conceptualized historically in different ways (Nikolakaki 2003: 403), since it has evolved from the personal development of the citizen in the polis into subordination to the claims of the nation state – gradually incorporating the notion of the global citizen. According to the Follow Up Group on EDC of the Council of Europe (2006: 6):

“Civic education in Europe aims at the development of a large-scale, inclusive and deliberative civic space that captures the democratic imagination of a tolerant and fair European polity. In that regard, citizenship education is part of a diachronical quest for ‘the good polity’, which in the case of a multicultural and ever-dynamic Europe refers to the means and institutions of bringing about an encompassing ‘civic partnership’ among distinct historically constituted, culturally defined and politically organised demois”.

Let’s have a look on the birth of the Bologna Process itself. As Haug argues:

“among the factors explaining why there was a change in the agenda for higher education in Europe, the following can be highlighted: first the emergence of a real European labour market, which was bound to shape major elements of the university offering and functioning in the forthcoming years. The Trends 1 report noted that it was unlikely that the combination of a high rate of graduate unemployment and a shortage of qualified young people in key areas in many European countries would be accepted much longer by societies. The growing tension between an increasingly open and European labour market on the one hand, and exclusively national degree systems on the other, is certainly one of the core factors explaining the Bologna process” (Haug 2006: A.3.1-1, p. 5-6).

I.e. Tuning Project Phase IV focuses explicitly on learning outcomes (L.O.) and competences as a focal point of the ongoing and planned curricular reforms (see Tuning Project 2006). Hereby, we should take into consideration that the manifested “shift to a learning outcomes perspective in education and training policies and practices” is linked to the development of the European Qualification Framework (E.C. 2007: ch 7.2.2. viii).

Regarding the progress in the 5 benchmarks areas, the recent 2007 Commission Staff Working Paper on the “Progress Towards the Lisbon Objectives in Education and Training- Indicators and Benchmarks” is rather indicative:
Source: European Commission 2007 (Statistical Annex)

7 It is “compulsory in only eleven Member States….while the fact that in-service training may be compulsory says little about actual participation rates” (E.C. 2007: 52).
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Mentoring Courses in Enhancing Quality of Teacher Pre-service and In-service Education

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Abstract

In 2000 the regulations of the Ministry of Education and Science (MOES) in Latvia have stated that 26 credits of the higher education program should be planned for the students’ practice at their future working place. The aim of the article is to share the experience of introducing mentoring courses to implement these regulations, thus trying to improve the quality of teaching practice in higher education and providing the possibilities for teacher in-service education and career development.

The article deals with the participatory action research carried out for five years at the Teacher Education Department, Faculty of Education and Psychology, University of Latvia. The process of designing and improving the model of mentoring courses in teacher education is described and its pitfalls and payoffs are analysed. The presented data have been collected through needs analysis questionnaires and discussions, observation of the participants in mentoring courses, participants’ self-evaluations and the feedbacks from the courses.
It can be concluded that mentoring course is a good starting point towards a coherent and effective partnership between universities and schools in pre-service and in-service education. The people involved in mentoring process should be educated and certified as a school mentors and university mentors. Their education should take place simultaneously in one course, shoulder to shoulder. Their participation in courses should be of personal importance or necessity, not imposed by the school or university administration. The courses should give time for cooperation, should create emotions which will form attitude and result in actions.

**Key words**

**Introduction**
Green Paper on Teacher Education highlights two conditions that are important for pre-service teacher education, namely, it should be regarded as one part of life-long professional development that continues after the process of selection, graduation and induction of new teachers into the teaching profession and the other condition is that faculties of education require partnerships with schools in order to carry out their work. These partnerships should be reciprocal, beneficial for both sides with clear division of responsibilities and common understanding of teacher education goals. Key players in this partnership are student-teachers, university-based mentors and school-based mentors whose role is not a traditional one of transmitting prescribed teaching methods, but promoting the reflective approach which involves experience, reflection on action and the student-teachers’ formulation of personal theories that lead to their informed action in future. Learning to teach is a complex and sometimes painful task. It involves developing practical knowledge base about pupils, the situation, subject knowledge presented in understandable way to others and strategies facilitating learning, developing interpersonal skills by incorporating an affective aspect and it also demands changes in cognition to interpret and control classroom life.

**Background information**
The students of Teacher Education Department at the Faculty of Education and Psychology, University of Latvia, are studying for four years in order to become professional English, German, Latvian, sports, home economics or visual arts’ teachers. The students are offered the study programme based on the integrated model that gives a possibility to interlink the studies of the profession, language, pedagogy, psychology, modern information technologies and practice in the
future working place. The students simultaneously acquire the professional field knowledge and the methods how to organise its teaching to others. On graduating from the university, they obtain the qualification of the English, German, Latvian, sports, home economics or visual arts’ teacher, as well as the degree of Bachelor in pedagogy.

In 2000 the regulations No.484 were issued by the Ministry of Education and Science. The regulations stated that 26 credits out of 160 should be planned for the students’ practice at their future working places. Teacher Education Department has planned it in the following way:

- Year 1 – university studies;
- Year 2 – observation practice 4 credits;
- Year 3 – observation practice in subject 6 credits (including lesson modelling and observation) and teaching practice in elementary school 2 classes 8 credits
- Year 4 – teaching practice in secondary school 2 classes 8 credits.

For the Teacher Education Department it demanded closer collaboration with the schools right from the first years of students’ studies. On the one hand, it gave more possibilities for students to acquire the language teacher’s professional duties, but, on the other hand, it meant a greater responsibility for the students’ placement at schools.

The changes were initiated by the staff of the professional program of English Language Teacher Education. The new University-School Partnership Model in English Language Teacher Education was designed. The model had to meet several requirements. It had to integrate theory and practice and what is more it had to be accepted by and satisfy all three involved parts: the students, the university and the school. Based on the thorough study of theories and current situation in teacher education, since 2001 the partnership model has been designed, piloted and implemented in 22 schools in Latvia. The basis and the starting point of the model were mentor courses for school teachers and university lecturers. At the same time it was also a novelty because before that there had always been university lecturers and school teachers in charge of student-teachers’ teaching practice at school, but they had never been educated to do this job, they had been imitating their own teachers and reproducing the new generation of the teachers’ able to copy someone, but very rarely helping them find their own way. One more advantage was the school and university people studying together.
Theoretical background

In English the word “mentor” connotes a guide, a wise but understanding helper ready to share his/her experience for the benefit of others.

The mentor is a person who possesses a body of expertise that can be accessed by the student-teacher in a number of ways: through direct instruction, through observation, through discussion and exploration.

Mentoring is an increasingly used term in the literature on teacher education. Books, articles and even whole journals are devoted to the topic. In teacher education a “mentor” is a term used to describe a teacher who acts as a tutor and guide to student-teacher or newly qualified teacher.

**Mentoring** is a support given by one, (usually more experienced) person – *mentor* for the growth and learning of another – *mentee*, as well as for their integration into and acceptance by a specific community (Kačkere, Odina, 2004). It is a skill. Although being a good and experienced teacher is a condition for becoming a good mentor, we cannot assume that such teacher will automatically be a good mentor. Mentoring skills need to be explored, discussed and most of all practised and reflected on.

It may be true that every teacher is potentially a mentor, but not all teachers can necessarily be really good mentors.

The first thing teachers should think of is their personal qualities as mentoring is about relationship building and maintaining.

It has been agreed by the internationally developed Socrates project APartMent (A Partnership for Mentorship) (2002 – 2003) participants from Austria, Germany, Spain, Iceland, United Kingdom and Lithuania that the most essential **personal qualities** for becoming a mentor are as follows:

- ability to prioritise;
- fairness, the ability to foster confidence and make student trainees valued;
- systemic, consistent, logical style;
- positive attitude and enthusiasm;
- patience, empathy and warmth;
- rigour and thoroughness;
- sense of humour, fun;
- sense of realism;
- vision and personal philosophy of teaching;
- challenging standards;
- ability to lead by example and show enjoyment of teaching;
- tact;
flexibility.

It has also been agreed what organisational, analytical, reflective, interpersonal skills should be developed. They are:

**Organizational skills**

Ability to:
- provide opportunities for a wide variety of experience;
- provide necessary supporting documents;
- manage time effectively;
- manage resources effectively;
- give an example of good organisational practice.

**Analytical skills**

Ability to:
- analyse the student trainee’s lessons thoroughly;
- give balanced, constructive feedback;
- set clear targets;
- assist with planning;
- guide student trainee in reflecting on teaching;
- reflect on own teaching practice.

**Reflective skills**

Ability to:
- listen, reflect, synthesise and act upon advice;
- keep a perspective and a balanced view, stand back and see the overall view;
- collate other teachers’ views;
- evaluate student trainee’s lessons effectively;
- reflect on own philosophy.

**Interpersonal skills**

- Have a professional attitude to staff and pupils and the ability to liaise with a variety of colleagues;
- Be able to work in a team;
- Encourage student trainee to be independent, inquisitive and to experiment;
- Develop a positive working relationship with the student trainee while maintaining a professional distance;
- Give firm but fair guidance on achievement and progress;
There is a large amount of agreement among the states about the skills and personal qualities required by a good mentor, but there are significant differences in the knowledge required in different states.

In Latvia it is important for a mentor to have knowledge about national curriculum, national education system, national expectations of pupils, assessment, resources, special educational needs, teacher training standards, multicultural classroom, subject teaching methodology, mentor roles, aims of observation, feedback giving and reporting. A mentor must also have substantial length of teaching experience and experience of working with the students of different age and ability.

As a mentor the person should be ready to:

- meet with other mentors on regular basis
- meet with university methodologists
- meet regularly with one’s student trainee, both formally and informally
- guide one’s student trainee through the daily operation of the school
- arrange observation of different teachers’ classes for student trainee
- have student trainee to observe your lessons
- arrange the classes for student trainee’s teaching practice
- help with lesson planning
- observe student trainee’s lessons and give feedback
- evaluate at least 5 lessons taught by student trainee
- assess student trainee’s teaching practice
- fill out the documentation
- participate in student trainees’ teaching practice conference
- develop one’s professional skills as a mentor and as a teacher (Kačkere, Odiņa 2004: 9 – 10).

**Research methodology, data and discussion**

The participatory action research was carried out to implement and verify the effectiveness of the designed mentoring course. Six different courses based on the same framework were organised. Every course started with the needs analysis of the participants. The next step was to adapt the course for their needs and deliver it, and finally evaluate it based on the course tutors’ observations and the participants’ self-evaluations and feedbacks.
Summing up and analysing the data from the needs analysis questionnaires, the following most crucial problems concerning teaching practice were stated (see the left side of Table 1) and the focus (see the right side of Table 1) was decided for each of 5 days of intensive mentor course.

Table 1. The framework for designing mentor course based on the participants’ needs analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems connected with teaching practice</th>
<th>Focus during the courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching practice is based on the individual’s good will and personal contacts</td>
<td>Relationship building – the courses should involve emotions, they can be positive or negative, but it will be the platform for attitude forming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The financial support is not sufficient</td>
<td>Awareness of skills – sometimes people are doing the things they are not supposed to do and in result they are not paid for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The time is not allocated for doing mentoring</td>
<td>Skills development – if mentors' skills are developed, they will need less time for doing some of the tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The contents and the process of the teaching practice are not clear</td>
<td>Real situation – the time during the courses should be given to bringing people and their work together in order to share information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are no clear requirements for students’ tasks and assessment</td>
<td>Cooperation – the action plans concerning requirements to students’ teaching practice and assessment should be made between school and university mentors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Taking all the previously mentioned into account, the following model of mentoring courses was piloted (see Table 2).

Table 2. An intensive mentoring course.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day 1 Relationship</th>
<th>Day 2 Skills</th>
<th>Day 3 Skills</th>
<th>Day 4 Real situation</th>
<th>Day 5 Cooperation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentor – student relationship building</td>
<td>Feedback in mentoring</td>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>Criteria for lesson observation</td>
<td>Mentor stories Conflicts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beliefs about learning, teaching and mentoring</td>
<td>Active listening in mentoring</td>
<td>Types of lesson observation</td>
<td>Management and evaluation of the teaching practice</td>
<td>Mentor action plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference between a teacher and a mentor</td>
<td>Noticing in mentoring</td>
<td>Intervention styles</td>
<td>Harmonising the demands between the school and the university</td>
<td>School – university cooperation (action plan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs analysis of the student teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phases of teacher development</td>
<td>Scaffolding in mentoring</td>
<td>Feedback sessions</td>
<td>Practice portfolio</td>
<td>Mentor portfolio Evaluation of mentor’s work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The core intensive course was meant for 5 days where every day had a different focus. The first day was devoted to relationship building in the group and stretching over to mentor – student situation,
e.g., the phases of the teacher development. The would-be mentors should be aware of the needs of the mentees, as well as what mentees go through, and also be aware that in teaching practice their goal was to help student survive in the class. The second day dealt with helping mentors to become aware of their skills and missing skills. Day 3 was planned for practising skills. During the 4th day the real situation with teaching practice was clarified and the requirements were harmonized. Finally, day 5 was meant for structuring future cooperation.

The mentoring courses were followed by a year of experiential learning and the results of this learning were presented in university and school mentors’ portfolios and in workshops at conferences. Based on the course tutors’ structured observations, the course participants’ self-evaluations and feedbacks, the following success and suggestions were outlined (see Table 3):

Table 3. The success of the mentoring courses and the suggestions for improvement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Suggestions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The possibility to get acquainted with the colleagues</td>
<td>Neutral venue for courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chance to make relationships</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course tutors’ teamwork</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precise guidelines to work with students</td>
<td>Not enough time for practising and improving skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal security</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being informed about duties and requirements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very clear, specific ideas for the organisation of teaching practice</td>
<td>The time and resources have to be found for networking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to start at once</td>
<td>University people have to be responsible for communication with school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The clarity about what happens at university and what is feasible at school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During the course the common understanding about various issues has been formed</td>
<td>The choice of right people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The need for working together was experienced</td>
<td>The school – university teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New insights have been gained through the scope of various subjects</td>
<td>Mixed subject specialists</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusions**

Concerning the course, the following conclusions were drawn:

1) Every new course should start with the needs analysis of the participants and based on that the course should be reshaped.
2) Courses should give the time for not only acquiring basic mentoring knowledge, developing basic mentoring skills, but also for building relationships, for developing sense of belonging, for cooperation.

3) The participation in courses should be of personal importance or necessity, not imposed by the school or university administration.

4) The change of the environment is a prerequisite of everyone’s involvement.

5) Mentoring course should be delivered by a team of tutors to the teams of school and university mentors.

6) Mentoring skills cannot be acquired through lectures, but experiential learning.

7) The courses should give time for communication which will create emotions that will form attitude and result in actions.

The action research on improving the quality of mentoring courses led to the conclusion that educated mentors can enhance the quality of pre-service education. Having a mentor, student teachers are able to adapt quickly and find their feet within the school; it helps to communicate with all levels within the school; have ready, impartial and trusted source of advice available and student teacher feels safe in school and classroom. At the same time educated mentors are a quality sign of in-service education because being involved in mentoring is an opportunity to further one’s own personal development, a chance to update one’s own ideas and techniques, increased peer recognition and network of contacts, increased personal reputation and job satisfaction, an experience to reveal in one’s Curriculum Vitae.

The partnership model between universities and schools is more effective if the involved people are educated and certified as a school mentors and university mentors. At this moment in Latvia there are 224 mentors who have completed the mentor training course, 139 of them are certified MOES mentors. Certified mentor has not only completed the mentor training course, but also has completed mentoring readings, participated in mentoring meetings, done mentoring practice, compiled mentoring portfolio and disseminated and presented one’s practice as a research project at a conference, making together 200 hours of work. This is the way how mentoring course can foster teachers’ career development and enhance the quality of teacher in-service education.

Still not all the people who have completed the courses and even got mentor’s certificate are successful mentors. There should be introduced some system of ensuring quality mentoring after certification, as well as providing support throughout their career.
References


‘Retoooling or renaissance?’: teacher education, professional knowledge and a changing landscape

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Abstract

As governments and professional communities engage in consultation on the future of education, curriculum, pedagogy and tools for learning beyond our current horizons, how might the teacher education community identify questions for research, reflection, and challenge? This paper will contribute some reflections on how research in teacher education might conceptualise teaching as creative endeavour which calls upon complex professional knowledge and confident agency in ‘reading the world’ within a changing landscape. It can be argued that there are links between understandings of creativity and didaktik analysis, encompassing imagination, purpose, originality and value in teachers’ praxis (Loveless, Turvey, & Burton, 2007). Our models of professional knowledge acknowledge the interactions between understandings of ‘what, how and why’ in situations which are authentic and relevant to teachers (Ellis, 2007; R. T. Putnam & Borko, 2000; Shulman & Shulman, 2004). The landscape of teacher education is changing, not only in the purposes of and policies for education systems, but also in some of the tools available for teacher learning, namely digital technologies (Pachler & Daly, 2006). In these changing times, Fisher, Higgins and Loveless (2006) call for an approach to teacher learning that is a ‘renaissance’ rather than a ‘retooling’. This would acknowledge teachers as actors in cultural changes in the profession, rather than instruments redesigned when the requirements of the production line change. The paper will offer a discussion of the research questions which might underpin a renaissance in a research-informed profession.

Keywords: professional knowledge, creativity, didaktik, teacher education, research, renaissance

Introduction: approaching the margins

The recent McMaster report on ‘Supporting Excellence in the Arts’ in the UK describes society in Britain as arguably the most exciting it has ever been, and suggests that the arts have never been so needed to understand the deep complexities of Britain today (Harris, 2008b; McMaster, 2008). The report itself is controversial, offering some radical understandings of ‘excellence’ and being presented at a troubled time for the arts, yet James Purnell, the Culture Secretary, claims to draw attention to quality rather than targets, and uses the language of ‘taking risks’, ‘pushing boundaries’, and ‘asking difficult questions’ (Harris, 2008a). This paper is a contribution to the TEPE conference on mapping the landscape and looking to the future, activities which require, in the spirit of the McMaster report, an understanding of the posing of questions, the representations of boundaries and the taking of risks.
At present, government policies are addressing the purposes of education, the curriculum for the demands of the ‘Knowledge Society’, and the nature of the workforce engaged with children and young people. Many people are asking many questions. In the UK the teacher education community is identifying research reviews and questions at macro, meso and micro levels of policy, practice and praxis (see [http://escalate.ac.uk/4103](http://escalate.ac.uk/4103)). The Primary Review, lead by Professor Robin Alexander at the University of Cambridge, although not specifically focused on teacher education, has clearly identified a range of questions powerful in scope and depth (see [http://www.primaryreview.org.uk/](http://www.primaryreview.org.uk/)). It addresses 3 review perspectives: children and childhood; culture, society and the global context; and education. Within this framework there are 10 review themes: purposes and values; learning and teaching; curriculum and assessment; quality and standards; diversity and inclusion; settings and professionals; parenting, caring and educating; beyond the school; structures and phases; funding and governance. The recent and ambitious research projects of the Teaching and Learning Research Programme (TLRP) have identified a wide scope of methodologies and findings about learning and teaching, from group work in the early years to learning lives through the lifecourse (see [http://www.tlrp.org](http://www.tlrp.org)). These responses, reviews and research projects are taking place against the wider backdrop of restructuring of the welfare state in education in Europe. (Goodson & Norrie, 2005; Muller et al., 2007).

In this paper I try to conceptualise teaching in the ‘Knowledge Society’ as a creative endeavour which involves imagination and value, as well as tensions and contradictions. This approach looks again at teacher learning and professional knowledge in the landscapes of education in our complex societies. In an attempt to promote discussion, I highlight 4 themes:

- The place of teachers in a changing landscape of workforce, curriculum and pedagogy;
- Teachers’ learning with digital technology tools;
- Teachers as creative professionals;
- Retooling or renaissance?

I argue that we might usefully think of reconceptualising the professional identity of teachers from instruments to be ‘retooled’ for an education production line, to creative, critical educators acting to shape culture in changing learning environments; and I suggest that we might do this by moving to the edges of the map - "hic sunt dracones".

The place of teachers in a changing landscape of workforce, curriculum and pedagogy

The landscape which we are attempting to map is dynamic, if not tectonic in the opening up of pedagogical spaces (Edwards & Usher, 2008). For over twenty years, writers and researchers have been predicting and describing some of the economic and social changes associated with constructions of a ‘Knowledge Society’: from the effects of the structural changes on work, institutions and cultural values (Webster, 2002), and the sources of power in the control of information (Castells, 1999); to the rise of the so-called ‘creative class’ (Florida, 2003), and the changes in associational life and levels of trust which lead Americans to ‘bowl alone’ (R. Putnam, 2001).

The recent Professional Knowledge project, funded by the European Commission, explored the implications of welfare state restructuring on teaching and nursing professions in European contexts in an ambition to understand knowledge “at work” among professional actors situated between the state on one side and the citizens on the other side (Goodson & Norrie, 2005). The literature reviews raise questions about the nature of changes in the design and experience of teacher education. They indicated that the trajectories and social construction of these professions in different countries in North and South Europe were very different, yet there were similarities in issues of decentralization, privatization, marketisation, labour supply, increasing secularism, new public management, the use of information technologies, and feminisation in these professions. Norrie and Goodson draw attention to the generational divide in the professional identity of teachers, and Goodson (2003) highlights both a ‘crisis of positionality’ as personal visions of change respond to external initiated changes rather than internal ideals, and a ‘memory and mentoring loss’ as retention difficulties with groups of both experienced and
younger teachers affect the knowledge and wisdom in the teaching community. Their study of English primary teachers’ biographies indicated how teachers’ professional lives reflect shifts in a more materialistic and individualistic society. Younger generations of teachers are less resistant to prescription and inspection of pedagogy and curriculum, yet are now experiencing some tensions and anxieties in the contradictions between more recent policies for creative, integrated approaches within unchanging contexts of assessment and monitoring (Norrie & Goodson, 2007).

In the English education system, reconceptualisation of teaching as a profession is taking place not only in the wider context of economic and social restructuring, but also against a national backdrop of New Labour’s changes in the policies for children and families, curriculum, strategies for pedagogy, and models of teacher education. We have been recently been responding to policy initiatives and strategies such as Every Child Matters, The Children’s Plan, Creative Partnerships, Nurturing Creativity in Young People, Prosperity for All, The Innovation Gap and Harnessing Technology, to name a few. (Creative-Partnerships, 2007; DCFS, 2007; DfES, 2004, 2005; Leitch, 2006; NESTA, 2006; Roberts, 2006) The role of digital technologies in teaching and learning is also considered as a ‘given’ in policy development despite research findings and reviews which indicate the relationship between technology, pedagogy, environment and pupil performance to be complex (Somekh et al., 2007; Webb & Cox, 2004).

**Teachers’ learning with digital technology tools**

Digital technologies have an effect on 3 aspects of the practice of teaching in economically developed societies. They play a role in the acceleration of many aspects of social, professional and economic life and thus the intensification of much of teachers’ work (Gleick, 1999); they can have a didactic relation with the ‘what, how and why’ of teaching and learning (Hudson, 2007), and they can support and shape teachers’ own learning and professional development (Fisher et al., 2006).

Many of the digital tools offered to teachers to ‘transform’ their practice, are in fact tools for intensification in efficiency and productivity. Such activities can include registration and record keeping, access to materials and resources, organization of curriculum resources and pupil work, and monitoring, analysis and presentation of performance data. The pacing and boundaries of teachers’ work and time can also be made both more flexible and more disrupted by access to digital technologies and networks through increases in the pressure for immediate responses to parents and outside agencies (Fisher, 2006).

Digital technologies have played a role in supporting learning and teaching in education systems for over a quarter of a century, yet understandings of the relations between technologies, subject content domains and pedagogy are still emerging. The affordances of digital technologies from desk top computers to mobile devices, to support activities such as finding things out, communicating and sharing information, developing ideas and making things happen, are well documented and reflected in government policies for the use of digital technologies in the school curriculum (see for example the National Curriculum for ICT in England DFEE/QCA, 2000; Loveless, 2003b). Hudson (2007) suggests an integrative didactical framework for describing the relations between subject content, student and digital technologies in terms of the interactions with design, content and pedagogical use. This is helpful in describing a range of uses of digital technologies in teachers’ work, from edutainment software for spelling, to the use of digital video and editing software to communicate meaning in movies.

As well as being tools in the teaching of the curriculum with pupils, digital technologies can also support and shape teachers’ learning. A recent review of teacher learning with digital technologies outlined different models of teacher professional knowledge (Fisher et al., 2006). It focused on a model by Shulman and Shulman (2004) describing a ‘nested’ conceptualization of 3 levels of analysis – individuals acting in communities within the context of policy, for which they use the metaphor of ‘capital’ in the allocation of resources. Fisher and his colleagues described how the affordances of digital technology supported ‘clusters’ of activities in teacher learning:
Knowledge building: adapting and developing ideas; modelling; representing understanding in multimodal and dynamic ways;

Distributed cognition: accessing resources; finding things out; writing, composing and presenting with mediating artefacts and tools;

Community and communication: exchanging and sharing communication; extending the context of activity; extending the participating community at local and global levels;

Engagement: exploring and playing; acknowledging risk and uncertainty; working with different dimensions of interactivity; responding to immediacy.

These activities with digital tools play a role in supporting teachers being ‘ready, willing and able’ to teach. They support vision for education; motivation to learn and develop practice; professional knowledge, understanding and practice; reflection and learning in community. There is also a need for teachers and school communities to have a sophisticated understanding of the opportunities and constraints that digital technology tools afford for learning and teaching in order to make informed decisions, and resist ‘bandwagons and snake-oil sellers’.

Teachers as creative professionals

I suggest that teaching can be a creative endeavour for teachers and learners, expressing the creative interaction between individuals, communities, ways of knowing, creative processes and tools, and culture (Loveless, 2003a). Discussions of understandings of creativity and the development of creative teaching, teaching for creativity and creative learning are well rehearsed in the literature (see for example Craft, 2005; Craft, Cremin, & Burnard, 2008; Jeffrey & Woods, 2003), but in this paper I will focus on creativity as embodied in individual teachers and their learning communities and networks.

Robinson describes creativity as ‘original ideas that have value’ – a pithy phrase which is packed with understandings of realizing imagination in cultural contexts (Robinson, 2001). In the UK the report of the National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education, defined creativity as, ‘imaginative activity fashioned so as to produce outcomes that are both original and of value’ (NACCCE, 1999 p29). This definition, although somewhat linear in presentation of the creative processes, is helpful in that it expresses characteristics of creativity which can be considered for individuals as well as the local and wider communities and cultures in which they act:

- Using imagination – the process of imaging, supposing and generating ideas which are original, providing an alternative to the expected, the conventional, or the routine;
- A fashioning process – the active and deliberate focus of attention and skills in order to shape, refine and manage an idea;
- Pursuing purpose – the application of imagination to produce tangible outcomes from purposeful goals. Motivation and sustained engagement are important to the solving of the problem. A quality of experience in the creative activities of fashioning and pursuing purpose have been described as ‘flow’, where the person’s capacity was being stretched despite elements of challenge, difficulty or risk (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996);
- Being original – the originality of an outcome which can be at different levels of achievement: individual originality in relation to a person’s own previous work; relative originality in relation to a peer group; and historic originality in relation to works which are completely new and unique, such as those produced by Fermat, Hokusai and Thelonius Monk;
- Judging value – the evaluative mode of thought which is reciprocal to the generative mode of imaginative activity and provides critical, reflective review from individuals and peers.

Understandings of Didaktik are helpful in recognizing the focus on the wider cultural values and purposes in education and the contexts and settings in which teachers practice. I have argued elsewhere that there are connections between open-mindedness of Didaktik analysis and preparation to teach, and teachers’ capabilities for imagination and improvisation (Loveless,
We suggest that Didaktik analysis itself is creative: imagination in a meaningful context is able to make connections, often novel, between concepts and metaphors, analogies, phenomena and examples, and thus create the representations and transpositions of content and substance. These are then fashioned purposefully in the design of teaching-studying-learning experiences and environments. Originality may lie either in the experience of the teacher making these connections for the first time in developing professional knowledge, or in the moments of improvisation from the 'draft' character of preparation. Value is closely linked to the local and wider purposes of education, of Bildung, in which Didaktik is expressed. (Loveless et al., 2007 p8)

A view of teachers as creative professionals is, of course, not unproblematic. Understandings of originality and value in particular education systems will be contested, and, in England for example, official encouragement from some quarters to take risks, move boundaries and ask questions is offered alongside a different context of performativity, prescription of teaching strategies, inspection and the consequences of league tables, as well as the changes of perception of the professional identity of teachers (Troian, Jeffrey, & Raggl, 2007). Yet creativity can often emerge in sites of tension or contradiction, and creative people find spaces and niches in which their ideas might flourish and be valued.

Mapping the landscape - retooling or renaissance?

It is, of course, easier to map the landscape of teacher education in our times, than to glimpse and translate the terrain beyond the horizon. The current models that are in place for teacher education are considered to be effective in producing teachers for current systems and strategies. Our models of professional knowledge acknowledge the interactions between understandings of 'what, how and why' in situations which are authentic and relevant to teachers (R. T. Putnam & Borko, 2000), yet our appreciation of authenticity and relevance is being challenged in our complex societies. The role and identities of teachers in formal and informal educational settings are being reshaped - in policies for educational workforces and learning environments, and in concepts of relationships in knowledge, pedagogy and partnerships (Ellis, 2007) . The landscape of teacher education is changing, not only in the purposes of and policies for education systems, but also in some of the tools and environments available for teacher learning, namely digital technologies (Pachler & Daly, 2006).

A view of teacher education as a system to produce members of a workforce which ‘delivers’ education is limited and inadequate to the task. It attempts to ‘capture, copy and disseminate elements of “good practice”, out of the context in which they were developed, in order to refresh the educational process as if retooling an industrial production line’ (Fisher et al., 2006 p39). The metaphor of retooling is also recognized in models of CPD for teachers where skill levels are ‘topped up’ to augment existing practices, rather than generate professional engagement in authentic, relevant and changing situations (Triggs & John, 2004; Watson, 2001).

Fisher et al (2006) call for a ‘renaissance’, a cultural change in the teaching profession, which enables high levels of agency to deal with complexity and flexibility – intelligent action in fast changing contexts. Such a ‘renaissance’ would encompass Hargreaves and Goodson’s seven principles of ‘postmodern professionalism’ (1996):

- Opportunities and responsibility to exercise discretionary judgement;
- Opportunities and expectations to engage with moral and social purposes;
- Commitment to working collegially within collaborative cultures;
• Occupational heteronomy rather than self-protective autonomy;
• A commitment to active care and not just anodyne service for students;
• A self-directed search and struggle for continuous learning;
• The creation and recognition of high task complexity.

How then might we engage in research questions and explorations that open up a different landscape for teacher education? How might we focus our research interests again not only on 'learning to learn', but also on 'learning to teach'?

Moving to the margins of the map

This paper has presented a hastily sketched map, drawing attention to four features: the challenges and changes in the 'Knowledge Society'; the role of digital tools in teachers' learning and practices; a conceptualization of teachers as creative practitioners; and metaphors for models of teacher education and professional knowledge in our times. As a community of researchers and teachers we have experience, expertise, collegiality and commitment to shape future developments by taking risks and asking questions on the boundaries, on the edges, in the margins of our practice as teacher educators.

I suggest that we can learn much about teaching and education by turning our gaze to creative educators who work on the margins of our mainstream systems, institutions and learning environments. These educators often work in communities and networks of artists, musicians, artisans, sports players, actors, environmentalists, political activists, development workers, hobbyists, and enthusiasts for topics from archaeology to zymurgy. The mapping of their activity indicates that they work in the contexts of our times, they use tools and technologies to support their activities, and they realise their ideas creatively both in their own practice and in the teaching of others. They may not be formally accredited, but they are recognized in their communities as being teachers in meaningful ways, engaging in reflection, dialogue, human presence, experience, memory and mentorship, and deep understanding of their field. We can learn from them, through creative conversations, narrative, and research methods which resonate with their fields and the questions that they ask about the things that matter to them. They can offer insights into their expertise, integrity, ways of knowing, relationship with others, commitment to process and substance. They can demonstrate how to embody being a teacher for different purposes, in different environments, and in different situations from one to one encounters, group work, teams, master classes, and whole classroom teaching, to communicating online. They can offer, not delivery of learning objectives ‘beyond the school’, but alternative views of being a teacher which help us to reconsider our practices in institutions and professions.

I suggest that such creative conversations can help us to think again about the identities of teachers in our changing society and systems, and contribute to a more radical charting of the landscape of teacher education. We need critical, creative teachers who are prepared not only to deal with what is, but are also sustained in asking questions, envisioning alternatives, embodying praxis, and reading the world with political awareness of their professional identity and agency.

We have begun to engage in such work in the University of Brighton, drawing upon expertise and interest in narrative and arts based research methodologies. I hope that this paper will act as a catalyst in the conversations and collaborations we might have at the TEPE conference to extend the boundaries of such work.

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Consolidating the European dimension - Teacher education, dissent and reinstatement

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1. Growth and/or decline in the Macedonian teacher education and training

The guiding idea is that organized in-service teacher education expanded in Macedonia after 2000. But is this true throughout the country and for all sectors of provision? Further discussion on productive factors implicated in the process of expansion implies elaboration on these two questions as a starting point. The following statement provides an illustration:

“Central to life-long learning approach is the adoption of the "3 Is" – initial, induction and in-service teacher education concept as an established policy. If teaching is regarded as a life-long career, teachers, more than any other group, should be lifelong learners. The only possibility to achieve this is through a major shift towards emphasis on education and professional development whereas pre-service teacher education provides the foundation for later upgrading and professional development through education. This does not imply juxtaposition of in-service and pre-service education or merely economic “exchange” but the contrary, the two are inherently complementary (Education International, 1996; Kuzmanoska & Janevski, 2007). As such training becomes a long-term process and a part of continuing education instead of a remedy for deficiencies in initial training. This is a fully recognized concept in most of the countries and is also becoming more complex as a process of lifelong learning” (Kuzmanoska & Janevski, 2007).

Teacher education and training which have made a progress over the last decade in Macedonia are now faced with major challenges. From “linear lump”, taken full-time, in regulated sequence, and with choice confined to specialist subjects or options, towards interdisciplinarity, new subjects, modularity and widespread adoption of credit accumulation and transfer schemes opening a new world of portable credit, intermediate qualifications, flexible pathways, potential mixed-mode study and transitional points.

During the last years the conception and national policy for teacher education have shifted from remedial and supply based approaches towards demands led and competence based approaches, from recurrent mode to life-long learning mode. The rising emphasis on accountability, choice and markets for learning, individual demand instead of social demand, have all implications for the accreditation and certification issues.

Having set the stage in this way in the after Bologna trend has for the most part aimed to increase mobility and inter-institutional co-operation. The main rule of behavior, the co-operation as in the vogue within the national policy documents, is even stronger at the international level where the diplomatic rules of conduct prevail. This is especially viable among states that are trying to define their common future in the European Union. Under such a scenario, the tensions between the traditional institutional arrangements on one side and the quasi-market arrangements, competitive behavior and the economic potential of non-traditional providers from the other side are challenged.
2. Trends and factors explaining recent changes

2.1 Education policies and priorities

The development pattern of national policies process warrants a place in the garbage can of abandoned best practices in terms of alternative policy formulations, a basis to rely on and a little use for the operational. What do we want it to provide: change or occurrences?

The interaction of different legal and policy instruments and the changing relationship with the reform process implies a few possible relations between reform, policy and legislation. National Government, education institutions and stakeholders have their own interpretation of the issues at stake. Such interpretations and stakeholders’ perspectives, their power positions and their interactions dynamically interact and lead to particular answers to challenges in the particular national context thus enabling specific domestic problems to find their way to the political agenda as well. The following is a breakdown of most relevant national policy documents shaping and influencing the reality:

- Program of the Government of Macedonia (2006-2010)
  The main national policy framework predating the major issues and recent developments for the aforementioned period.

- National Strategy for the Development of Education 2005–2015 (2006) was approved by the Parliament and Action Programmes are due to be developed. Parts of this particular document would have to be revised as to become congruent with the new national policies.

- As a specific tool of the Stabilization and Association Agreement (SAP), the European Partnership Agreement with Macedonia (June 2004) has established short- and medium-term priorities for further integration with the European Union. Structural reforms and sectoral policies that are envisaged include the areas of employment and social policy, small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) as well as higher education.

- The Multi-annual Indicative Programme (MIP) 2005-06 sets out the priorities for Community assistance for Macedonia in the period 2005-2006 (total budget 80 million Euro), more particularly referring to higher education, employment and lifelong learning.

(Kuzmanoska et al., 2007)

Provision of change in reforms influenced by subsequent legislative processes:

- Bologna Declaration,
- Lisbon Declaration,

The two programmes, Bologna and the Lisbon Declaration have the same dateline for completing their initial goals, though fulfilling very different objectives. To summarize these parallel processes, in reference to Bologna, the “European Union university policy may well lead to a new phase of ‘Europeanness’ of the European universities” (van Vught, 2007). Lisbon, however, stands as a more transparent programme the purpose of which is to harness the universities in Europe as instruments of policy across a very wide domain indeed: Science and Technology policy, innovation policy, aspects of social policy and employment (Neave, 2006).
As signatory to the Bologna Declaration, Macedonia through the Ministry of Education and Science has committed itself to achieve the core Bologna reforms by 2010, a commitment that certainly requires targeted incentives from the responsible authorities in the national context as backstopping for genuine take-up of the reforms rather than superficial compliance with the standards.

National Agency for European Educational Programmes and Mobility

The Parliament has passed the Law for establishing the National Agency for European Educational Programmes and Mobility in September 2007 as a legal entity charged to carry out the Lifelong Learning Programme 2007-2013 and the Youth in Action Programme 2007-2013. The Lifelong Learning Programme 2007-2013 consists of several sub-programmes: Comenius, Erasmus, Leonardo da Vinci, Grundtvig, Jean Monet, and the Transversal Programme. The financing of the National Agency is provided from the Budget of Macedonia and from the European Commission, in accordance to the Memorandum of Understanding signed by the Ministry of Education and Science and the European Commission. Participation in these European Union programmes will become the main driver of mobility of learners.

National Qualification Framework (NQF)

Following the recommendations from the 2005 Bergen conference of European Ministers responsible for higher education, the Ministry of Education and Science and the Government have committed themselves to propose a legal basis for the development of National Qualification Framework, to be effectuated with the new Law on changes and amendments of the Law of higher education, by the end of 2007 at latest. The Bologna follow up working group included the general and vocational education and training in compliance to the aligned National Qualification Framework with the “Overarching Framework for Qualifications in the EHEA” and with the broader qualifications framework for lifelong learning. Study programmes will have to be organized in cycles thus enabling possibilities for intermediate qualifications, with defined generic descriptors for each cycle, based on the results on the learning outcomes and acquired competencies, as well as credits for the first and second cycle.

Law on Adult Education

Lifelong learning policies as seen through the lenses of formal, in-formal and non-formal education, call for comprehensive analysis of pathways and transitions throughout the entire life cycle. Lifelong learning is stipulated to perform at least three functions with regard to transitions from life to work (i) to provide the foundations of the values, knowledge, skills and qualifications that facilitate initial access to the labour market, (ii) offers a way to obtaining new skills and qualifications that improve re-entry possibilities for those who have become unemployed or underemployed, or who have voluntarily left the labour market for a while, (iii) provides the conditions and means for the continuing formation and updating of the skills of the employed labour force and in some cases facilitating within-firm and job-to-job mobility. Lifelong learning provides the balance between general and vocational education, both in initial and in further education and training.

The new Law on Higher Education - in the Parliamentarian procedure
The analysis of the new governmental policies gives a telling account of policy modification. The general change in the political climate set the stage for the “heroic” ministers or members of the Government to act and carry policies into practice. Although the best available option for achieving excellence in teacher education and training is flexibility, most current institutional arrangements discriminate against this and favour “now or never” initial schooling.

The increase of investment in education as % of GDP, new funding arrangements, public funding for (private) providers can be viewed in terms of justification, password and/or buzz word. The currently predominating responses to changes in the global education market system move mostly within a production-oriented paradigm of economic development, preparing teachers for work in hierarchical organizations. Such an approach generates an interpretation of the current crisis screening out the most important and most troubling aspects of the crisis. The link between education, training and work, in most cases troublesome, complex and contradictory has been mystified into a simple, direct, cause-effect relationship, drawing education increasingly into the narrow sphere of bottom line thinking. Such model of education derives the primary legitimation from its direct individual or economic pay-off appeal.

Although the shift from recurrent mode to lifelong learning mode has been a priority for a longer time, the case has not been stated in powerful terms such as development of action plan and development of strategy for lifelong learning. As far as securing accessibility to all types of post-secondary education and training specifically is concerned, the main identified approach is: equal opportunities, enhancing employment and career building, teacher training and re-training as harmonious coordination between the training activities and focus on a continuous professionalisation of teachers (Kuzmanoska, 2004a, Kuzmanoska & Janevski, 2007). While the primary focus is on the formal education and training systems, the importance and the status of non-formal and informal learning are also recognized. Different implementation patterns concerning the specific nature of the national system are underway thus representing a point of departure from the usual rhetorical platform.

2.2 Activation measures - a paradigm shift: market principles in teacher education

Teacher education is regarded as one of the most important national activity with a lot of corporative rhetoric and practice. The answer to this was setting up a system for in-service teacher education that changed the life of teachers in this decade. Although legally but mostly professionally compulsory, in-service teacher education attendance becomes an inherent part of being a teacher. The most important steps were development of national system of multiple high quality providers, creation of a specific funding system, the formulation of a legal framework and setting up of an accreditation board.

2.2.1 Milestones in Teachers education

The formal education for primary and secondary education teachers is prescribed by the Law for primary education and the Law for secondary education and is given at the higher education institutions at the universities in Macedonia. Reforms corresponding to flexible and modernized curricula in this instance are binding by Bologna declaration but another approach to effectively address changes in teacher and trainer competences due to changes in the tasks teachers and trainers are expected to perform and in the issues they have to deal with is, alterations in the organisation of learning processes and in the learning outcomes to be achieved. Randall’s (2002)
observation what matters is the fitness-of-purpose and not only the fitness-for-purpose judgment, portrays the case regarding teacher education institutions and programmes.

During the past 10 years, enormous development of the large “machinery” of in-service teacher education has been witnessed in R. Macedonia. In-service education in Macedonia was more driven by the supply than by the demand and has been largely influenced by the supply provided by various trainers than by the demands formulated by the teachers. The in-service teacher education was provided by different public and private providers though ad hoc and with programmes with limited territorial coverage of teachers.

2.2.2 Market mechanisms and competition

Converting “side-tracks” to “high-roads” implies big challenge for the national educational policy. The identified characteristics in traditionally offered in-service education are considered unfavourable for effective teaching, teacher empowerment, and development of professional status for teaching. As a result, restructuring in order to produce conditions that address these concerns will make new demands on teachers, as well as provide them with new opportunities. Just as systemic reforms are an unrealized goal of the reform movement, reformed in-service education is also a goal rather than a reality (Kuzmanoska, 2004a). The change in the once “protected market” towards an “open” market; launching of the “missing training”: ongoing training; certification/licensing of training products and processes is taking place, decision makers and planners working in the field of education face the issues of accounting teachers as a particularly interesting group of workers, since their stock of human capital is generally very specific and since their (re) training takes a long time.

In most of the EU countries the main tendencies in the teacher professional development (TPD) area are multiple public and private providers offering TPD where the higher education institutions have increasingly important role and establishment of quality assurance procedures, guided by the central education administration (Zafeirakou, 2002).

Accordingly, the following questions could be impetus or running counter to the development of the Macedonian market place:

1. The realm of the emergence of a market for teacher professional development,
2. The match of the demand and supply,
3. The improvement of links between the need, demand and supply.

(Dutto, 2003)

Although with low level of involvement in the training activities, the Macedonian higher education institutions for initial teacher education have the capacity to provide both training of trainers and in-service teacher education whilst the introduction of a free market of providers will create incentives towards further strengthening of these capacities. For teachers’ education and training in terms of a service with such a long lead-time between process and product, surprisingly little has been directed towards understanding the long term effects of current policies and actions. Redressing the habit of identifying current problems and producing a solution for the momentum starts with searching with futures problems and the efforts for preventing (Hunter, 1998).

The assumption underlying Bologna Declaration is that the Macedonian Government retains the responsibility for higher education or in other words, sets the rules of play for higher education
institutions in the country. Bologna Declaration statements are not just rhetoric but actual basis of higher education policy: biggest providers are public one or striving to become. At the same time, by clearly formulating the objectives for support of establishment of private universities and highlighting the economic potential in attracting world-renown universities to open their branches in the country, the Government started moving beyond this public service rhetoric by introducing quasi market arrangement in higher education. The deliberate introduction of market mechanisms and competition is a novelty as a steering concept. Public good arguments are still supported and continuing public commitment to funding of higher education in order to provide the basic security can be explained from a political and value based perspective. Pursuing rather more co-operative approach is the other side of the co-operation and competition coin under the circumstances where co-operation is the main rule (written) behavior in Bologna Declaration. “Closer connection between domestic faculties and respective foreign faculties and institutes through joint activities, such as international projects, student and teacher exchange, workshops, seminars and congresses “(Government’s programme, 2006) is even more strongly advocating the international level, especially that the state is trying to define its common future in EU. Bologna Declaration’s institutional arrangements lack the view on competitive behavior and to narrowly focus on co-operation between governments which is rather constraining when co-operation is the name of the game. The crucial challenge the country is facing in providing sufficient public funding for higher education and the further expansion into Lifelong Learning are excluded from Bologna Declaration’s focus (Kuzmanoska et al., 2007).

2.2.3 Flexible pathways and transition points - implementation, consultation and dissemination

The Ministry of education and science set out the priorities in terms of content and type of action and the accredited in-service teacher training providers applied for funding with concrete teacher education actions. There is specific funding system supplied thorough school improvement grants where “at least 30% of total amount of the grant” has to be spent on procuring accredited programs offered by accredited providers. Following the Open call for expression of interest and pre-qualification of in-service teacher training providers from 2004, the range of providers for in-service for education is wider, ranging from public and private organizations, for profit and non profit to local and international consortium and individuals who want to work as providers linked to a public or private company or organization. In-service teacher education is generally carried out through short term actions, the form of which have been defined: a) courses, b) modules, c) attendance on higher education single subjects, d) workshops, e) seminars, f) projects, g) study groups.

Universities and other higher education institutions in the role of providers for in-service teacher education would have offered several innovative forms, such as thematic courses, research grants for teachers, and research projects that would involve teachers. Certain in-service teacher education programmes with the accumulation of credits they offer could lead to degree/certificate or other award bearing programmes. One of the ideas that has been promoted is the development of professional development portfolios (PDP). The accreditation of professional development portfolios towards higher education awards foresees development of questionnaire to higher education institutions that are in position to award portfolio based credit. Higher education institutions will need to reach a common agreement as a set of common inter-award and inter-institutional criteria for accreditation. These criteria have to be established as public definitions.

As Bologna signatory, certain measures were taken in a way of revising the curricula and programs within the higher education by enhancing the concept of learning outcomes.
Transformation of the academic degree structure in Macedonia requires changes in the content of the educational programs, moving from the teacher-oriented to a student-oriented study process and making relation between new academic degrees and labor market closer. Implementation of European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) is well underway since the introduction started in 1998, however, the establishment of an internal credit accumulation and transfer system as a policy is a much more fundamental and difficult change for Macedonian universities. It may be combined with European Credit Transfer System above, but they are quite different activities. The introduction of the credit system such as ECTS is a focal point for earning credits outside higher education, including lifelong learning, provided that the admitting university recognizes the same (National Programme for Development of Education, 2006). The other deficiency regarding the European Credit Transfer System is that it is not linked to key competences the students should gain at the end of the course / study program. The absence of European Higher Education Arena (EHEA) National Qualification Framework resulted that the European Credit Transfer System did not ensure any mobility of students, neither on a faculty / university level, not internationally. Consequently, Macedonia had nothing to report on the key E&T 2010 indicator of cross-national mobility of students in higher education. Although the National Qualification Framework (NQF) was completed in 2002, after a series of consultations and seminars in 2006 the working group has restarted working within Ministry of Education and Science in September 2007. The development of National Qualification Framework as established coherent of qualifications in the vocational and higher education and the need to include the non-formal learning is among the priorities in the educational policy.

Higher education institutions mostly regarded as the driving force in the in-service teacher education activities, unexpectedly, had no significant engagement in the new tasks, in assuming new responsibilities and modes of work. The catalog for accredited providers from 2006 revealed that out of 150 accredited in-service teacher education providers 15 were coming from the university sector, 3 from the social sciences and 15 from the faculties or institutes for IT and communication. Slaughter and Leslie (1997) assert that “faculty and professorial staff expend their human capital stock increasingly in competitive situations” (p:9) however, the capacity of the universities as providers and their services offered to the teacher training market did not match the expectations of the potential customers. The institutional and professorial market or marketlike behavior failed in the corporate quest for new products converged with higher education institutions efforts to secure outside source of revenue. Faculties as subset of academics that by and large have the monopolies on degrees and in most cases on training and credentials of other professionals have been more insulated from the market than the other professionals. By working for institutions that were mostly non-profit and state funded and with the autonomy from the market and the state, they did not have the opportunity to become fee-for-service practitioners. During the last decade of the twentieth century, the academics gradually become more involved in the market in the advisory capacities and as consultants in government ministries and related bodies, industry and commerce, although this is an activity carried out by individuals and in same rare cases departments or institutes, not of the faculties and of the universities as a whole (Kuzmanoska, 2004b). The priorities for higher education set in Governmental programme in 2006 are a turning point for market incorporation of the academia where the work is patterned differently, the special treatment of the universities, the professional privilege and the contract between the academia and the state are challenged by the emphasis on client welfare.
3. Conclusions

The Macedonian University is in a state of flux or in other words in a state of institutional confusion and search. The traditional social contract between higher education and society is deemed to be no longer valid, and there is not yet a new pact (Maassen & Olsen, 2007). This is to a large extent caused by far-reaching change processes in the environments of higher education institutions, the growing complexity of the governance mode and the European integration efforts (Neave 2003). As a consequence, there is a growing imbalance between demands from environmental actors on higher education institutions and the institutional capacity to satisfy these demands (Clark 1998). In addition, many changes taking place in higher education institutions are a result of processes and decisions from within the private, internal life of academia. Some scholars still hold the view that this far-reaching changes go fast and are comprehensive while the others argue that they are stepwise and incremental (Birnbaum, 2000).

The traditional underlying idea of the university as a public, social institution is clashing with the instrumental vision of the university as a professionally managed, autonomous “enterprise”, operating in various markets as a service industry.

The changing educational policy context of the recurrent education poses “double challenge”: vertical and horizontal (Papadopoulos, 1994). The two other tensions that need to be resolved is: the first between educationists who consider themselves guardians of quality, and those outside the profession who influence education policy and practice, such as the politicians. The other tension is between modernity and post-modernity that calls for reforms and revolutionizing development. The country has decided the priorities within an achievable strategic framework thus more structured decisions can be made in certain sectors in order to identify key targets rather than an attempt to solve all problems at once, policies and market failures can be measured and new policy interventions targeted. The step from intention to implementation is almost a quantum leap. The forthcoming years will show whether the positive intentions will genuinely be translated into practices which actually affect and serve individuals and and all interested groups in general.

The extent to which processes of European integration affect the higher education institutions; the (im)perfection of markets in higher education and the balance between the quest for quality and low prices; the Europeanisation and the changes are all areas for further elaboration in the agenda of “modernization” of the higher education.
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Teacher Education Policy in Europe (TEPE) Conference 2008

Title:
The introduction of M level credits to the Secondary Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) at the Institute of Education, University of London: the story so far

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Keywords: Initial Teacher Education, PGCE, M-level.

Abstract of paper

From September 2007 the Post Graduate Certificate in Education course at the Institute of Education, University of London has changed to become a teaching qualification assessed at Masters (M-level). This is in line with almost all other higher education institutions involved in initial teacher education in England and the changes are in response to a government decision about the academic level at which PGCEs are set. That decision was based on the European Bolgna Declaration. (1999)

The emphasis that the Institute’s PGCE has long placed on enquiry focused assignments and critically reflective teaching meant the course was well placed to be at least partially assessed at Master's level. Designation at M-level gives it added value and the Institute in recognition of the high calibre of beginning teachers attracted onto it’s PGCE, chose to offer up to 90 M-level credits which could be taken forward into Masters programmes. As the new style PGCE is developing in this pilot year a number of issues and challenges are facing the leadership and teaching teams, some which were foreseen and some which were not. These will be discussed in detail.

The altered PGCE differs from most other English M-level PGCE courses in a number of ways; the high number of credits, the fourth module which is chosen
from a range of options and a variety of progression routes into a full Master’s course.

The government’s teacher training body, The Training and Development Agency for Schools is increasingly focused upon the professional development of teachers from their initial teacher training year through their induction period and into the early years of teaching. It is our intention to encourage many of the beginning teachers to consider progression onto our innovative M Teach which aims to develop teachers’ critical reflection on professional practice alongside educational research literacy, to replace knowledge transmission with knowledge construction and to use computer mediated communication as a central learning mechanism.

**Introduction**

The debate on what makes an excellent teacher is not a new one but it is a debate that continues to interest our politicians as well as education experts. One recent addition to that debate is the extent to which teacher training should be underpinned by theory and higher academic qualifications. If we accept the definition of The Royal Society (2007:13), that an excellent teacher ‘is credited with inspiring life-changing decisions and is remembered forever and has an extra dimension, dedication and imagination’, then does our existing professional development help to move teachers towards this or are there ways in which a reformed teacher education continuum can enhance teacher education still further? A recent and potentially very significant development in teacher education in England is the expectation that the majority (if not all) of our teachers achieve Master’s credits while training and then continue to build them into M level courses that enhance their professional work.

**Background**

The UK’s membership of the European Union has recently prompted this move to a Master’s level teaching profession. The European Bolgna Declaration. (1999) prompted a review by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) for Higher Education. This led, in 2005, to a statement by the QAA, The Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) and the Standing Conference of Principles (see http: www.qaa.ac.uk). It recommended a change to our Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) courses to ensure that the levels of achievement of our beginning teachers has comparability with our European partners and from September 2007 changes have been implemented in teacher education to work towards that.

Now, two types of PGCE course are available: the traditional *Postgraduate* route, pitched beyond honours level and a new *Professional* Graduate Certificate in Education pitched at Honours level. Figure 1 summarises the level of awards. Barker (2007) reports that a survey by the Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) showed that 18% of ITT institutions were planning to offer
only the Master’s level with 77% planning to offer both. Many of the latter feel there is a need for a fall-back position should beginning teachers fail to reach the required M level standard. Therefore in common with other higher education institutions involved in initial teacher education in England, the PGCE courses at the Institute of Education, changed to become primarily a Master’s (M-level) qualification.

This paper documents the process through which that change was managed, where we are now, our successes and our remaining issues. At the Institute of Education, we have always believed, and had verification from our external examiners and Ofsted, the English inspection body, that our beginning teachers are among the highest quality in the country. We have adopted a culture of ‘reflective practitioners’ who draw on ‘critical reflection’ and our beginning teachers engage with recent and relevant research. Written assignments have frequently been referred to as comparable to, or sometimes higher in quality, than many Master’s level assignments. Our question was not whether to move to Master’s (M-Level) but how many credits we should award in the initial training year. Our directorate was keen to award a high number of credits largely to demonstrate the high quality of the beginning teachers and after much debate 90 M level, plus 30 H level, credits have been assigned to the PGCE course. This applies to all our PGCE courses covering the pupil age range 4+ to 19.

There is often a desire to be radical at times of key change and there were many staff in The Institute of Education who wished to use this change as an opportunity to adopt very different, innovative, models of teacher education. Some advocated different or multiple-start points in the year, some the use of more distance and blended learning while others presented plans for different models of school partnership arrangements. In the end an evolutionary rather than revolutionary model was adopted, possibly because many felt that the ‘if it hasn’t broken…don’t fix it’ saying should apply, or possibly because our funding streams, ability to recruitment and schools partnership are too fragile and the attached risks are just too great. A final reason for moderate change was that our institution was in the process of being restructured and new leadership, management and day-to-day organisation were seen to be barriers to introducing too much change all at the same time. Whether this was a missed opportunity or an effective move, only time may tell.

The new style PGCE
Figure 2 summarises the new PGCE course outline. Although the course is divided into modules, at least three of the four modules run concurrently through the year and have been designed to be largely consistent with current practice. The course programme and regulations described below were approved by our governing body in 2007and covered both the awards of the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (M level) and the Professional Graduate Certificate in Education (H level). We need the Professional Graduate Certificate in Education as a ‘fallback’ qualification for those who fail one or more modules. The
Professional Graduate Certificate will be awarded to candidates who achieve less than 90 M level credits but who pass all modules and teaching practice elements. Before describing the course details it is important to stress that the base line for qualified teacher status in England is to meet the thirty three Standards required to gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) as defined by the government's body The Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) www.tda.gov.uk/partners/ittstandards/qtsstandards.aspx. Academic qualifications are considered desirable rather than essential. However, that stated, the traditional style PGCE has always been the route through which most teachers train and it incorporates an academic qualification with the requirements of the Standards included.

The Professional Practice module
The thirty H level credits are awarded to that element of the course that concerns school-based Professional Practice. One of the key reasons for having to place these at H and not M level is the difficulty of providing a robust and reliable quality assurance procedure for the school partnership. Our secondary partnership has over two hundred and fifty secondary schools and colleges and comparing standards across the multitude of contexts in which those schools work would prove impossible. Figure 3 summarises the assessed elements of the H level module. The PGCE course changes have been designed so that school staff should not notice any significant impact to their day-to-day work with beginning teachers.

The subject modules
Sixty M level credits are awarded for the two modules that are attached to the fourteen subjects offered by the Institute of Education's secondary PGCE course. Thirty of these relate to the module titled Subject Studies and thirty for the Subjects in a Wider Context module. The latter extends the scope of the teacher to looking at their subject across the whole school curriculum or beyond the classroom.

The fourth module
The final thirty credits are awarded for a fourth module, for which there is some element of choice. Beginning teachers select their fourth module from one of the three types of module:
Type 1: A generic module, The Professional Learning Portfolio (PLP) is based on the reflective practitioner. It is open to all beginning teachers, regardless of age phase and a more detailed description and analysis of this module is provided later in this paper.
Type 2. A subject module, restricted to beginning teachers in the relevant subjects and which extends existing subject work. Chosen from:
- Educational visits in Business Education
- Learning outside the Geography classroom
- PGCE Art & Design: Learning beyond the classroom
• Historical consciousness & Public History  
• Religion and School Life  
• Secondary Music: Learning opportunities beyond the classroom  
• Media Literacy in Education  
• Developing Appropriate Pedagogies for MFL Learning  

Type 3. A module available from within some MA courses already offered by the Institute. Some are restricted whereas some are open to all beginning teachers. Chosen from:  
• Gender, Theory and Practice in Education  
• Philosophy of Education: Knowledge, Mind and Understanding  
• Philosophy of Education: Values, Aims and Society  
• Designing mathematical learning and teaching with digital technologies  
• Choral conducting, Leadership and Communication  
• Introduction to music technology in education (distance learning)  
• Learning to live together: children’s rights, citizenship and identities (distance learning)  
• Learning, Teaching and Assessment in Citizenship (distance learning)  
• Learning, Teaching and Assessment in History  
• Learning, Teaching and Assessment in Religious Education Teaching controversial issues  

Issues  
Adopting any change to an academic course as radical as the one outlined above would be expected to throw up challenges and take some time to establish itself. Half way through this first year we have already encountered a number of issues which we need to address. Some of these are likely to apply to other English higher education institutions, some apply only to our London context and some apply only to my own institution. Some of these key issues are described below.  

How important is an M level qualification to new teachers?  
Some beginning teachers on PGCE courses are confused as to the value of, and need for, the M level credits, which given that this is a pilot year is perhaps not surprising. Two examples illustrate this. A blog for teachers on the Times Education Supplement website (www.tes.co.uk) reveals uncertainties from trainee teachers about whether completing a Master’s course is compulsory, whether schools value teachers with a Master’s degree more and even whether they are able to opt out should they wish. In presentations made to potential recruits for 08/9 Institute of Education Open Evening it was estimated that around three quarters of the questions related to the Master’s Level elements and attached progression routes.  
In 2005/6 3,550 of England’s 17,440 beginning teachers trained through an employment based route called the Graduate Teacher Programme. (DfES RS database 2007). The vast majority of those teachers on that and any other
employment based route will not receive M level credits attached to their training though the government is planning that in the long term they should. The government, though the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA), and the higher education institutions themselves, need to market a clear and transparent pathway through Master’s qualifications, linked closely to professional practice in schools and other educational settings. The rationale as to why such a qualification is of benefit must also be explained, with reference to the individual teacher and to schools but primarily to the young people being taught.

A country such as Finland that has a strong M-level emphasis for its teachers is generally accepted as having a high quality education system and this would be evidence for England to promote the M level route. In an extract from his inaugural Sir John Cass Memorial lecture, Lord Adonis, the Parliamentary Under Secretary of State for Schools and Learners noted the link between Finland’s high quality education system and the numbers of teachers with a masters degree.

‘In Finland I was struck not only by the extraordinary social status of teachers – 10 applicants for every teacher training post – but also by the fact that almost all teachers either have a masters degree or are working towards one, their courses including practical projects to improve their pedagogy. When I asked the head of a primary school in suburban Helsinki what was the biggest staffing problem she faced, she replied: “My best teachers going to do PhDs”. I cannot think of anything I would be less likely to be told in an English school. We need to extend such opportunities to far more teachers in England, perhaps partly by means – as in Singapore – of special sabbaticals for the purpose.’

June 2007 at ttp://www.dcsf.gov.uk/speeches/speech.cfm?SpeechID=649

There is also evidence from the USA that ‘the brightest and best candidates leave earlier and in greater numbers than their less academically grounded counterparts. Quartz et als (2004 p. 6) quoting from four sources including Darling-Hammond & Sclan (1996) and Murnane (1991).

How many credits should be offered?

Anecdotal comments from our current beginning teachers suggest that the number of credits offered, or even the M level itself did not attract them to do our particular PGCE. Reputation of the PGCE at the Institute and availability of a suitable PGCE near to their home remain the two biggest ‘pull factors’. That may well change, as the new courses are adopted and better understood by schools and higher education staff. Clearly if beginning teachers leave the PGCE with 90 M level credits accepted towards a continuing Master’s degree then they are more likely to sign up to continue their study. Universities are keen to promote their courses partly because they stand to gain increased student numbers and revenue. The Institute of Education hopes that rather than our current pattern of a very small number of new teachers opting to study for a Master’s course and paying for the full six modules, a much larger number will take forward their credits within the institution and complete and pay for the three or maybe four additional modules required to complete. Marketing plans are underway to persuade this first year’s entry of the need to use their credits to develop their
career within the next few years and of the supportive and varied pathways that the Institute of Education offers.

**How easy is it to transfer credits?**
Policies are currently being written about what UK institutions will accept into their own M level courses from new teachers who move into another geographical area or simply prefer to continue their study in a different institution. For most institutions it seems to be set at a sixty-credit limit. Many will make use, as we will, of distance or blended learning so we retain our former beginning teachers who move elsewhere, either in the UK or abroad. But academics can be precious about their courses and many will need convincing to accept teachers with very little experience or who do not have a proven track record of writing and research. That is why dedicated early professional M level courses have been created for this market. In the Institute of Education this is called the Masters of Teaching (MTeach) and it has provided a model that many other institutions have adopted as described in Kearns et als (2007 pp23-50). This innovative course will be described in more detail later.

**Abilities of the beginning teachers**
While we knew most of our course participants were capable of writing at Master’s level, we also suspected many will struggle. Producing work at a higher academic level will be challenging for many beginning teachers unused to writing in a reflective way, drawing from research and learning how to conduct enquiries, albeit that all this work would be practice-based and relevant to a teacher’s core need i.e. to train to be high quality practitioners.

To attempt to minimise this we formulated new module assessments structured around portfolios or smaller assignments, we included video, drama or artefact contributions and utilised presentations. We made use of our academic support department resources and offered additional workshops. In total this represents a significant additional staff input.

**Assessment**
Regulations and policies are currently being drawn up to establish consistent and fair practice for a number of situations that will arise. As I write there are many questions being asked, answers found and policies written. How many drafts should a tutor comment on? Should all work be double marked or only a sample? Should it be blind double marked? What are the consequences of failure and can students appeal against this procedure? Is a second attempt allowed? If one module is failed is the beginning teacher awarded a Postgraduate or Professional graduate certificate?

At the other end of the spectrum many of our beginning teachers are truly excellent practitioners even at the end of their training year. We are considering whether distinctions should be offered to those with the highest grades for individual modules or would this need to be reassessed in future years when a teacher has completed the whole M level course? Our most recent practice has offered simply a Pass or Fail at PGCE.
Are H level credits necessary?
The module of Professional Practice, which is primarily school-based and grounded in professional attributes, knowledge, understanding and skills, has thirty H level credits attached to it. An assessment is made based on a portfolio of the beginning teachers’ work. Figure 3 lists the items included in the portfolio and therefore gives a flavour of the module. Some tutors, keen to reduce their marking of assignments are advocating that this module is dropped.

The MTeach at the Institute of Education
A key feature of the Institute’s development of M level work is the innovative Master of Teaching (MTeach) which has been in existence for over five years. It ‘foregrounds critical reflection on professional practice as well as educational research literacy, i.e. the ability to read, interpret and implement educational policies in a critical and context sensitive manner as well as to understand, apply and be able to produce educational research and enquiry’ Pickering et als (2007 p 2). Other significant elements are its mixed-mode teaching pattern with computer-mediated communication between participants as well as tutors and some face to face elements. This mix allows the much-enjoyed contact and sharing of experience between teachers in their early years of teaching but the distance element ensures that teachers only travel into a central teaching session for a limited number of sessions. The course was developed out of the shortcomings of tradition professional development for teachers which Lock (2006:665) describes as ‘(a) one-shot and one-size fits all workshops; (b)use of the transmission model from experts to teachers; (c) failure to address school-specific differences; (d) just in case training; and (e)system wide presentations that do not provide sufficient time to plan or to learn new strategies to meet the reality of their own classrooms.’ We believe that the MTeach offers a useful alternative to shape and evaluate the knowledge and practice of teachers in their early years of practice.

Progression routes
Progression from the PGCE into a full M level course is crucial to the success of these changes and as yet it is not possible to predict which paths the beginning teachers will take or how many will wish even to continue to M level. Crucial will be the volume and type of additional work required and the relevance of any further modules to these new teachers as they are challenged by the intensity and volume of their initial first years in the classroom. At that stage they move from a supported, 50% teaching load to responsibility for whole classes for over 80% of the time.
Various stakeholders have specific views on what pathways should involve. Any long-term impact should be measured on the benefits to the school pupils but this is notoriously difficult to achieve. Schools may be looking for teachers who are expert practitioners in the subject or who can manage and lead more effectively. Higher education lecturers may be seeking competent research practitioners
while government seek to build a strong world class teaching workforce, able to adapt to the demands of the coming decades. The Institute of Education’s PGCE allows three pathways into completion of a Master’s degree. The majority are likely to choose to complete the specialist MTeach as outlined above. As I write it seems likely that a decision will be made to allow any Institute of Education beginning teacher to use their 90 M level credits for the Teach regardless of choice of the fourth module. The MTeach teaching methodologies utilises computer technologies and e learning in which the primarily young teachers are usually highly proficient and comfortable. The emphasis on practitioner enquiry and reflection makes the modules highly appropriate for schools as assignments can be based around school activities in which teachers are already engaged. Professional Development managers in schools have begun to develop closer partnership with staff at the Institute to ensure there is ‘joined up thinking’ and to ensure effective use is made for the school from the course. Since some schools part fund their teachers through Master’s courses this is especially important to them. Where beginning teachers have chosen a subject-based fourth module they may prefer to follow a subject ‘expert’ route and complete an MA in, for example, Geography in Education, Art & Design Education and Science in Education. The 90 credits will be accepted and over the next two to five years 90 additional credits from a limited selection must be completed.

Finally some beginning teachers choose modules linked to other generic MA courses. Modules from the Type 3 option modules listed above could be accepted by Master’s course leaders in related fields. In some cases only sixty credits can be transferred instead of 90 and final decisions are being made as I write. As a general rule any beginning teacher wishing to import module credits from another PGCE will find they are limited to sixty credits and likewise our beginning teachers will find only sixty of theirs will be accepted. Once more this is a ‘watch it and see’ situation at present.

In the future there are opportunities to grow on the successes and failures, the demands and expectations of schools and the teachers themselves. For example pathways linked to early leadership such as Fast Track described in King (2006), or to Special Educational Needs (SEN) could be developed.

One example of the fourth module: The Professional Learning Portfolio (PLP)
Since the Institute’s Master of Teaching (MTeach) was designed to provide innovative Continuing Professional Development (CPD) opportunities for teachers in their early years in the profession, Pickering et als (2007 p 3), it made sense to establish a pathway through the PGCE that fed harmoniously into that Course. As described above, the emphasis is on knowledge construction rather than transmission and on reflection about and through school-based professional practice. The module created to serve that purpose is titled the Professional
Learning Portfolio. It consists of four items; each developed at a different point in the course and then brought together by the beginning teacher, through a return to the first item philosophical statement. The four items are:

- A Philosophical Statement based on ‘The kind of teacher I want to be’ and ‘What makes a good teacher?’
- A piece of reflective writing based within the subject
- A piece of reflective writing based on the school practice beyond the subject
- A reflection on one specific teaching and learning experience.

Each task aims to help beginning teachers to reflect deeply on experiences, and from those experiences, to recognise learning and how it can be applied to other contexts. The construction of a portfolio helps to prepare these new teachers in the ongoing process of building a portfolio that is now part of an English teacher’s continuing professional development process. Those selecting the Professional Learning Portfolio (PLP) as their fourth module will benefit from an established understanding of the philosophy and practice of the MTeach should they decide to pursue that pathway.

Conclusion
Most new teachers will now enter the teaching profession with a number of M-level credits towards a full Master’s level qualification. At the same time the remit of the Training and Development Agency for Schools is to create a more structured early professional development programme for new teachers which brings coherence. Therefore we expect the Department for Children, Schools and Families in England and the its Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) to develop the early professional development of teachers and integrate the various initiatives, qualifications, professional frameworks and funding streams to build teacher quality. Another strong possibility is that, building on the success of the Chartered London Teacher (www.clt.ac.uk) and schemes devised by two subject associations; Chartered Geographer (Royal Geographical Society) and Chartered Science Teacher (The Association for Science Education: CSciTeach) a significant award could be introduced offering chartered teacher status around five years after entering the workforce. This would be somewhat similar to Chartered Accountants, Surveyors and Engineers and could involve demonstrating competencies against advanced Standards through a portfolio of evidence. The profession must see M-level credits awarded during the PGCE year built into coherent, accredited courses which meet the needs of individual teachers and schools rather than being academic and of little relevance. Higher education institutions must develop courses that allow teachers to transfer credits if they relocate to different parts of the country and to defer study when life circumstances or the sheer pressure of early teaching proves too great. Crucially, government must develop funding incentives to encourage new teachers to utilise their PGCE credits and continue to develop professionally linking practice with further study. It is possible that if the government are creative they could use this funding stream as an additional way to influence the gaps or weaknesses in new teachers’ training, for example, as
identified in the 2007 Newly Qualified Teachers Survey special education needs, subject knowledge enhancement and working with the wider workforce. (www.tda.gov.uk/partners/datasurveys/nqtsurvey.aspx) By that means, and using differential funding, they could address their own agendas for teachers' development. At the same time government and the TDA will need to inform and then encourage both teachers and schools to view this significant new development into an M level PGCE as an essential part of retaining teachers and developing them into the world class teaching force England strives to have.

Lock, J. (2006) A new image on line communications to facilitate teachers professional development’ *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education* 14, 4665
**Figure 1 Summary of M and H level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Credit level</th>
<th>Is typical of the learning expected of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>a doctorate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>a masters degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>the last part of a bachelors degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>the last part of a Foundation Degree; middle part of a bachelors degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>the first part of HE study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>entry qualification for HE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**What do we mean by M-level?**

*Level 7 - The level of study normally associated with a Master’s degree in England*

**What do we mean by H-level?**

*Level 6 - The level of study normally associated with the final year of a Bachelor’s degree in England*
Figure 2 Summary of the Secondary PGCE modular structure
Figure 3
The contents of the assessment portfolio for the Professional Practice at H level

For Professional Practice 1

- 5 lesson observations
- 1 end of Professional Practice 1 placement report
- For 1 observed lesson of the BT’s choice – plans, resources and evaluation for that lesson together with the lesson before or the lesson after
- 1000 word reflection of Professional Practice 1 (guidance framework given but to include reference to tracking e.g. areas of most progress and areas where greater progress is required)
- Weekly meeting record of subject meetings
- Weekly meeting record of professional studies school-based sessions

For Professional Practice 2

- 5 lesson observations
- 1 end of Professional Practice 2 placement report
- For 1 observed lesson of the BT’s choice – plans, resources and evaluation for that lesson together with the lesson before and the lesson after
- 1000 word reflection of Professional Practice 1 (guidance framework given but to include reference to progress and areas for further improvement in induction year)
- Weekly meeting record of subject meetings
- Weekly meeting record of professional studies school-based sessions

This file will contain the documentary evidence towards the award of QTS and H level and will be examined by Institute Tutors in consultation with school-based colleagues.
Taking into consideration the immense influence that education has on one's personal development and its strategic meaning for the country, the issue of establishing an organized and professional development is crucial in the creating of the educational policy in the Republic of Macedonia. The call for meeting the European and world standards for compatibility, contemporary and competent educational policy, including the professional development of teachers determine the foundations of the new pedagogical concept. In this work there is an attempt to answer the question "Is Macedonia progressing according the requirements of the European pedagogical sphere with a tendency for structural and conceptual integrating?" based on diagnosing the state of affairs, analysis of the pedagogical processes, program-didactic visualizing, the current model of professional development and the equilibrium of the components of the teachers' competences, as well as other determinants.

The basis of this question which refers to teachers education, originates from many European and world initiatives such as: Declaration - education for all, Resolution for lifelong learning, Action plan for mobility, Bologna process, Resolution of the board and the Copenhagen's declaration for better European collaboration in the field of qualified education and training, Action plan for e-learning and in the effort of Eutydice and the international organizations UNESCO and OECD (National program for educational development in the Republic of Macedonia 2005-2015).

The basis of the analysis of the already mentioned determinants will come out of the program document in which accompanied documents are integrated and that is the National Program for educational development in the Republic of Macedonia 2005-2015. The final goal of this work is to popularize and affirm some public and institutional questions which as far as this they have received paradigmatic stereotypical observations. That in the same time means an answer to the following question in the following context "Till what extent the key intervention presented on the national program document correspond with the contemporary educational trends in Europe and what are the possibilities of practical implementation in the educational system in the Republic of Macedonia?"

Elaboration of the answers of the previous questions is expected and most of all, in front of the qualified public many questions to be discussed, dilemmas, recognition of positive trends, revision of current interventions in the educational policy which will lead the way to innovation and advancement of the current practice in the modeling of the professional development of the educational personnel in the Republic of Macedonia.

Key words: Professional development, conditions, trends, key interventions

Trends and conditions

While analyzing the structural concept of professional development of the educational
frame in the Republic of Macedonia a list of imperfections are detected: a lack of official policy regarding the educational development of teachers; individual initiatives; insufficient material resources for the schools and the teachers; formalization of the mentor system with the new educational frame; absence of standards and criteria for professional development and promotion; lack of initiatives for professional progress; undefined training system; lack of accreditation system; (Kevereski, L. 2007:327)

(National program for educational development in the Republic of Macedonia).

Eventually, that leads to actualization of the need of innovating and finding new institutional solutions which will be in accordance with the modern trends and tendencies in the other educational systems, especially in the European pedagogical system.

In order to present the professional development of the educational frame in Macedonia, separate segments which are part of the following integral components will be discussed. Through the following segments a comparison is made of what is considered to be a novel or a trend in this field: conditions and trends in the professional development; initial education and professional elaboration; key fields for intervention and conditions and criteria for career promotion.

Actually these segments, which constitute a functional totality, project the foundation of the current and the future or desirable system of the professional development of the educational frame. The way this model is conceptualized, we assume that the creators of this system are convinced in its compatibility with modern educational systems in other countries. In its analysis we start with the fundamental assumption that the professional development of the educational frame should be parallel to the dynamics in the change and needs in the educational sphere. The analysis of the conditions in the Republic of Macedonia, which are in function with the actual observations of the existent conditions in the professional development of the educational frame, as well as the theoretical and practical experience of the author, point to the fact that there is a certain inadequacy among the needs and the reforms. One can assume that this is a result of a certain obsolence of the pedagogical creations and tendencies in the educational field, as well as an insufficient innovation and practical applicability system in the professional elaboration in the educational frame. Because of this, in the beginning there was an obvious need of creating and establishing a new plan for the initial training system and the system for professional elaboration of the educational frame. (2005-2015) (National program for educational development in the Republic of Macedonia 2005-2015)

The statistics which refer to the dynamics of the educational frame in the Republic of Macedonia, show relative stability in relation with the total number of employees. Concerning the educational status in the elementary education there are 0.27% Masters of Art, 34, 65% with higher education, 59.74% with college education, and 5, 84% with high school education. If one takes into consideration that the rate of the educational frame in 1995/96 was 71.6, then it can be assumed that there is a significant improvement in the qualification structure of the educational frame. Referring to the educational level of the educational frame in the high school education, a relatively successful educational frame development has been achieved.

**Initial education and professional elaboration**

The initial education in the Republic of Macedonia as an initial preparation for teachers in primary and high school education is realized in different manners, depending of the institutional level. If we take into consideration the current placement of the initial education, the program-didactic physonomy of the initial education deserves special attention. The competency of this profession depends on the qualified and pedagogical basis. The ratio between these two
components in US and Japan is 1:3, France 2:1, Germany 2:3. In the Republic of Macedonia the pedagogical component is present roughly from 6 to 10% or with a ratio of 9:1. This means that the pedagogical education of teachers doesn't fulfil the terms and needs of this profession. Hence, this shows that the educational practice should be conceptualized in accordance with the existent pedagogical principles and laws of the educational process. Examples of the existent and future or desirable professional development of teachers in a comparative sense, show the following characteristics of the existing model: the model is founded on the concept of transmitting knowledge; training and education outside the classroom; assessment of teacher's work and development; the reforms are mainly planned and implemented through the ministry of education; the teacher interprets experience of other teachers; explores theories; elaboration is one's choice or recommendation; lack of collaboration among teachers.

**Key fields of intervention**

The key interventions which refer to the professional development of teachers are part of the defining process of goals of the European educational committee. In accordance with this the following questions are to be discussed and answered.

- Identification of skills that teachers and instructors should have;
- Proper climate and conditions that will provide an adequate support for teachers and instructors;
- Involvement of professional frames in other science fields in the educational process;
- In this context, a special accent (in the National program for educational development in Macedonia 2005-2015) is put on assessment and elaboration of the training program for teachers and instructors. In the process of defining the program for initial education, it is necessary to take into account the qualifications, the pedagogical competency, competency in the use of information technology in the educational process, organizational competency and team work ability, flexibility, open-mindness etc.

The key interventions in the process of professional development of teachers in the Republic of Macedonia are in accordance with current studies. For instance, a study examines how teachers in three countries variously construct the meaning of competition and cooperation in their professional practice and discourse (Ross, A., Fulop, M. and Kuscer, M. 2006:6) Studies have enriched the experience of finding ways to raise teacher’s development on the highest possible level.

**Terms and criteria for career progress**

In this summary context, which is part of the integral document, (National program for educational development in the Republic of Macedonia 2005-2015) the terms and criteria for career progress are defined. It refers to career development of the educational field and qualified experts in other fields. In the segment of career development of qualified experts the following categories are planned: pedagogue, psychologist, defectologist, and sociologist; eminent pedagogue, psychologist, defectologist, sociologist counsellor. In this part, the specific competencies of the already mentioned profiles are specified, the process of their promotion, conditions and terms, the process of assessment and other criteria.

**Conclusion**

The previously mentioned solutions which are in function of meeting the need of qualitative rising of the professional development of the educational field in the Republic of
Macedonia will increase the social sensibility for increasing the dignity of this profession. However, the author believes that the way this national concept for professional development of the educational frame is conceptualized, it meets the basic structural components and orientations of other educational systems. Once again, the required orientations and conditions are incited which increase the creativity of the national model in the Republic of Macedonia. They also refer to:

- Following the modern trends in building an organizational policy for teacher education;
- The changed role of teachers requires changes in the professional training of teachers;
- Reforms in the educational curriculum;
- Defining the teacher's profile;

  Teaching shouldn't be seen as a technique, but as a professional activity. The continuity of the professional development during one's career is of a great importance for establishing an innovative practice.

- Establishment of common frames of competency and qualifications;
- Overall, the new role of teachers should result in complete set of factors which come from the social and pedagogical reforms. The most important field of reforms in the teacher profile in the context of professional development of teachers are: promotion of new results from studying; reorganization of a classroom work (in the frame of the school, the surrounding area and social partners); integration of information technology in education in all fields of professional practice, increase of professionalism and individual responsibility for the professional development.

However, the author has a dilemma about the dynamics and intensity of the practical implementation of this model in the educational practice, which presents final goal of each conceptualized pedagogical concept.

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**Recent Developments in Teacher Education in Latvia**

Keywords: teacher education, 2 models in teacher education in Latvia, Bologna process

The paper deals with the current situation in teacher education in Latvia – it focuses on two main models in teacher education in Latvia after 1991 – the concurrent (integrated) and consecutive models. Recent theoretical and practical findings,
problems in teacher education will be presented as well as the implementation of the Bologna process in teacher education in Latvia will be discussed.

In 1991 Latvia regained its independence after 50 years of being drawn into the Soviet empire. At the end of the eighties and beginning of the nineties of the 20th century the Soviet empire collapsed and the former Eastern bloc countries one after the other declared their independence. These fundamental changes in the social political system brought about also essential changes in the educational systems of the former post-Soviet and Eastern bloc countries.

“The Soviet system of education including also university education was characteristic for a very strong regime with a steep hierarchic structure. All decisions were taken centrally in the Ministry of Education of the USSR and then transformed into detailed directions and regulations. The members of the education system were accustomed to follow these directions.” Bluma (2001, p.29)

The study curricula, including teacher education, in state universities and institutions of higher education were developed centrally during the Soviet times – the leading institution of higher education of the branch developed the curricula and then following the order from the Ministry of Higher Education of the Soviet Union these curricula had to be precisely implemented in all institutions of higher education belonging to that branch all over the Soviet Union. The exact implementation of the study curricula and developed plans was required and any deviation from the strictly regulated plans could lead to serious consequences. The situation was similar also in the general comprehensive schools – there were strictly regulated syllabi and many subjects were taught according to the same textbooks in all parts of the former Soviet Union (there were, however, some exceptions, like, the foreign language textbooks and, self-evidently, the textbooks of the mother tongue teaching). The teachers had to follow the didactic recommendations for using these textbooks in the teaching/learning processes in schools unreservedly. Therefore the collapse of the Soviet Union and the time of perestroika was also the beginning for serious changes in the educational systems which took several directions:

1. depolitization of education;
2. possibilities of choosing the type of education;
As O. Zids mentions the “Depolitization of education – the restoration of the
democracy principles in the political and social structures has stopped the former
strict ideological control over the contents of education and the teaching methods
which were used as an ideologically manipulated means of the young generation.”
Zids (2001, p.23)

A new framework Law on Education was adopted in 1991, providing, inter alia, for
autonomy of HEI (Higher Education Institutions), defining academic and professional
studies and a structure of academic degrees. During nineties there was an intensive
process of evaluating the Soviet educational system and a transition to a more open
and freer approach to educational issues. This time also marks Latvia’s joining the
European and world’s educational and education assessment processes. In 1991
Latvia started its participation in studies organized by IEA (International Association
for Evaluation of Educational Achievement) and in 1993 it was officially affiliated to
this organization, thus Latvia starts and rapidly develops the internationally
acknowledged education quality assessment system using the most updated methods
in the world and cooperating with the leading experts in this field from all European
Union, OECD countries and many other countries of the world. The TEMPUS
projects and the projects funded by Soros Foundation Latvia exerted a significant role
on the further education of Latvia’s educationalists and on their introduction to
modern education theories (Knēts 2007); the greatest contribution of the many
positively assessed projects was the involvement of teachers and university staff in
active study and cognitive process and the process of exchanging experience, as well
as special attention was paid to establishing institutional cooperation among European
universities and their counter-parts in the neighbouring countries. Thus Tempus
helped a wide range of very necessary tasks to be performed – not only to borrow
methodology and buy books and equipment to improve the teaching and learning
environment in Latvia but also to enter the reform process that was initiated in
Western Europe and is still on-going. Tempus program facilitated establishing and the
development of Academic Information Centre, and Higher Education Quality
Evaluation Centre, preparation of the Law on HEI (1995), Regulation on accreditation
(1996). In 1999 Latvia signed Bologna declaration with already quite familiar
structure of academic degrees and with a stable tradition of mobility of students and
lecturers (started in Tempus and expanded in Socrates.)
One of the first and most important TEMPUS projects in 1992 – 1995 was “Updating of Teacher Training and Educational Debate in Latvia”, in which there participated and collaborated 8 teacher training institutions of Latvia; Denmark’s Lerearhojskole, Odense, Denmark; Lund University (Sweden); University of the West of England (Great Britain). The current teacher education in Latvia and other countries participating in the project was analyzed within the framework of the project and the recommendations for updating teacher education along the recent developmental trends in Europe were developed.

The cooperation with the academic HEI staff and educationalists from Denmark, Sweden, Germany, Austria, Great Britain, etc. provided an especially important contribution to Latvia’s transition to a democratic and modern European level education, including the teacher education. Active discussions and workshops gave rise to new ideas, methods and theories which were adjusted and introduced in schools and HEI in Latvia, namely, critical thinking, cooperative learning, project work etc. and which now have become an indispensable part of the teaching/learning and higher education study process in Latvia.

The national Informatization and computerization program in the 90ies and the Latvian Education Informatization System (LIIS), as well as inclusion of the informatics as a separate subject in the curricula of general comprehensive schools and introduction of ICT courses in the study programs in higher education, and the application of ICT skills in teaching all subject at school and in delivering study programs at institutions of higher education also contributed greatly to Latvia’s way to the knowledge society A.Kangro, I.Kangro (2004).

The teacher education in the above mentioned period was subjected to critical evaluation and already in 90s of the 20th century considerable changes were implemented in teacher education because there was a transition from the strictly determined teacher education system of the Soviet times to the teacher education which is characteristic of a more open, freer and democratic society with the main emphasis on the development of the would-be teachers as a versatile and educated personality at the same time providing qualitative education in the subject (subjects) of specialization.

The teachers in the independent Latvia are educated in accordance with the two main models of teacher education: integrated / concurrent and consecutive (Busch, 2002,
Both the models correspond to the basic trends and requirements of modern teacher training which the communities of EU countries and the documents and institutions regulating teacher education put forward. The University of Latvia in compliance with the Senate decisions of the University of Latvia implements both the teacher education models; and the authors of the article hold the opinion that it is the integrated model of teacher education that has proved its sustainability and gives more substantial potential in the education of future teachers because the young people who have consciously made up their made to become teachers start their studies in the integrated program in which during all their studies and starting with the first year they are ensured a close and continuous link with their former and/or next working place – the school, through the observation practice and through the active teaching practice. “The advantage of the integrated model is the fact that it puts forward a single aim for the entire four to five year period of study, which is the opportunity to acquire the competences needed by today’s teacher. Such an aim secures a unity of purpose between the different study components – the scientific basis of knowledge of the subject (or subjects), teaching methodology, pedagogical and psychological studies, repeated teaching practice in schools, beginning with the earliest courses and other study components.” A. Kangro (2004) The studies in the integrated model are organized in an interdisciplinary mode thus providing students an opportunity to master both the subjects of pedagogy and psychology cycle and closely linking the acquisition of these subjects with the specifics of teaching methods (didactics) of the particular subjects the student has chosen as his/her specialization and the teacher of which he/she wants to become. In its turn, the subjects to be taught and the academic spheres on which they are based, are mastered from the point of view of the future profession, for instance, the education of the would-be teachers of English and German is not directed towards the broad academic philological studies but more to the acquisition of the basics of those branches of science which will be necessary in their everyday teaching work – thus, students do not acquire classic philological disciplines and their education focuses on acquiring the applied linguistics, intensive mastering of the teaching/learning methods and their analysis (like, peer teaching, etc.) as well as on observation and integration of the active teaching practice in the whole process of studies.
After the studies in the integrated model and in accordance with the effective legislation in Latvia the student is awarded the professional bachelor's degree in education sciences and the qualification of the teacher of the specific subject (subjects) – (160 credit points, 4 years of studies).

After the studies in the consecutive model the student first is awarded the bachelor’s degree in the specific branch of science (usually 120 credit points, 3 years of studies) and then the student has a possibility to continue his/her studies in the professional program (40 – 60 – 80 credit points, a year, a year and a half, two years); the student masters the subjects of pedagogy and psychology cycle, the methods of teaching the specific subject, does the teaching practice and receives the teacher’s qualification of the respective subject.

The latest trend in Latvia is that in the second cycle of studies after the consecutive model the student is also awarded the master’s degree in educational sciences. The length of these programs is half a year or a year longer if compared with the professional programs. Thus the total length of studies in the consecutive model to obtain the teacher’s qualification and master’s degree in educational sciences is at least 5 – 5.5 years.

At present Latvia is more increasingly facing the problem of teachers’ shortage because the young people unwillingly choose the teacher’s profession due to different reasons: the relatively low remuneration and insufficient prestige just being two most important. The teachers of Latvia have expressed their dissatisfaction with the current situation by organizing strikes and causing sweeping debates in the society.

The Ministry of Education and Science has not completed putting in order the data of Teachers’ registry and thus it is difficult to tell precisely how many and which subject teachers are need to fill the vacancies. The biggest shortage concerns the teachers of sciences (physics, chemistry) mathematics, informatics and foreign languages.

Despite the unstable situation and the dissatisfaction of teachers it should be stressed that many teachers continue working in the chosen profession.

Some worries are caused also by the fact that in Latvia these are not the pupils with highest academic achievements who want to become teachers in future but just on the contrary the pupils with average success. That contradicts the trends which are observed in the countries with most qualitative educational systems, for instance, Finland, Honk Kong, South Korea, etc.; some 5 -10% of pupils with highest academic
achievement in the mentioned countries want to become teachers despite the fact of going through entrance examinations and stiff competition 1:10 (McKinsey). “The quality of an educational system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers”. The conclusions drawn in this study should be taken into account when developing the vision of how the education system of Latvia will develop in future.

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The Task of Raising Social Capital and Educational Outcomes in Highly Disadvantaged Communities in Poland and England: School Leadership Teacher Education Implications

By Joanna Michalak and Steve Jones

Introduction

This paper provides an overview of major pertinent issues in the comparative context of Poland and England concerning the task of school leadership in highly disadvantaged communities and pointing towards possible Teacher Education (TE) issues, building where possible on our previous school leadership research. This area of study is recognised by policy-makers and practitioners alike as a crucial one. School success in these circumstances necessarily involves the provision of a school environment capable of lifting-up poor communities in inner cities, with implications for TE and policymaking.

This overview paper is part of the initial issue formulation stage of a joint research project between the universities of Lodz (Poland) and Sheffield Hallam (UK). The four working research questions at this stage are:

1. What is perceived to be successful school leadership practice in highly disadvantaged contexts?
2. How do school leaders view the school's role in raising the social capital and educational outcomes of their local communities?
3. What comparative policy and practice implications arise?
4. What TE strategies need to be put in place?

The research will employ mainstream qualitative methods within a case study design to facilitate comparative results between two communities (one in Poland, the other in England). It is envisaged that the study will examine situations where there is perceived school success in raising their performance in challenging circumstances, through "joined-up" efforts across agencies, schools and local communities. We take the view that school leadership/improvement and the building of the social capital of a school's community are potentially reinforcing of each other and we aim to develop theory, policy and practice in this crucial area of working.

Finally, we intend to disseminate research outcomes amongst practitioners in both countries and in an international context, partly to aid the development of school leadership initiatives through TE opportunities. This process of dissemination, particularly with practitioners, will potentially build on the broad areas for TE activity outlined in this paper, and developed during the course of the research project.

The paper initially provides a summary overview of the nature of highly disadvantaged communities and the challenges faced by school leaders
working in these types of communities. Major policy and practice issues impacting on schools and their communities in Poland and England in these highly disadvantaged contexts are then examined. An overview is then given of the potential relevance of the term social capital for professionals seeking to raise educational outcomes in these contexts, and for their school practice. Finally, broad TE and policy implications are examined, with possible ways forward suggested.

**The nature of highly disadvantaged communities and the challenges faced by school leaders**

In both Poland and England, the issues of poverty and social exclusion are major ones. In highly disadvantaged communities, the everyday experience of local people is typically of poor health, housing, local facilities, environment, access to public transport and of underperformance educationally. These challenges taken together represent a considerable and daunting task, particularly for schools and their leaders.

Highly disadvantaged communities are by their nature "different" in the sense that social conditions in these neighbourhoods are of a different order from much of the rest of society. Poverty and deprivation tend to set a context of hopelessness and anger that are difficult for schools to grapple with and turn around. This applies to the task of all agencies seeking to address issues and problems in such communities. Schools providing an effective and uplifting experience in these settings are truly achieving "against the odds". Particularly, schools face major barriers to engendering positive attitudes to learning and the process of education generally.

High ideals of moral strength for school leaders are a requirement in these circumstances and great realism is also required to apply these effectively. Schools in these situations often have to grapple with inadequate resources, and leaders may face resistant cultures inside and outside school, challenging behaviour of pupils, as well as obligations and imperatives imposed externally. Clearly, though, leaders have an important role in addressing huge challenges faced by schools in highly disadvantaged circumstances and schools themselves have a potentially pivotal role in assisting community development in extremely poor areas.

The reality for the future of inner city school leadership is likely to be one of working in a partnership context. This is increasingly likely to involve working with local stakeholders, other agencies, with neighbouring schools, and sometimes through specific regeneration structures involving schools as partners. The task is a major challenge in the context of a more individualistic environment, where trust in institutions is harder to engender. This is particularly the case in poorer communities, where both perceptions
and personal experience tend towards negativity, anger and cynicism that are extremely hard to break down. So, encouraging participation and cooperation from sceptical local people, let alone the fostering of inspiration and aspiration are likely to be extremely difficult for everyone associated with the educational task.

However, in spite of these difficulties, failure to effect change in these circumstances means that inequality and underachievement of individual children persist in a highly negative way, not only for those individuals and their families but for society as a whole. So the issue of how to foster school improvement and community development in highly disadvantaged communities is a pressing one, raising as it does major issues for everyone associated with this area of work, including policy-makers.

**Major policy and practice issues impacting on schools and their leaders in Poland and England**

**Poland**

The period of political transformation, started in Poland in 1989, has brought about new legislation, which has become the basis for changes in education. From the former communist regime, a more open educational system is being built and its core curriculum has been developed. Now the Polish school system is distinctly decentralised. The state is constrained to providing guidelines and creating a basic framework for schooling. Each school is administered locally and possesses a high degree of autonomy. Each school has a high degree of control over its own decisions and destiny. The basis for this is the conviction that a market approach will lead to greater efficiency and higher standards. Therefore, school leaders are sometimes torn between their educational tasks and economic pressures, between the local school council, the staff and different groups of interest within the community. Market orientation also characterised the training and development opportunities for school leaders. The provision of school leader training and development is driven by this market, which is characterised by diversity and choice. There is a wide range of providers (universities, advisory boards, professional associations, independent training organisations) and programmes, which differ in content and methods as well as quality but they are mainly focused on administration and management not on leadership. As to the development of school leaders, the state does not interfere at all. The school leader, particularly the ‘Principal’, is seen as the director of a public institution. The work emphasis has traditionally been on administrative tasks.

In the last few years, the scope of site-based educational responsibility has been enlarged, bringing with it new tasks for school leaders: the school leadership in highly disadvantaged communities has been started to be treated as a key feature in enrichment of a school environment capable of
lifting-up poor communities in inner cities. Tackling poverty and social exclusion continue to be an important challenge facing Poland particularly with regard to children in deprived areas.

Poverty as a social problem emerged when market economy rules were implemented at the beginning of the 1990s. Poverty increased steadily to 1994, then stabilized but since 1998 a new wave of poverty has been observed. The rise in poverty is evident in recent years and no matter which poverty line is taken into account an increase is visible. According to Joint Commission/Council Report on Social Protection and Social Inclusion, publication on 22nd February 2007, not one European Union country has a poverty rate as high as Poland. In particular data about the children situation is alarming. In Poland 29% of children are at risk of poverty, whereas across the EU at risk of poverty are 19% of children.

Low income and unemployment, especially long-term unemployment, are considered the most important factors leading to poverty and social exclusion in Poland. Other important factors leading to poverty are: low qualifications and early school leaving, family break-ups, living in multi-child families, weak health, disability, alcoholism, and living in a disadvantaged area. If these risk factors interact and accumulate over time they may result in a cycle of poverty and inter-generational transmission of poverty.

The issue of intergenerational inheritance of inequalities has been neglected in political and scientific discourse for several decades in Poland. It was assumed that public education is a remedy for limited social mobility among people coming from low status families. In a course of 90s comparative studies on poverty revealed that it is children and youth who suffer mostly from poverty in Polish society. The reasons for that are manifold, as it was above mentioned, but changes in employment patterns, family structure, social welfare and education seem to be of particular importance. The cumulative effect of discouraging family and non-supportive school are the most likely factors leading individuals to stay in poverty and follow their parents' life course. While social policy is not perceived by young adults as a factor impacting on their life course, the survey data reveal that policies can contribute to upward mobility of underprivileged young people (Warzywoda-Kruszynska, Rokicka, Rek, Wozniak, 2006). Therefore, a major challenge for Poland is tackling the number of children living in poverty to prevent them from exclusion in the future. Good education, education for all children, is one of the best ways for meeting this need.

England
The approach of the present government has been to concentrate on raising school standards through “challenging” and “supporting” educationists. At the same time, inner city schools have received particular additional attention, not only through in-school measures but through broader projects targeted at “transformation” of the communities in which these schools are located. In the view of many critical writers and ourselves, it is highly questionable whether these “transformational” measures are sufficient to make the necessary and sustained improvements to these inner city communities that can start to feed back into substantially increased educational outcomes. Also, these initiatives have often failed to join up efforts in an effective way, particularly as far as schools are concerned. Nevertheless, we also tend to the view that a great deal can be done at a local level by all concerned to affect the life chances of young people and their families in these highly disadvantaged contexts.

Retaining many of the market reforms of the previous and long-standing Conservative government, the 1997 Labour administration set about injecting “shock” into the school system. They proclaimed that poverty was no excuse for educational failure (Byers, 1997), and set ambitious targets for the raising of achievement, in national test scores, to arrest the perceived “flatlining” of educational outcomes. The threat of closure was introduced for schools defined as “failing” and new demands were made of teachers through performance appraisal linked to pay. Schools were subject to regular and rigorous inspection, with perceived inner city school failure being laid firmly at the door of headteachers and their colleagues (Ofsted 1998). This process was seen by the new government as key to restoring national economic competitiveness.

On the other side of the policy equation, new sources of “support” were provided, along the lines suggested by Barber and Dann (1996), with Michael Barber then becoming adviser to the Secretary of State. These included: increased funding for schools; an ambitious school building programme to overcome years of underinvestment; various programmes of curriculum innovation and support targeted at inner city schools; large additional numbers of support staff to provide support to children with specific difficulties; and new partnership initiatives at the local level with other service providers. More recent policy innovations have included the setting-up of Children's Services, replacing previous local education authorities (LEAs), so that schools link more effectively with workers providing care services for children and families. There have also been moves towards greater school diversity at secondary level and of parental choice.
The potential relevance of the term social capital to the raising of educational outcomes in highly disadvantaged contexts, and some possible consequences for school practice

Issues of social capital and education

There are a number of approaches to the defining of social capital. For Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992:119), social capital is primarily a set of resources accrued by individuals to gain an advantage in society, facilitated through "possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition" (ibid). Putnam (1993:173) emphasises social capital's role as a force for society's benefit, having at its core "trust, norms and networks", which can facilitate "coordinated actions". Baron, Field and Schuller (2000:1) underline its importance as a means of people using collective action "for achieving mutual goals" by using "social networks" and "the reciprocities that arise from them". These various definitions all emphasise the potential for social capital as a force for enhancing individuals and collective life chances in a range of ways.

Beyond these specific definitions with differing emphases, a differentiated conception of the term has been developed by a number of writers. Firstly, "bonding" social capital is based around close relationships of friends and family, tending to reinforce exclusive identities and homogeneous groups. Secondly, "bridging" social capital links people to others who are beyond their immediate circle of close relationships, to extend horizons. Thirdly, Woolcock (2001:13) points to the vertical dimension of "linking" social capital, allowing for people to "leverage resources, ideas and information from contacts outside their own social milieu" (Field, 2003:66). Beyond these three functional elements, the term potentially works at three types of level: micro- (individual and group), meso- (community), and macro- (nation or wider).

This paper adopts a definition of social capital which is fairly broad to capture its full potential range. This recognises its relevance to the engagement of community bodies and activities encompassing voluntary associations, sports and leisure groups (largely "bridging"). It also involves networks and relationships arising from kinship and neighbourhood (mainly "bonding"). Some writers have suggested that trust is a feature of social capital. The current assumption is that while trust may assist the operation of successful networks and is closely related to social capital, it is probably best treated as an independent factor, which is a consequence rather than a component of social capital.

Schools have a major role to play in fostering social capital and helping to combat disadvantage in inner city contexts. Educational underachievement is a key component to disadvantage. High levels of
disadvantage comprise a number of factors, as Halpern (2005:142) points out. These range from “parental education, to cultural capital and, of course, financial resources”. Conversely, education can be a means of creating social capital and tackling disadvantage (Halpern 2005:143). Not only can individuals with higher educational attainment have greater civic or voluntary engagement and larger and more diverse social networks, but schools themselves can have a major impact on young people's social networks and skills (McNeal, 1999; Langbein and Bess, 2002), so that “these networks and skills prove to be a resilient and transferable form of social capital” (Halpern 2005:164). In addition, the skills gained through the educational process can foster engagement and networking that can feed through into such activities as volunteering and in the encouragement of tolerance.

If education and schools are central to the development of social capital, then social capital can also assist the educational process in return. Social capital is crucial to educational success on a range of fronts. The benefits also extend beyond education to outcomes in economic growth, health, crime, and the democratic life of the wider society (Halpern 2005; Field 2005). One of the crucial relationships in assisting children to achieve educationally is that between home and school. When parents are involved in their children's education at home and at school this can assist those young people to achieve better outcomes, as well as adding qualitatively to the school itself (OECD, 2001). Relationships with attentive adults generally assist young people to develop emotional and social control that can assist in their positive educational development (Halpern, 2005:144). Part of the process for maximising relationships with significant adults and the raising of educational outcomes involves their having higher expectations of young people (Weiner, 1979). In addition, both parent-teacher relationships and child-teacher relationships can also contribute to higher educational achievement by young people.

Inside the school, networks between teachers and effective links between school leaders and other staff are important to educational outcomes. As Hargreaves (2001:5-6) explains, "in a school rich in social capital, the high levels of trust generate a collaborative culture and strong networks among the organisation's members and stakeholders. High levels of social capital in a school strengthen its intellectual capital". Moreover, collaboration on learning and general mutual support amongst staff can enable professionals to take risks (Wolf et al, 2000). Staff collaboration of this kind can involve both "bonding" social capital within the group, and also "bridging" activities beyond the school.

More generally, community norms upon parents and pupils can help young people achieve positive educational outcomes. These norms, of a multiple, dense and mutually reinforcing nature, can possibly help poor communities to overcome the effects of disadvantage. Such closely knit communities
with strongly shared norms can help to promote the value of skills, knowledge and qualifications amongst school students. In addition, Stanton-Salazar and Dornbusch (1995) point to the importance of "bridging" social capital in asserting that it is the range and number of weak ties that can contribute most effectively to student achievement in disadvantaged contexts. So, social capital can potentially operate in a number of ways to help young people in inner city contexts to gain from their educational experience.

Without doubt, disadvantaged communities struggle when it comes to the possession of various forms of capital, particularly economic capital. For Li et al (2002:519) those without adequate economic resources, education and service-class friends tend also to be deprived of access to social capital. More advantaged groups tend to have significantly wider and more varied networks capable of providing economic and professional advancement. However, a number of writers regard social capital as a resource for disadvantaged communities and individuals capable of providing a way out of the vicious circle represented by poverty. As pointed out above, educational input is a potentially powerful source of social capital in itself. Various forms of intervention to assist the educational progress of otherwise disadvantaged students (eg mentoring) may also provide a way of overcoming the potentially devastating effects of context.

The massive difficulties for individuals in disadvantaged communities can be addressed relatively positively by regarding social capital as a potential counterweight to economic and social disadvantage. In this vein, Lauglo (2000) emphasises social capital's potential to "trump" the disadvantages of social class and weak cultural capital. Providing access to networks of a "bridging" and "linking" nature through various means has the potential in a more fluid twenty-first century society of helping disadvantaged individuals overcome the sometimes crushing lack of opportunities in inner city contexts. This optimistic view of the potential of social capital and education to help overcome some of the massive difficulties faced by poor communities provides a possible way forward in these tough circumstances. It also possibly provides some way for school leaders to envisage their task as educators and optimistically to underpin the hopes and aspirations of pupils and their families in inner city contexts.

**Social Capital’s potential relevance for schools and their leaders**

The role of school leaders has been characterised above as an essentially networked one in the twenty-first century situation. Outcomes from Steve Jones’ recent research in England suggest a networked model of school leadership may be of wider relevance for highly disadvantaged contexts (Jones, 2007). Of particular importance to the building of social capital in poor communities, are the following aspects of successful school leadership:

- Encouragement of co-operative working between families of schools;
• Development of shared values;
• Encouragement of school success;
• Fostering of high-quality teaching and learning;
• Building trust and putting the school at the heart of the community;
• Making a difference to the school’s context and environment; and
• Maximising local community input and parental involvement.

Many of these issues are picked-up and broadly developed below.

In the previous section, the massive task of overcoming disadvantage for pupils in inner city schools has been related to issues of networking and establishing linkages that give access to resources needed by communities and individuals. Educational input is viewed as a crucial element in the building of social capital, and social capital is a potential resource in the educational task at a range of levels involving “bonding”, “bridging”, and “linking” forms of networking. Crucially, a number of writers, including ourselves, regard social capital and educational improvement as important means whereby highly disadvantaged communities can be lifted out of poverty and given hope for the future.

The concept of social capital has potential relevance in the following broad areas:

**In the school situation**

Many writers emphasise the social nature of knowledge creation, for which good relationships are deemed to be essential. Fullan (2001), for instance, argues that positive relationships must be the foundation for engendering such “good things” as: enhanced student performance, increased teacher capacity, greater involvement of parents, engagement of students and higher levels of enthusiasm for the learning process, together with increased levels of pride (ibid:10). Similarly, Wrigley (2000) emphasises the relationships side of the school leadership task when it comes to encouraging positive staff-student relationships, since “effective schools listen(ed) to and learn(t) from students and their parents” (p.27). At the same time, collaborative cultures need to be encouraged amongst staff (Hopkins, 2001; Louis and Miles, 1990). For Hopkins, “active democracy” involving participation at levels of staff in a school is a very important way to promote a quality classroom experience for pupils. Leadership, too, requires sharing not only at management level but at all levels in the school.

So, the creation of effective networks and associations between members of staff, “collegial” ways of working, and positive relationships of a productive nature throughout the school community can possibly reap major dividends in terms of learning outcomes in highly disadvantaged communities. To this end, the practice of staff working together (eg in small
working groups) can increase people’s sense of belonging and of collective endeavour, leading to less overall stress, isolation and alienation. Also staff working together to set clear goals for student learning, assessment of student progress and the development of student action plans, can help to increase collective inquiry and problem-solving.

Building effective relationships between schools locally is a potentially important school leadership task. A cooperative arrangement between schools can provide greater use of specialist teachers, potentially deploy staff more effectively to aid the inclusion process, assist with issues of transition, and assist the tracking of individual pupil progress to provide more effective intervention strategies. Ansell (2004) suggests that schools should act in federations, particularly in disadvantaged areas. These can be fairly formal or substantially less so. More structured federations can share resources, staff, leadership and curriculum arrangements. This cooperative structure can not only help to counter the effects a market system (as in England), but can build school capacity through the sharing of knowledge. Cooperative arrangements of this kind arguably require strong leadership, together with a major will by staff to work effectively together.

Beyond the school situation

The adoption of a more networked way of working by school leaders can help put schools at the heart of the local community to effect positive change for people in the locality. Harris and Chapman (2002), for instance, stress the importance of school leaders generating positive relationships with parents and fostering a view of the school as central rather than aloof from the community. Leadership can involve acting with others and enabling others to act. This networked approach aims for an interconnectedness of home, school and community to assist young people to maximise their education. Further, leaders actively need to establish dialogue with parents and to connect with formal and informal community leaders (ibid:11). To enable this to happen, leaders should aim for a situation where staff, students and parents have more opportunities to engage effectively with each other.

Schools can be encouraged to act at the centre of effective networks, alongside local agencies, groups of workers providing support to families, and active community organisations. This process of building bridges with the outside community means that a school is more likely to gain support and loyalty from them in difficult times. Schools in highly disadvantaged contexts are likely to be fragile at times and therefore a strong relationship with local people and organisations can be invaluable when the going gets tough. The school can play its part in involving and helping to develop a range of individuals and organisations locally. The general
approach can usefully be one of assiduously developing relationships and aiming for a distribution of leadership both inside and outside the school.

Furthering the social development and regeneration of the local community can also impact positively back upon the success of the school in its educational task. As we have seen, the social capital of a community in a family of schools can potentially have an important effect on children’s educational achievement. Policies that appear to have little to do with education (e.g., community development and the building of “healthy alliances”) may contribute indirectly to the raising of educational attainment. Part of this building of social capital can be provided by providing opportunities for learning beyond the compulsory school age (Mortimore and Whitty, 1997). Drawing more people into the community of learning is central to economic prosperity and can possibly tackle social exclusion. At the same time, the scourge of child poverty needs to be tackled to help reduce the considerable barriers to learning that high levels of disadvantage throw up. To this end, it may be that a combination of activities at local level can assist: better co-ordination of effort by different agencies, better early intervention for children and families linked to higher spending, better targeting of help for pupils with specific difficulties, and ongoing transformation of teaching and learning in schools.

Possible TE Implications

Many writers are deeply critical not only of the current organisation of schooling in capitalist, “neo-liberal” countries such as the US and England, but are particularly concerned that twenty-first century schools should promote social justice and a problematising approach to learning amongst school staff. Not only should TE provide an opportunity for novice and practising teachers to examine issues of power and control in capitalist society, but also issues of commodification in schools, the effects of globalisation on local communities, the need to challenge patterns of oppression in society, and a recognition of the role of discourses in the education service (Cole, 2006). We tend to agree with these concerns, particularly as they relate to school leaders and their staff having the tools to challenge “top-down” policy agendas, teachers being enabled to work in a problem-solving and collegial manner, staff being empowered to challenge orthodoxies to develop new curriculum and pedagogical approaches, and where schools need to help highly disadvantaged communities advance to reach their full potential.

None of these are straightforward issues, particularly in inner city contexts. As has been pointed out, the task of school leaders in inner city communities is fraught with challenges, of lack of aspiration locally and disbelief often borne of generations of inequality, grinding poverty, and relative underachievement. But we have captured the task possibly as one where through maximising social capital locally and advancing
educational outcomes professionals can begin to make progress in these tough circumstances. This approach needs to be reflected in national and international programmes of support for teachers, as well as in teacher formation programmes.

Specific areas for further development are likely to include the following:

- Funded training opportunities linked to specific inner city projects
- Specific support for school leaders and managers, linked to issues of highly disadvantaged communities, networked ways of working and inclusive educational provision
- Greater research capacity as well as training and consultancy assistance for school leaders
- The systematic development of leadership networks, particularly for those working in poor contexts
- Development programmes to assist teaching and learning
- Peer support programmes to develop sharing of expertise and knowledge and to encourage collegial working as the norm
- Proactive programmes of recruitment and support for beginning teachers and those entering inner city environments, to aid teacher retention and maximise teacher quality in tough environments
- A support programme for helping support staff to move into teaching, particularly those from highly disadvantaged and ethnic minority backgrounds
- Programmes to develop and assist putting values and principles at the heart of school working
- Encouragement of cooperative working between schools
- Sharing locally of successful programmes of school engagement with their surrounding communities.

**Conclusion and possible ways forward**

This issue formulation paper has outlined the scale of the school leadership task in highly disadvantaged communities but in a positive context. Yes, the task is a daunting one with huge challenges, but we have argued that much can be done to replicate successful practice more widely. We have captured the task as one where schools need to reach out to their surrounding communities to maximise the educational opportunities of those they serve but also to regard their role as being to help develop the social capital of the locality. To enable this to happen, a range of possible policy and TE actions need to be put in place to make some widespread advances. Some of the policy challenges have already been spelt out, but they include:

- Targeting of funding at inner city programmes to address the poverty of these areas, by raising their social capital across-the-board;
- Encouraging schools and their leaders to create effective networks internally to maximise the quality of teaching and learning for pupils;
• School to recognise the importance of staff-pupil links and links with parents and the surrounding community;
• Greater early intervention, and programmes of lifelong learning to help develop social capital at the local level;
• A recognition of the need for more “joined-up” working between schools, agencies and organisations, to provide the best level of support for the development of local social capital;
• Greater widening of decision-making regarding schools and their future direction to encompass pupils, parents and the wider community; and
• An encouragement for schools to work cooperatively (either loosely or more formally).

So, these issues have been raised to promote debate and as a basis for our further research work involving successful school practitioners working in tough circumstances. The task facing school leaders, policymakers and providers of TE to effect major changes in highly disadvantaged contexts is an urgent one. Far too many young people and their families are failed in a way that is unacceptable and wasteful of talent that should be harnessed for the benefit of society as a whole. Even though the task is a major one with issues of social justice at its heart, nevertheless we approach it with optimism. Where very positive practice points a possible way forward we feel that research can help in affecting practice in this important area of work.

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References


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TITLE: Professional Development of Educationalists in the Perspective of European Lifelong Learning Programmes 2007 – 2013

ABSTRACT: The paper researches professional development of educationalists in European Lifelong Learning Programmes 2007 – 2013. The paper argues that international activities in the European Programmes provide opportunities and challenges for educationalists to build their professional identities outside the context of their educational institutions. In the first section of the paper, two current theories of education, teachers’ democratic professionalism and expansive learning, are researched to support the argument of opportunities and challenges of educationalists’ professional development in international activities. Furthermore, a theoretical framework of communities of practice is researched to explain how learning and professional development takes place in international programmes. In the second section of the paper, competences and learning outcomes that international activities may develop are studied to understand what the nature of professional learning is by educationalists in international activities. Finally, the paper argues that competences acquired by educationalists as informal learning outcomes in international activities, e.g. intercultural competences, could be validated and recognised as formal learning and as part of teacher qualifications in national qualification systems. Recognition of professional development of educationalists in international activities could promote professional career development possibilities and improve the attractiveness of education professions. It could also promote a wider participation of educationalists in international activities and improved integration of EU Lifelong Learning Programmes in the national education systems of the Member States in 2007 – 2013.

KEY WORDS: educationalists’ professional development, international activities, international communities of practice, intercultural competences, recognition of international professional development
1. INTRODUCTION

The paper researches the perspectives of educationalists’ professional development in Lifelong Learning Programmes of the European Union (EU) in 2007 - 2013. The paper studies, on one hand, the opportunities of professional development that international activities in Lifelong Learning Programmes offer for educationalists. On the other hand, the paper studies the challenges that are related to professional development of educationalists in supra-national initiatives, like the EU Lifelong Learning Programmes. The concept of educationalist is used in the paper to refer to professionals working in the education sector: e.g. policy-makers, school directors, principals, teachers, trainers etc. The concept of international activity refers to any activities, e.g. project management, administration, mobility, within the European Lifelong Learning Programmes. The outset for the paper is my professional and personal experiences and observations when working as Project Manager in European Programmes in Finland at national level and at European Community level.

Never before have educationalists had so many possibilities of international co-operation globally as today in the 21st Century. Educationalists have a possibility to interact with their colleagues in different education contexts across different countries and cultures. Educationalists may learn from each other, exchange on their professional practices and build knowledge on their profession globally. These possibilities have become available as a result of globalisation and the development of information and communication technology (ICT), which enables fast and easy exchange of information and communication. Globalisation defined as rapid acceleration of cross-border movements of capital, goods, labour, services and information as a result of cheap energy and transportation, trade liberalisation and the development of ICT has impacted all fields of life including education (Green, 2002). However, the impact of globalisation in education has also caused challenges to educationalists. Today educationalists need to adapt to many transformations in education and they are expected continuously develop their professionalism.

Since the late 20th Century in Europe, the EU has created a further external force impacting education in the Member States through the European open method of co-ordination. The method implies that each Member State of the EU is fully responsible for the organisation of its education and training systems and the content of teaching.
However, the role of the EU is to contribute to the development of quality in education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action. The EU aims specifically to develop the European dimension in education, to stimulate mobility and promote cooperation between European schools and universities, to develop the exchange of information on issues common to education systems in the Member States, to encourage the development of distance education and finally to stimulate cooperation with non-EU countries and international organisations. As a result, the educational policies of the Member States are steered towards common goals of the European policies of education.

In Finland, EU membership since 1995 allows practitioners in education to join in European programmes, and the same applies to the rest of the 26 European Member States. At the beginning of the year 2007 a new Lifelong Learning Programme for the period of 2007 – 2013 was launched by the European Commission. The programme comprises four sectoral programmes; Comenius for school education, Erasmus for higher education, Leonardo da Vinci for vocational training and Grundtvig for adult education. In addition, there are transversal programmes focusing on policy cooperation, languages, ICT and dissemination and exploitation of results at the European level. The financial support to implement the Lifelong Learning Programme for the period is about € 7,000 million. The Commission’s quantified targets of the programmes are e.g. for Comenius to involve at least three million pupils in joint educational activities, for Erasmus to have supported a total of three million individual participants in student mobility by 2012, for Leonardo da Vinci to increase placements in enterprises to 80,000 per year by the end of the programme and for Grundtvig to support the mobility of 7,000 individuals involved in adult education per year by 2013\(^1\). The scale of the Lifelong Learning Programme indicates that although the national governments in the Member States are responsible for their education systems, the European programmes aim to steer the education development in the Members States towards common European goals to become a world quality reference. This aim is achieved through fostering interaction, cooperation and mobility between education and training systems within the European community. The quality of European education is promoted through peer-learning, benchmarking and exchanging on best practices in international activities as cross-border student

\(^1\) [http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/newprog/index_en.html](http://ec.europa.eu/education/programmes/newprog/index_en.html)
exchanges, international joint activities and placements. Although the students are the main beneficiaries of the programmes, educationalists have a central role in mobilising the programmes by initiating, planning, implementing and monitoring the activities in local education contexts.

On the other hand, participation in international activities in EU programmes implies also receiving teachers and students from other countries to study or work in local educational contexts. As a result, educationalists who may not have initiated the activities may become involuntarily involved. In such cases the need for professional development may be imposed and can be perceived as a threat by educationalists, who lack the necessary skills in the activities. Furthermore, as a result of globalisation and the cross-border mobilisation of people, local communities are becoming more multi-cultural. Therefore, educationalists need to work with students from different cultures and countries of the global village, which also sets new demands for educationalists’ professional development in internationalisation. Furthermore, ICT is developing as an integral part of mainstream education and is integrated also in the European Lifelong Learning Programmes. For example eTwinning, an initiative started in September 2004 under the EU transversal programme to promote collaborative ICT-projects in education across Europe, illustrates the impact a European initiative of ICT may have on school work at the local level in the Member States. eTwinning\(^2\) has grown rapidly in participation with more than 20,000 schools registered in ICT-enabled collaborative activities with other schools in other European countries in 2007.

International activities in educational organisations as a result of globalisation and the policies of supra-national bodies like the EU, create possibilities and challenges for educationalists’ professional development as new knowledge, skills and competences are required in the changed working environment. The focus of the paper is on international activities within the European Lifelong Learning Programmes, as globalisation is a too broad an issue to be researched in the scope of the paper. The aim of the paper is to contribute to the research by bringing new knowledge about professional development in international activities in the framework of European Lifelong Learning Programmes in education in the 21\(^{st}\) Century. The research questions of the paper are: What are the possibilities for

educationalists’ professional development in the international activities of the EU Lifelong Learning Programmes in the Member States? What are the challenges? What kind of professional development can educationalists acquire in international activities of education? Can informal learning acquired in international activities be recognised as learning outcomes and professional development?

In the following section, current theories of professionalism in education are researched to conceptualise the possibilities and challenges of professional development of educationalists in international activities.

2. DEMOCRATIC PROFESSIONALISM AND INTERNATIONALISATION

As discussed earlier, a number of fundamental transformations are underway which have an impact on education in modern societies. On one hand, the growth of a globalised world economy and the supra-national body of the EU in Europe transform the education policies and systems of national governments. The fundamental transformations are realised in the daily activities of educational organisations and ultimately have consequences on personal and professional life styles of individual educationalists. The most critical transformation, however, is the demand for professional development, as globalisation has the greatest impact on the demand for skills and qualifications (Green, 2002). Therefore, there is also a demand for educationalists’ professional development today in the sector of education.

On the other hand, the current social research has identified the emergence of a new individualism in which people are compelled to define themselves and adapt to the multiple changes caused by fundamental transformations in societies (Giddens, 1991). According to Halpin, a key aspect of the process of new individualism for teachers is the search for a teacher-professional identity that shapes them as teachers and which helps them come to terms with and live and work purposively within modern society (Halpin, 2005). Halpin argues that in seeking the teacher-professional identity, the teachers wish to navigate a professional course that is significantly of their own making. Therefore, the paper argues that educationalists may find international activities as opportunities, where they can build their new professional identities, acquire new knowledge, skills and competences and develop professionalism, which helps them to adapt to transformations in education.
Furthermore, the theory of teachers' democratic professionalism helps to conceptualise educationalists' professional development in international activities (Whitty, 2000). According to Whitty, teachers' democratic professionalism is the next reformation of professionalism in which teachers' professional expertise is harnessed to a new democratic project for the 21st Century, requiring new collectivist forms of association within and beyond the education context (Whitty, 2000). As a result, educationalists may see international activities as ways of associating beyond their education contexts in cross-border activities. In this paper the concept of cross-border activities is interpreted as crossing the borders of educational organisation and crossing the national borders of a country. New collectivist forms of association in international activities enable educationalists from different cultures and countries to build new professional identities and professionalism beyond their educational context. To sum up, educationalists may find international activities in European Lifelong Learning Programmes, as opportunities for professional development, in which they may associate beyond their education context in international activities and construct their own biographies and professional identities.

However, there is a great distinction between educationalists' free choices about joining in international activities and being forced to participate (Halpin, 2006). Further questions rightly raised by Halpin and Whitty about new democratic professionalism also concern international activities: Which international activities are most suited for the purpose of professional development of educationalists? How should the activities be organised in the education context? Who will take the lead in initiating them and with what content and programmes? Although no direct answers can be given to the questions, it is obvious and, as the concept ‘democratic professionalism’ implies, many of the choices are left for individual educationalists to decide. But, democratic professionalism and new collectivist forms of association beyond the educational context could also imply organisational learning. Teams of educationalists may associate in international activities beyond their educational institution to support not only individual professional development, but also organisational learning. The organisational learning of educational institutions in international activities can be studied with the theory model of expansive learning developed by Engeström (Engeström, 1987). Engeström uses the concept of change laboratory and defines a participative method of developing work. According to Engeström's participative method of developing work, an educational organisation can implement deep changes in working methods and culture as well as continuous
improvement of activities in a change laboratory. First, a desired vision of the future is created and then practical solutions to current problems can be produced, which are steps to the new revised ways of working. The steps in the circle of expansive learning can be described as: (1) realising a need for change, (2) identifying a crisis of old working methods, dead-end, (3) looking for and designing wider objectives, motives and ways of working, (4) testing and developing a new way of working, (5) implementation of a new way of working, (6) establishing the new way of working and applying it in the organisation (Engeström, 1987).

The participative method of developing work explains how a team of educationalists within an educational institution may associate beyond their educational context to look for a solution to an existing problem in their organisation and develop new ways of working in international participation of EU Lifelong Learning Programmes. Therefore, the new ways of working developed in international activities do not only support professional development of individual educationalists, but organisational learning of the educational institution. Organisational learning in international activities raise, however, further questions: Do all educationalists have access to the international development activities of an educational organisation? If not, what are the criteria for their inclusion and exclusion? Are all forced to participate as organisational practices are developed? How does the development work fit into the full-time daily work of the educationalists in the educational organisation?

The theories of democratic professionalism and expansive learning discussed above support the argument of international activities as forms of professional development of educationalists within and beyond the education context. While the possibilities are supported by the theories, it is evident that there are many questions and challenges not explored yet in educationalists’ professional development in international activities of education. Next, the paper aims to conceptualise with the theoretical framework of communities of practice how professional development takes place in the collectivist associations of educationalists beyond the educational contexts in international activities.

3. INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE

The theory of communities of practice is researched to explain new forms of collectivist associations of educationalists in international activities (Wenger, 2000).
According to Wenger, communities of practice are groups of people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour. Communities of practice share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn to do it better as they interact regularly (Wenger, 2000). Wenger argues that learning in communities of practice means developing social structures in parallel with personal transformation. The structure of social learning systems includes three elements: communities of practice, boundary processes among the communities and identities shaped by participating in the systems (Wenger, 2000). The theory model of communities of practice supports the argument of professional development of educationalists in international activities. International activities in the EU programmes can be identified as communities of practice with international dimension. Educationalists' professional development can be explained as boundary processes among their local professional communities and international professional communities. As a result, new professional identities of educationalists with international dimension may be shaped in participating in the learning systems of international communities of practice.

The knowledge-creation metaphor could be used to explain the possibilities of professional development and more specifically, the role of ICT in international activities of education (Paavola and Hakkarainen, 2005). According to Paavola and Hakkarainen, the trialogical approach to learning is a process of knowledge-creation which concentrates on the interaction through common objects (or artefacts) of activity, not just between people, or between people and environment. The metaphor of knowledge creation through trialogue explains the professional development of educationalists when specific ICT tools help educationalists collaborate for the advancement of knowledge in international communities of practice. ICT tools enable educationalists from different education contexts to join in a progressive inquiry on shared objects of interest. Therefore, ICT allows collaboration and knowledge creation of educationalists’ professional development, from their local education contexts in international communities of practice.

Finally, the theory of Networked Learning Communities provides a further support to the notion of professional development of educationalists in international learning communities (Daly, 2006). According to Daly, the networked learning communities aim to establish mutual support amongst clusters of schools, local education authorities and universities through collaborative inquiry. Networked learning
communities of education can also be identified at the European and international levels, co-ordinated by international organisations, e.g. EU, UNESCO etc. The concept of networked learning communities supports the argument of learning and professional development of educationalists in collaborative inquiry in international communities of practice of education.

However, the questions of inclusion and exclusion are raised again to discuss the professional development of educationalists in international communities of practice. Who in local educational contexts has access to the international communities? Who has the power to decide on and what are the criteria for inclusion and exclusion of individual educationalists in international activities? The challenges of professional development in international communities enabled by ICT are more prominent. Participation in ICT-enabled knowledge creation communities requires digital literacy skills, which excludes non-digitally literate educationalists from the possibilities of professional development in the international communities. Many other questions are certainly raised with the advancement of globalisation.

To sum up, the paper has conceptualised professional development of educationalists in international activities from the perspective of theory of communities of practice. Professional development of educationalists takes place in international communities of practice, which are characterised by participatory, social and collaborative approaches of learning. Progressive inquiry, advancement of knowledge and knowledge creation in international collaboration are at the focus of learning and professional development in international activities. Specific ICT tools enable knowledge creation and professional development of educationalists in international communities of practice at a distance from local education contexts. The theory of communities of practice supports the possibilities of educationalists’ development in international activities of education. The participative, social and collaborative nature of learning in international communities, however, raises further questions. The most critical question relates to the access into professional development in international communities of practice. Who decides about inclusion or exclusion? Is it an individual educationalist, the educational organisation, school authorities at local or national level or external agents?
In the next section, the paper studies the nature of professional development of educationalists in international activities of education. What are the knowledge, skills and competences that educationalists may develop in international communities of practice? In general, it can be assumed that learning in international activities may be formal, non-formal or informal (CEDEFOP, 2000). Considering the participative, social and collaborative elements of learning in international activities, tacit knowledge can be argued to play an important role in knowledge creation and professional development. Tacit knowledge means knowledge creation through a knowledge spiral with four types of knowledge conversion (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995): 1. socialization (learning to understand tacit knowledge through participation in an expert community), 2. externalization (transforming tacit knowledge in a public form), 3. combination (synthesizing expert knowledge), 4. internalization (learning to master expert knowledge through sustained practices) (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). Educationalists learn to understand tacit knowledge through participation in international communities of practice. The tacit knowledge is transformed into explicit knowledge locally or globally, which again is transformed and combined into new expert knowledge. The internalized new knowledge is developed into new practices in local education contexts.

To understand professional development, the concepts of knowledge, skills and competences need to be defined. According to Freidson, knowledge and skills are essential to work and they complement each other in work performance (Freidson, 2001). Skill refers to the capacity to accomplish a task, and it may be kept separate from the substantive knowledge connected with the task itself, while competence comprises knowledge, skills and attitudes (Freidson, 2001). Key competences defined by the European Commission give a starting point to analyse the competences that educationalists may develop in international activities of education (EC, 2005). Key competences, which are essential for people's successful life in a knowledge society, in personal and social spheres and for employability are (1) communication in the mother tongue, (2) communication in foreign languages, (3) competences in maths, science and technology, (4) digital competence, (5) learning to learn, (6) interpersonal, intercultural and social competences and civic competence, (7) entrepreneurship, (8) cultural expression. Firstly, educationalists' participation in international activities can be assumed to develop communication in
foreign languages of educationalists coming from outside of the major language areas in Europe. Secondly, international activities enabled by ICT may develop digital competences of educationalists. Thirdly, interpersonal, intercultural and social competences can be argued to develop due to the participative, social and collaborative aspects of learning in international communities. Finally, cultural expression and learning to learn could be competences that are developed in the processes of international activities.

According to the Commission, some of the key competences, for example social, interpersonal, civic, entrepreneurship, learning to learn, and cultural expression, cannot be taught in traditional ways but require new approaches in organizing learning. The Commission (EC, 2005) notes that today teachers need to work together with each other, with the local community and deal with heterogeneous groups and, therefore, teachers also need new competences and continuous learning in order to respond to these new challenges. As discussed in the paper earlier, educationalists need to respond to globalisation which impacts education with major transformations and, therefore, professional development and new competences are needed. Educationalists have the possibility to participate in international activities to develop competencies that are needed in today’s globalized world. In the 21st Century professionalism in education and teacher training should take into account the modern globalized world. Therefore, an international element should be part of all teacher training programmes at all levels of education to provide international competences for teachers to work in the changing world of education. Furthermore, educationalists already working in the education sector should have the possibility to acquire international competences as informal learning through participation in international activities.

Eraut (2000) questions why we should make tacit knowledge more explicit, and proposes practical reasons, e.g. to improve the quality of a person's or a team's performance, to help to communicate knowledge to another person, to keep one's actions under critical control or to construct artefacts that can assist decision making or reasoning. The paper argues that reasons for turning implicit and informal learning of educationalists in international activities into explicit formal learning outcomes and qualifications is to give value to the professional development acquired in international contexts beyond the context of their institutions. Therefore, there is a need for valuing educationalists’ professional development in international activities.
in national teacher qualifications. The present European Qualifications Framework\(^3\) (EQF) and European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training\(^4\) (ECVET) provide good policy frameworks for such developments. Valuing professional development of educationalists in international contexts could support educationalists’ vertical and horizontal career progression within educational systems. It would also help educationalists still lacking the competences to identify and acquire them and become full members of international professional communities of education. Valuing professional development of educationalists in international contexts could motivate a wider participation of educationalists in the international activities of the EU programmes and thereby promote the attractiveness of education professions.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The paper argues that today the European Lifelong Learning Programmes offer educationalists new opportunities for professional development outside the educational context in international activities. However, there are challenges not yet fully explored yet that educationalists may encounter in their new democratic professionalism and participation in international activities. Professional development may take place through participation, social interaction and collaboration in international activities. Educationalists may develop their professionalism through collaborative, progressive inquiry and knowledge advancement. The concept of tacit knowledge can be applied to explain the transformation of the acquired knowledge, skills and competences by educationalists into new practices and professionalism in local educational contexts. The specific knowledge, skills and competences that could be acquired in international activities are for example communication in foreign languages, digital competences as well as interpersonal, intercultural and social competences that are essential for successful professional life in modern society and which cannot be taught in traditional education. The paper argues that it is important to validate informal learning outcomes and recognise them as formal learning and part of teacher qualifications. Valuing professional development of educationalists in international activities would help career progression of educationalists in the education sector. Therefore, it could promote the attractiveness of education

\(^3\) \url{http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/educ/eqf/index_en.html}
\(^4\) \url{http://ec.europa.eu/education/ecvt/index_en.html}
professions. It could also motivate a wider participation of educationalists in the international activities of education in the EU programmes.

The paper has brought new knowledge about the international activities in education in 21st Century and the possibilities and challenges related to professional development in international activities. The topic has not been widely researched yet and further research would be needed to explore the research questions in more depth. Furthermore, the lack of empirical data limits the argumentation of the paper. Considering the scale of the international activities in the current Lifelong Learning Programme and the wide participation of the different European countries, it would be important to continue research on professional development of educationalists in the European programmes. The research could continue to collect educationalists’ insights and perceptions regarding their professional development through participation in international activities of the EU programmes. The research could also study the life stories of educationalists who have participated in international activities and the effect the international dimension has had on their professional development and career progression in education. At this point, the paper makes an initial attempt to contribute to the discussion of the impact of globalisation and the EU on education and professional development of educationalists in the Member States.


References
Action theory in Habermas and educational practices

Abstract

In this paper I explore the potential for viewing education as an “unrestricted communication community” (Habermas 1990: 88), using categorisations from Habermas of different kinds of action as analytical tools for examining educational practices. For the paper, I pursue two main themes: 1) how the concept of communicative action in relation to the three forms of knowledge-constitutive interest (Habermas 1987) can be operationalised in educational discourse 2) how the distinguishing of communicative action and discourse ethics from other forms of action may be used to understand the interaction taking place in educational contexts to develop evaluative tools for examining teaching practices. The potential of this framework for encouraging critical reflection on teaching, on critical incidents in teaching, peer observation, or tutor observation of novice practitioners is also discussed in relation to the forms of reflexivity that Habermas identifies as necessary conditions of human freedom (1996). Taken together, these different constructs form a powerful framework for critically examining the truth and validity claims both explicitly made and implied in educational practices from the perspectives of the individual as well as the professional community to which the individual belongs. It is accepted that a rational, communicative action aimed at reaching consensus does not necessarily dominate either the school or the higher education institution’s normal mode of discourse. Thus, the paper also differentiates other forms of action, incorporating these into the overall critical framework.

Keywords: communicative action, action theories, Habermas

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In his postscript essay ‘Knowledge and Human Interests: a General Perspective’ Habermas refers to the ancient view that “The only knowledge that can truly orient action is knowledge that frees itself from mere human interests and is based on Ideas – in other words, knowledge that has taken a theoretical attitude.” (Habermas 1987: 301) Pursuing this notion of theorising as rising above the everyday preoccupations that characterise the ‘performative attitude’ of actors, he incorporates into his schema of the ‘theoretical attitude’ a conceptual element that represents the stance “that frees those who take it from dogmatic association with the natural interests of life and their irritating influence” (1987: 303). At the same
time, however, he cautions against the mistake of thinking that theory can be
freed from human interests, presenting the well-known three-part construct,
derived from Apel, of knowledge-constitutive interests through which actors can
theorise about and understand their world:

"There are three categories of processes of enquiry for which a specific
connection between logical-methodological rules and knowledge-constitutive
interests can be demonstrated. This demonstration is the task of a critical
philosophy of science that escapes the snares of positivism. The approach of the
empirical-analytical sciences incorporates a technical cognitive interest; that of the
historical-hermeneutic sciences incorporates a practical one; and the approach of
critically oriented sciences incorporates the emancipatory cognitive interest that,
as we saw, was at the root of traditional theories." (1987: 308)

Leaving aside for the moment the difficulties of making broad categorisations of
this kind, Habermas uses the core concept of knowledge-constitutive interests to
support a philosophical argument that allows for different epistemologies to match
the different ontologies that follow from the perspective of action based on different
interests. The philosophical model he develops is an inclusive or pluralistic one,
based on a view of human actors with different interests and intentions whose
actions generally can be explained as fundamentally driven by different forms of
rationality. The eclecticism of Habermas in constructing this framework is another
facet of his pluralism: he borrows from phenomenological sociology, symbolic
interactionism, philosophy of language, critical theory, Parsonian functionalism,
Kantian and Hegelian thinking and many other sources. This eclecticism is partly
due to his view that the development of rationalisation is a cumulative process in
which old paradigms remain as residual intuitions (1996b) but it is also a function
of the core tenets of his theory of communicative action: that the basic mechanism
of human rationality is the capacity of human actors to reach agreement through
no force but the force of the better argument. As a guiding construct and core
ethical principle for educators, this belief in the rational capacity of all human
actors to reach agreement through rational discourse on matters of fact and value
seems a fitting starting point for thinking about the intentions and actions of
educators. It is fitting because it is inclusive in relation to ways of working aimed at
establishing truth and rightness; it avoids the entrenched position-taking of
confrontational approaches (without losing the criticality inherited from the critical
theory tradition); and it takes an idealistic view of human actors as capable of
learning and reaching agreement. None of these points, however, is made without
recognition of the difficulties involved in pursuing a course based on faith in human
rationality and capacity to do what is 'good' (by common agreement).

The optimism referred to above does not inhibit criticality. In The Philosophical
Discourse of Modernity (1987b), for example, the technical-cognitive human
interest is related to instrumental reason and the formation of expert cultures in the
modern, capitalistic state: “As instrumental, reason assimilated itself to power and
thereby relinquished its critical force …” (1987b: 119). Here, he acknowledges
Foucault's critique of reason as a form of knowledge-power: “A gaze that
objectifies and examines, that takes things apart analytically, that monitors and
penetrates everything, gains a power that is structurally formative for these
institutions. It is a gaze of the rational subject who has lost all merely intuitive
bonds with his environment and torn down all the bridges built up of intersubjective agreement, and for whom, in his monological isolation, other subjects are only accessible as the objects of non-participant observation.” (1987b: 245) Even here, however, in his summing up of Foucault's analysis, we can detect the grounds of his objection to the postmodern critique of reason and that is in his depiction of the rationality of actors in the lifeworld as holding both a potentiality for self-entrapment (especially through the distorted ideologies of the system world) and a potential for emancipation (through exercising their rationality potential in critical discourse). In the Foucauldian critique of reason, the sciences of psychology, pedagogy, sociology, political science, cultural anthropology are all seen as ‘intermeshing’ in institutions to form a technology of power. The critique of reason as power-knowledge is acknowledged by Habermas as a great challenge to the notion of a universal rationality rooted in the three categories of knowledge constitution, but one that must be countered if the descent into relativism is to be avoided. Foucauldian analysis provides a powerful means of analysis of the way that rationalised systems in education, such as outcomes-based curricula, quality assurance systems, assessment regimes can discipline both educators and learners, forming new subjectivities through the exercise of ‘humble modalities’ of power and disciplinary procedures (Dwyer 1995, Edwards and Usher 1994 ). Such a critique has been applied to educational settings, especially to examine the effects of bureaucratic procedure, hierarchical surveillance and examination practices such as self-monitoring and self-assessment against ‘objective’ criteria (Ball 1994, Edwards and Usher 1994, Hall and Millard 1994).

The examination of micro-practices of disciplinary power in Foucault is replaced in Habermas by the more general concept of ‘steering systems’ of money and power, for example in the second volume of the ‘Theory of Communicative Action (Habermas: 1987c). Here, he proposes that we think of societies as both lifeworlds and systems simultaneously and of lifeworlds as being increasingly subjected to the logic of systems thinking. The lifeworld, which we can think of as “… represented by a culturally transmitted and linguistically organised stock of interpretive patterns.” (1987c: 124) relevant segments of which come into focus and are opened up for problematisation in a particular action situation. Through communicative action, social actors draw on the relevant background assumptions of the lifeworld, yet there is also the potential here to draw away from what is taken granted. The action situation thus holds the potential for both social reproduction and change. Thus the potential for new understandings is immanent in communicative action in that cultural givens can be problematised: “Every step we take beyond the horizon of a given situation opens up access to a further complex of meaning, which, while it calls for explication, is already intuitively familiar. What was then ‘taken for granted’, is transformed in the process into cultural knowledge that can be used in defining situations and exposed to tests in communicative action.” (1987c:133) At the same time, however, the increasing complexity of modernisation brings with it an extension of the regulatory functions of the steering systems of capitalist economy and bureaucratic power. The irony is that “The rationalisation of the lifeworld makes possible the emergence and growth of subsystems whose independent imperatives turn back destructively upon the lifeworld itself.” (1987c: 186)
System world is seen as encroaching into or colonising the lifeworld, to the extent that given ways of thinking are hidden "in the pores of communicative action" (1987c: 187). The imperatives of system world are variously understood as owing their features to the structures of formal or instrumental rationality, growing specialisation and expert systems, a process of rigidification of norm-free ways of seeing the world steered by media sub-systems, resulting in a fragmentation of consciousness and a loss of meaning. Although the general drift of this critique has much in common with critical theorists prominent in the educational field (eg Apple 1995, Kellner undated) the application of Habermassian critical theory thinking to educational practices is not extensive. This paper makes some moves towards trying to explore the implications of operationalising Habermassian concepts, including those dealing with the exercise of power in educational settings. What Habermas seems to offer is not only the critique, but also a way out of the pessimism that the critique leads us towards: The ideological straightjacketing of lifeworlds can be overcome by the same kinds of processes of rationality that generated expert knowledge and bureaucratic systems. To apply this thinking to educational contexts requires us to conceptualise the educational field in lifeworld terms (to imagine education as a lifeworld within the lifeworld), and thence to think of the actors in educational contexts as displaying both this potential to break out of the constraints of their current taken-for-granted understandings and to be able to isolate and analyse those aspects of lifeworld that are systems driven and not necessarily in the interests of the actors in that lifeworld. The concept of lifeworld is also useful because it draws our attention towards the particular contexts and practices, traditions and norms in the educational field that serve as background assumptions for actors.

Habermas mounts a defence against relativism that can be detected in his discussions of the second category of knowledge constitutive interest: the practical interest. In our everyday attempts to work together to agree on collective actions in the world, we demonstrate a communicative rationality, the process of which is universal, even though the contents and focus of such communicative action are locally and linguistically bounded. Communicative action takes place in a lifeworld that “.... forms a horizon and at the same time offers a store of things taken for granted in the given culture from which communicative participants draw consensual interpretive patterns in their efforts at interpretation. The solidarities of groups integrated by values and the competences of socialised individuals belong, as do culturally ingrained background assumptions, to the components of the lifeworld.” (19987b: 298) The processes of communicative action, within different linguistically and culturally bounded life worlds are the same: Habermas is arguing for the universality of rational processes by which actors attempt to come to agreement on what is true and right. Thus it is always a possibility that social actors guided by very different background assumptions can reach agreement. This same ‘root of rationality’ is also the potential source of resistance to colonisation of lifeword by the formal rationality of power (bureaucracy) and money (capitalist economics). These potentials for agreement and critique are also taken here to be fundamental to the application of his ideas to educational contexts.

Now to return to the notion of different knowledge-constitutive interests. In communicative action, we as actors refer to the three 'worlds': the 'objective' world
out there ("the totality of entities concerning which true propositions are possible" 1996a: 310); a normative world in which we feel obligations; a subjective world we can either disclose or conceal. And in referring to those worlds we make claims that can be subjected to the rules for judging validity that apply to those worlds: rules that apply to truth claims, those that apply to claims to what is right or just and those that apply to judging our authenticity and intentions as participants in communicative action. The basis of such judgements is the notion of intersubjective agreement, a pragmatic position that Habermas claims does not have to lead to a relativistic notion of truth, because, as Cooke (in Habermas 1999) observes, Habermas has developed a notion of truth as a 'process' and a regulative idea, the mechanisms of which - the propositional structure of knowledge; the teleological structure of action and the communicative structure of speech (Habermas 1996a) - provide the roots of a universal human rationality. Here, in a discussion of the 'idealising presuppositions' of communicative action, is a different way of expressing the notion of an underlying common rationality potential:

“We encounter a different kind of idealization in the interpersonal relationships of language users who take one another ‘at their word’ and hold one another to ‘be answerable’. In their cooperative dealings with one another, they must mutually expect one another to be rational, at least provisionally.” (2005: 94)

In other words, when we enter into a rational discourse aimed at reaching agreement and understanding with other actors, each participant has to assume each party has an equally valid rational position on the matter of the discourse for any communication to proceed. This does not of course preclude the possibility that another’s rational stance is a deception and that there are in fact other motives for the interaction. For a fuller discussion of the issues here, see Habermas (1996a) for an exploration of illocutionary and perlocutionary communication. However, the mutual assumption of a valid rationality helps us to frame the communicative action that can take place in the educational field, such as that between educators espousing different ideological positions: no discourse can take place at all between such parties if the idealising supposition of mutual rationality does not apply. Where it does not apply (as is often the case) other forms of action are resorted to, often entailing the use of some kind of force (imposition, resistance). Again, one would hope that there remains a place for the rational pursuit of questions of truth and rightness in the formation of our educational goals and ideals!

In 'Some Further Clarifications of the Concept of Communicative Rationality' (1996a) Habermas introduces a modified construct of knowledge-constitutive interests when he outlines the various dimensions of reflexivity that enable us to obtain the distance from our everyday ‘natural attitude' that is part of taking up the 'theoretical stance'. Here, he talks about these forms of reflexivity as forms of self-relation:

- the epistemic self-relation (reflexivity to our own beliefs and convictions);
- the technical-practical self-relation (reflexivity to our own instrumental interventions in the objective world and success-oriented dealings with others);
• the moral-practical self-relation (reflexivity to our own norm-regulated actions;
• an existential self-relation (reflexivity to our own life project)

For Habermas “…a person’s ability to distance himself in this way in these various dimensions from himself and his expressions is a necessary condition of his freedom.” (310) Here, then, on the level of self rather than the intersubjective is the same kind of framework, reminiscent of the discussion of knowledge constitutive interests and of the ‘three worlds’, which provides a structure within which we can theorise, with each part of the structure having its own concerns, procedures for argumentation and standards for evaluating validity. The same model and constructs can thus be used as an analytical frame for introspective discourse as for intersubjective discourse.

From these preliminary considerations, we might interpret Habermas' concept of theorising as the modes in which we can, as individuals (reflexively) and collectivities (intersubjectively through mutual construction of understandings and agreements) gain some degree of control of the lifeworld. Through reflection and rational discourse we are able to agree on what is the case or what should be done and from such agreements we are able to act upon the world. For Habermas, the lifeworld has both individual-internal and intersubjective-external connotations, but his work privileges the latter:

“Subjects acting communicatively always come to an understanding in the horizon of a lifeworld. Their lifeworld is formed from more or less diffuse, always unproblematic, background convictions. This lifeworld background serves as a source of situation definitions that are presupposed by participants as unproblematic. In their interpretive accomplishments the members of a communication community demarcate the one objective world and their intersubjectively shared social world from the subjective worlds of individuals and (other) collectives.” (1984: 70)

What interests me is the potential for using frameworks derived from Habermas' thinking on these matters for exploring the intersubjective engagement of educators (with learners, colleagues, other interested parties) and as procedural guides for exploring educational issues. The latter has been the subject of a previous paper (Garland 2007), so here I will confine myself to the former potential: the use of a framework based on Habermassian theory as a tool for the evaluation of practice by individuals (reflectively) and collectivities (intersubjectively).

To continue: for Habermas understanding, and especially mutual understanding, is seen as an accomplishment, the more so as our cultural stock of knowledge becomes increasingly “decentred” (Habermas 1984: 70). Indeed, the “decentration of world understanding and the rationalisation of the lifeworld are necessary conditions for an emancipated society.” (1984: 74) By decentring, Habermas means the way in which actors must move away from their own local contexts of action when considering questions of what is true or right: “An absolute claim to validity has to be justifiable in ever wider forums, before an ever more competent and larger audience, against ever new objections. This intrinsic dynamic of argumentation, the progressive decentring of one’s interpretative perspective, in
particular drives practical discourse ....” (2005: 109) Decentring is thus an essential aspect of the mode of theorising we are constructing here: the questioning of previously held certainties; attempts to resolve ethical dilemmas; imagining how others might construe an educational issue differently - all require actors to loosen themselves from the bounds of individual experience and local taken-for-granteds and be charitable towards the assumed rationality and worth of other positions. The capacity to ‘decentre’ and take the theoretical attitude is open to all social actors, but is clearly not necessarily taken advantage of by all. This capacity is an essential attribute of the theoretical stance and has special functions for educators and educational researchers, because of their particular (though not exclusive) responsibilities for the well-being and development of other members of society.

Countering this potential for decentring, the lifeworld of cultural assumptions and pre-existing knowledge can also be a potential prison in which the naive perspective of the natural attitude dominates. Paradoxically, Habermas sees those very same rational processes and structures which define our universal humanity as the mechanisms whereby we can free ourselves from the natural attitude through the process of discourse and subject aspects of that lifeworld to a more rigorous process of truth, validity and authenticity claims: “With this model of action we are supposing that participants in interaction can now mobilise the rationality potential – which according to our previous analysis resides in the actor’s three relations to the world [objective, social and subjective] – expressly for the cooperatively pursued goal of reaching understanding.” (1984: 99). Similarly, elsewhere he refers to these relations to the world as springing from “the rational infrastructure of human language, cognition and action” (1990: 23).

It is not my purpose to explore the many aspects of this formulation of knowledge-constitution here, nor to deal with the criticisms levelled, except perhaps to acknowledge that the implication taken by some that all natural science is instrumentalist (the practical or technical interest) is demonstrably untrue (see, for example Hammersley, 2003). What is of interest here is the way the typology of knowledge constitutive interest can be operationalised in relation to the three ‘worlds’ predicated - the objective, the social and the subjective – as a practical tool for educators to help frame their thinking about educational practices.

We have, then, an action theory, based upon a central understanding of the capacity of humans who use communication to solve problems and come to agreements in a lifeworld which is increasingly susceptible to rationalisation through the ability of participants to theorise their lifeworld, using the very communicative tools which have constructed that lifeworld. There are, in addition, the paradoxical effects of an instrumentalist rationality that distorts the lifeworld through the ‘steering systems’ of capitalism and bureaucratic power, the discussion of which preoccupies the second volume of the Theory of Communicative Action (1987c). This raises the issue of how actors can penetrate the ideological within the lifeworld and resist colonisation of thought and practice by systems that are driven by money and power. In Habermas, taking the theoretical attitude of discourse ethics is the way in which ideological distortions can be problematised, exposed and transcended.
In the theory of communicative action, the validity of any truth claim is judged according to the 'rules' that apply:

“The concept of reaching an understanding suggests a rationally motivated agreement among participants that is measured against criticisable validity claims. The validity claims (propositional truth, normative rightness, and subjective truthfulness) characterise different categories of a knowledge embodied in symbolic expressions.” (1984: 75)

Habermas proposes a theory of argumentation in which “normative claims to validity are analogous to truth claims.” (1990: 56) and this resemblance is seen in his insistence that valid norms must deserve recognition by all concerned. This leads to the position that, “Only those norms can claim to be valid that meet (or could meet) with the approval of all affected in their capacity as participants in a practical discourse.” (1990: 60). The form of discourse that ensues in the attempt to reach agreement on what ought to be done and what can be agreed on as true is characterised by Habermas as a movement beyond the normal taken-for-grantedness of everyday communicative action: “By entering into a process of moral argumentation, the participants continue their communicative action in a reflexive attitude with the aim of restoring a consensus that has been disrupted.” (1990: 67) In other words, the Kantian categorical imperative has been modified to include the need to submit our validity claim to others “for purposes of discursively testing its claim to universality” (1990: 67). Here, Habermas is referring to what he calls elsewhere (2005) an ‘idealising presupposition’ in that for a validity claim to be agreed all would have to be participants in such a discourse. The conditions for such discourse, outlined in Habermas (2005: 106-7) and summarised below, can be taken as the ideal conditions of educational discourse:

1. inclusiveness: no one who could make a relevant contribution should be excluded
2. everyone should have the same opportunity to speak
3. there should be no deception on the part of the participants
4. there should be no coercion: only the force of the better argument should prevail

To summarise, the concepts from Habermas discussed so far can provide a framework for understanding the task of reflection on practice as a theoretical stance taken by the practitioner that involves attaining some distance from the ‘natural attitude’ the educator takes when in the performative mode of everyday action. The notion of different ‘worlds’ (objective, intersubjective, subjective), each entailing different ontologies and epistemologies, provides us with a framework for examining validity claims by helping us identify what category of claim we are dealing with and, consequently, what ‘rules’ for judging validity might apply. The framework can be operated on both a personal, reflective level and on an intersubjective, discursive level and thus can be used by educators to examine and question practice in a number of ways. His theory of communicative action requires us to accept the idealising presuppositions that humans are competent, rational and capable of reaching agreement over matters of truth and morality. The optimism of his stance is a suitable position for educators to adopt in that it implies a) faith in our capacity to accumulate knowledge (though this knowledge is always
open to revision) b) an inclusive rather than confrontational process of conducting educational discourse c) a belief in human competence and rationality that aligns well with the fundamental values of educators as expressed in the aspirations of educational proposals throughout the world (aspirations for democracy, citizenship, participation, social responsibility, etc)

If we take intersubjective contexts first, the application of these concepts entails the idealising presupposition that the educational setting is viewed as an “ideal speech situation” or “unrestricted communication community” (1990: 88). It is only by adopting this position that the rest of the framework can be applied. Clearly, as Habermas frequently reminds us, the reality of much of social life is that other forms of action, especially strategic action with its associations with force, deception and winners-losers is uppermost. The educational field is hardly exempted from such observations. Yet, however loosely defined, teachers share a lifeworld of common practices, the majority of which form the background assumptions of their practice. Of course there is much conflict, for example between competing discourses of child- and subject-centredness; between liberalising and disciplinary roles of educators; between notions of education as outcome and education as process. Within the lifeworld of an educational establishment such as a school, such competing discourses may become a focus of attention and discourse in the theoretical mode that Habermas describes. Whilst the character of such discourse might be more ‘adversarial’ than consensual in aim and tone (Alexander 1997), there is also an underlying desire to reach agreement in much educational discourse that demonstrates the fundamental principle of communicative action. I am suggesting here that the practices of education, at any level, should be governed by the desire to reach mutual understandings through communicative action. Before developing this argument, I need to recognise other forms of action.

Habermas distinguishes communicative action from the following other forms of action: teleological (deciding among alternative courses with intention of achieving an aim); strategic (the agent has to take into account at least one other actor’s likely decisions); normatively regulated (the agent must comply with a norm of behaviour); and dramaturgical (presentation of self to a social group). When we consider these other forms, it is clear that communicative action does not necessarily dominate either the school or the higher education institution’s normal mode of discourse. However, I believe that most if not all educators would agree that communicative action, as defined below is our ideal desired form of communication in educational settings:

“communicative action refers to the interaction of at least two subjects capable of speech and action who establish interpersonal relations (whether by verbal or by extra-verbal means). The actors seek to reach an understanding about the action situation and their plans of action in order to coordinate their actions by way of agreement. The central concept of interpretation refers in the first instance to negotiating definitions of the situation which admit of consensus.” (1984: 86)

The framework suggested so far, however, lacks sufficient theorisation of the power dynamics of educational settings. In his exploration of the concept of the public sphere (Habermas 1997) Habermas refers to “specialised systems of action
and knowledge that are differentiated within the lifeworld" (1997: 360). These systems are divided into two kinds: those such as religion, education and the family which become generally associated with the reproductive functions of the lifeworld; and those, such as science, morality and art that “take up different validity aspects of everyday communicative action (truth, rightness or veracity)” (1997: 360). Whilst the first systems are thought of as functional and the second kind refer to a third feature of communicative action: that of the “social space generated in communicative action” (1997: 360).

In terms of educational contexts, we could now apply these concepts, albeit ambiguously, to formulate an action theory perspective on educational practices. Firstly we have, in the latest part of this exposition the beginnings of a suggestion that the educational setting can be viewed from a number of perspectives: from a functionalist perspective, we can examine the reproductive functions of educational processes; from a knowledge generation perspective educational institutions espouse values such as the importance of seeking truth, debating and agreeing what is right, and honesty and integrity in carrying out educational discourse. Although the public sphere is intended by Habermas to refer to the “network for communicating information and points of view” (1997: 360) a space within the lifeworld that offers the possibility of communicative action, it is of course also subject to manipulation and steering by specialist systems such as pressure groups and other groups whose intentions are not transparent (strategic action). At an initial level, then we have a model that captures the notion of educational functions, purposes and possibilities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>educational functions</th>
<th>educational values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reproduction of established forms of knowledge eg transmission of a body of knowledge deemed foundationally important eg from physics?</td>
<td>Creating new knowledge. Theory development. Theory testing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reproduction of values considered desirable eg democratic values, citizenship, rights and responsibilities</td>
<td>Discursive search for solutions to ethical issues and dilemmas. Anticipation of ethical consequences of new knowledge eg genetics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social reproduction eg sorting and categorising people according to standards of achievement; setting; streaming; academic pathways</td>
<td>Critique of established practices. Analysis of ideological aspects of what is held to be obvious or true. Questioning the justice of established practices.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, we can incorporate the notion of reflexivity discussed earlier, we have a basic model, derived from some of the key concepts in the work of Habermas for conducting an analysis of educational practices in relation to the truth claims, the normative elements and the intentions of the actors participating in that practice. Below I have attempted an initial sketching out of the kinds of questions that might be used to operationalise this action theory for analysis of educational practices. At the moment it takes the form of a number of key questions that seem to be implied by the foregoing discussion. It would helpful if, during my session,
colleagues were able to ‘test’ the model and give feedback on what is needed to refine it.

For any given educational practice (an assessment regime, a curriculum, a lesson, a teaching practice, etc), we might ask the following questions:

1. What is the nature of the learning activity here?
2. Is there clarity about what is to be learnt or is there unpredictability? How does the clarity/ambiguity relate to the content and purposes of the learning?
3. Are we engaged in primarily a reproduction of unquestioned ‘truth’? If so, what are the rules for judging the adequacy with which that knowledge is transferred? Are the outcomes clear and measurable?
4. Are we engaged in knowledge and theory construction? Is there an element of newness (for all) that marks this activity out as in some ways unpredictable? If so, by what standards do we judge the efficacy of the process? Can we talk about outcomes at all? If the activity involves exploration or theory testing, can we judge the adequacy of the processes undertaken?
5. Can I articulate my position on the nature of the learning activity? Are there a number of positions that I am holding at the same time? Can I hold these different positions with integrity or is there a conflict? How do I deal with this conflict? Is it possible to continue without a resolution?
6. What are the key values being promoted or explored?
7. If reproduction of values, are these considered desirable by those taking part (eg democratic values, citizenship, rights and responsibilities)?
8. Does the practice entail a discursive search for solutions to ethical issues and dilemmas? Does it entail anticipation of ethical consequences of new knowledge?
9. Am I able to articulate these values? Am I able to hold these values at a distance for the purpose of validity testing and discussion? Or are some of these values unquestionable? Am I in conflict with the values that are to be promoted?
10. To what extent does this educational practice contribute to the reproduction of wider social processes or structures?
11. Is the function of this practice primarily social reproduction eg sorting and categorising people according to standards of achievement; setting; streaming; academic pathways?
12. Does the practice include critique of established practices? Is the justice of established practices questioned?
13. If the practice has wider social implications, are there issues of injustice here? If so am I implicated?
15. How does my analysis here fit with my own personal sense of integrity? What must I do to secure that integrity if it is threatened?
References


New Competences in Slovak Teacher Training Programmes

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Introduction

In recent years many countries have been seeking ways how to improve their schools, and to respond better to new social and economic expectations. The demands on schools and teachers have become more complex. Society now expects schools to deal effectively with different languages and student backgrounds, to be sensitive to culture and gender issues, to promote tolerance and social cohesion, to respond effectively to disadvantaged students and students with learning or behavioural problems, to use new technologies, and to keep pace with rapidly developing fields of knowledge and approaches to student assessment.

Improving the efficiency of schooling highly depends on ensuring that competent people want to work as teachers, that their teaching is of high quality, and that all students have access to high quality teaching. Teachers are now expected to have much broader roles, taking into account the individual development of children and young people, the management of learning processes in the classroom, the development of the entire school as a “learning community” and connections with the local community and the wider world.

Teachers also need to be capable of preparing students for a society and an economy in which they will be expected to be self-directed learners, able and motivated to keep learning over a lifetime. This is why teacher issues are often a priority for public policy, and are likely to become even more so in future years.
Impact of Social Changes on the Role of Teachers

Social changes, diversity of learner intake and changes in the teaching environment influence the role of teacher and have their impact on several areas of teacher’s work:

1. promotion of new learning outcomes contributing to citizenship education of learners such as:
   - living in a multicultural and tolerant society;
   - living according to sustainable lifestyles regarding environmental issues;
   - dealing with gender equity issues in family, work and social life;
   - living as European citizen;
   - managing their own career development;

2. promotion of the development of competences of learners for the knowledge and lifelong learning society such as:
   - motivation to learn beyond compulsory education;
   - learn how to learn /autonomous learning;
   - information processing;
   - digital literacy;
   - creativity and innovation;
   - problem-solving;
   - entrepreneurship;
   - communication;
   - visual culture;

3. linking the development of new curriculum competencies with school subjects

4. working in restructured ways in the classroom
   - dealing with social, cultural and ethnic diversity of learners;
   - organising learning environments and facilitating learning processes;
   - working in teams with teachers and other professionals involved in the learning process of the same learners;

5. working “beyond the classroom” and with social partners
   - working in school curriculum, organisational development and evaluation
   - collaborating with parents and other social partners

6. integrating ICT in formal learning situations and in all professional practice

7. increasing levels of teaching professionalism
   - acting in an investigative or problem-solving way;
   - assuming greater responsibility for their own professional development in a lifelong learning perspective.
The Concept of Teacher Competences

Traditionally the term teacher competence has often been perceived in terms of behaviour or in terms of individual psychological attributes. Evidence for teacher competences has been based on direct observation of performances and/or products in predictable situations, reflecting a technical concept of teaching. Teacher competences have been conceived in terms of underlying stable, personal, and situation-independent characteristics providing a basis for excellent performance.

The recent concern for teacher competence has been expressed as a need for a more integrated concept denoting teachers’ knowledge, skills, and attitudes in context while performing professional tasks. Scholars have been moving toward a more integrated approach to competence-based training and assessment, based on the notion that competence is a relational concept, bringing together the knowledge, skills and abilities of the individual and the professional tasks to be performed in particular situations.

Schools and classrooms are complex, dynamic environments, and identifying the effects of these varied factors, and how they influence and relate with each other for different types of students and different types of learning has been, and continues to be, a major focus of educational research. But there still are many important aspects of teacher quality that are not captured by the commonly used indicators such as qualifications, teaching experience and indicators of academic ability or subject-matter knowledge. The teacher characteristics that are harder to measure, but which can be vital to student learning include the ability to convey ideas in clear and convincing ways; to create effective learning environments for different types of students; to foster productive teacher-student relationships; to be enthusiastic and creative; and to work effectively with colleagues and parents.

Notions of competences as developable abilities of the person contrast with notions in much of the research of competences as discrete behaviours. The five abilities are identified as generic teaching skills:

- **conceptualization** – integrating disciplinary knowledge with educational frameworks and a broad understanding of human development in order to plan and implement learning processes;
- **diagnosis** – relating observations of behaviour and situations using frameworks in order to foster learning;
- **coordination** – managing resources effectively to support learning goals;
- **communication** – using oral, written and media modes of communication to structure and reinforce learning processes;
- **integrative interaction** – demonstrating professional responsibility in the learning environment.

Student learning is influenced by many factors, including:

- students’ skills, abilities and attitudes expectations, motivation and behaviour;
- family and community resources, attitudes and support;
- peer group skills, attitudes and behaviour;
- school organisation, resources and climate;
- curriculum structure and content;
- teacher skills (teacher quality), knowledge, attitudes and practices.
The quality of the educational service, however, depends to much extent on the quality of our teachers as well. The standard then lists the following 4 components:
- professional values and personal commitments;
- professional knowledge and understanding;
- professional and personal attributes;
- professional action.

Very important are especially professional values and personal commitments which effective teachers should develop:
- effectiveness in promoting learning in the classroom;
- critical self-evaluation and development;
- collaboration and influence;
- educational and social values.

Besides professional values the teacher competences are certain qualities of the teacher which enable him or her to employ the individual competences and apply them in a professional context. The competences are grouped under the 5 areas:

1. understanding the curriculum, and professional knowledge;
2. subject knowledge and subject application;
3. teacher strategies and techniques, and classroom management;
4. assessment and recording of pupils’ progress;
5. foundation for further professional development.

Some examples of areas of broadened teacher responsibility are as follows.
❖ At the individual student level
  ➢ initiating and managing learning processes
  ➢ responding effectively to the learning needs of individual learners
  ➢ integrating formative and summative assessment

❖ At the classroom level
  ➢ teaching in multi-cultural classrooms
  ➢ new cross-curricular emphases
  ➢ integrating students with special needs

❖ At the school level
  ➢ working and planning in teams
  ➢ evaluation and systematic improvement planning
  ➢ ICT use in teaching and administration
  ➢ management and shared leadership

❖ At the level of parents and the wider community
  ➢ providing professional advice to parents
  ➢ building community partnerships for learning

The 21st century teachers should have a profound knowledge of their subject area and have the skills to teach the students successfully. Among these skills the teacher shouldn’t lack such ones as being able to:
  • organize student learning opportunities;
• manage student learning progression;
• deal with student heterogeneity;
• develop student commitment to working and learning;
• work in teams;
• participate in school curriculum and organization development;
• promote parent and community commitment to school;
• use new technologies in their daily practice;
• tackle professional duties and ethical dilemmas;
• manage their own professional development.

Policy Priorities for Development of Teacher Competences

Key issues in a teacher quality agenda include more attention to the criteria for selection both into initial teacher education and teaching employment, on-going evaluation throughout the teaching career to identify areas for improvement, recognising and rewarding effective teaching, and ensuring that teachers have the resources and support they need to meet high expectations.

Countries need to have clear and concise statements of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do, and these teacher profiles need to be embedded throughout the school and teacher education systems. The profile of teacher competencies needs to derive from the objectives for student learning, and provide profession-wide standards and a shared understanding of what counts as accomplished teaching. The teacher profiles need to encompass strong subject matter knowledge, pedagogical skills, the capacity to work effectively with a wide range of students and colleagues, to contribute to the school and the profession, and the capacity to continue developing. The profile could express different levels of performance appropriate to beginning teachers, experienced teachers, and those with higher responsibilities.

The stages of initial teacher education, induction and professional development need to be much better interconnected to create a more coherent learning and development system for teachers. A statement of teacher competencies and performance standards at different stages of their career should provide a framework for the teacher development continuum where much more attention will need to be focused on supporting teachers in the early stage of their career, and in providing the incentives and resources for their on-going professional development.

A more flexible system of teacher education should provide more routes into the profession, including through: post-graduate study following an initial qualification in a subject matter field; opportunities for those who started in schools as paraprofessionals or teachers’ aides to gain full qualifications that build on their experience in schools; possibilities for mid-career changers to combine reduced teaching loads and concurrent participation in teacher preparation programmes. It should involve close linkages with schools.

Teachers need to be active agents in analysing their own practice in the light of professional standards, and their own students’ progress in the light of standards for student learning.
Consequently, schools need to have more responsibility – and accountability – for teacher selection, working conditions, and development. However, to exercise these responsibilities effectively, it is clear that many schools will need more skilled leadership teams and stronger support.

**Teacher Training in Slovakia**

Slovak institutions of higher education including our university – Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, have joined the European Higher Education Area ten years ago (in 1998) when the new higher education legislation was issued and the document *Further Development of Higher Education in Slovakia Policy for the 21st century – Millenium* was published (Rosa et al., 2000). Implementation of these documents creates the basis for the involvement of Slovak institutions of higher education into the established European Education and Research Area and for the reform of higher education institutions in Slovakia within 10 – 15 years.

Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra has also introduced the main principles of Bologna declaration into their study programmes. One of the most important measures that the university has adopted in the field of study programmes has become introduction and implementation of ECTS in them. Among other recently introduced measures with a very positive impact on our students we could also mention the possibility to make decisions about the selection of contents and forms of education, the possibility to transfer credits gained during various forms of student mobilities and the system of academic degrees which is comparable and compatible within different European countries.

Teacher training in Slovakia before 1989 was closely connected with social and political situation in the country. Teachers were trained to work in highly homogenous environment of identical state schools with unified national curricula. Teacher training study programmes lasted five years and teachers were trained separately for primary schools (in all subjects) and separately for lower and higher secondary schools (in two subjects).

One of the consequences of entering the European area has become diversification of teacher training reflecting the real world where learners are educated in heterogeneous educational institutions providing different educational programme with variety of educational aims and goals. New legislation copying the Bologna principles has introduced three-year bachelor study programmes and two-year master study programmes for future teachers. However, we still lack legislation which would specify the role of graduates from bachelor programmes in our schools. Other frequently discussed topics are changes in teacher training curricula. Experts in education find it vital to change aims and contents of teacher training in such a way that not to be focused just on knowledge learning and acquisition but they require changes in the teacher training graduates profile which should reflect changes in professional attitudes, skills and abilities.

A fundamental requirement was determined in the Millenium project to change “subject“ teacher training for training of educators who are able to cultivate a man and
his world and to improve training of school managers. The new teacher’s profile has recently been put in agreement with the new curricula for primary and secondary schools where former individual school subjects (as for example: Slovak Language, Foreign Language, Physics, Chemistry, Geography, etc.) have been replaced by a complex of seven educational areas to be taught: Language and Communication, Man and Nature, Man and World, Man and Society, Mathematics and Informatics, Art and Culture, Health and Exercise.

A European Teacher

Teachers in the European Union do not only educate future citizens of their particular member country, but also support them in becoming future generations of European citizens. They work within a national framework, which emphasises the need for a national identity as a basis for transnational awareness within a European society. The term “European Dimension” has been used to balance national and transnational values in educational policy making.

A European teacher should see himself/herself as someone with roots in one particular country, but at the same time belonging to a greater European whole. This co-existence of national identity and transnational awareness, diversity within unity is therefore a key aspect of a developed European identity with an open mind toward the world at large.

Besides that a European teacher has some knowledge of other European education systems and, possibly, of educational policy matters on the EU level. He/she values his/her own education system and views it in relation to other European ones. He/she has a knowledge of European and world affairs and is aware of European history and its influence on contemporary European society.

He/she has a positive relationship with his/her own culture and is open towards other cultures. He/she knows how to behave in other cultures in a confident and non-dominant way and sees heterogeneity as valuable aspect and respects any differences.

Then, a European teacher speaks more than one European language with different levels of competence and is able to teach subjects in languages other than his/her first language.

Furthermore, a European teacher has an education which enables him/her to teach in any European country, to exchange curricular content and methodologies with colleagues from other European countries, to pay attention to and learn from different teaching and learning traditions. Joint programmes and degrees offered by educational institutions in European countries can enhance the development of European professionalism, as can many of the opportunities offered by modern technology.

Conclusion

If there is something like a European teacher, there must be some way of comparing the formal features of Europe’s teacher education systems. An increase in
compatibility between European qualifications and in transparency of graduate achievement is central to the Bologna/Copenhagen processes, and would also remove obstacles from teacher mobility. That is why a European teacher experiences the benefits of the European Union in part through easy mobility. This mobility encompasses studying abroad and learning languages as well as getting acquainted with other EU countries’ cultures. He/she may seek employment in other countries and use exchange programmes offered by the European Union.

Consequently, a European teacher facilitates mobility among his/her students by enabling them to have physical and virtual contact with peers in other European countries. This helps prepare for Europe-wide employability and, eventually, workplace mobility.

Literature


Employability of Swedish Teacher Student Alumni

ABSTRACT

In recent years, “employability” has become an increasingly central concept in higher education, in no small part since it constitutes an important aspect of the Bologna Process. The project “Teachers’ employability” is a project carried out on behalf of the Faculty of Teacher Education at Umeå University – one of the major providers of teacher education in Sweden – and is a part of a broader university effort to evaluate and increase employability. The aim of the project is to examine the situation of the university’s teacher students after graduation, as well as to find out how the former students and their employers view their education.

The study is based on the longitudinal individual database ASTRID, questionnaires and interviews. This paper reports findings from the project, focusing on 1) employment situation, income development and mobility patterns of recent alumni (class of 2000) and 2) primary employers’ (school leaders) view of the quality and usefulness of the present teacher education curriculum. While employability is generally high, there are significant differences in career paths and income development, depending on for instance type of degree and place of residence. The interviews with school leaders reveal that although the present curriculum is perceived to have certain general limitations, it is viewed as more suited for pre-school rather than comprehensive school and gymnasium teacher education.

Keywords: Employability, Curricula, Databases, Interviews, School leaders, Sweden

INTRODUCTION

In the early 2000s, “employability” has become an increasingly central concept in higher education. In Europe it constitutes an important aspect of the Bologna Process, which Sweden joined the 1st of July 2007. This paper is based on a project on “Teachers’ employability” carried out at Umeå University, one of the major providers of teacher education in Sweden (Figure 1). The aim of the project, carried out in 2007 and which will be finally reported in April 2008, is to examine the situation of graduated teacher students of this university and the perceptions of the primary employers – school leaders – on their employability.

For this purpose, quantitative and qualitative data were collected from national statistics, questionnaires and interviews. Broad and deep data, organized in an individual longitudinal database, ASTRID, were used to examine the relationships between education, mobility, and position in the labour market for former students graduated in 1990, 1995, 2000 and 2001.
Perceived effects of the new national 2001 teacher education programme, and the employability of recently graduated teachers, were studied by questionnaires and interviews directed to school leaders. Further, and with the aim to explore and distinguish between perceived effects on the employability of different categories of graduated teachers, and who conducted their studies within former and current teacher education programmes, questionnaires were directed to former students, graduated in 2001 and 2006. These two sets of studies were carried out between April and September 2007.

This paper reports findings from the ongoing project, focusing on 1) employment situation, income development and mobility patterns of recent alumni, graduated in 2000 and 2) the views of school leaders of the quality and usefulness of the current 2001 teacher education curriculum, i.e., its impact on the employability of graduated students.
LONGITUDINAL FOLLOW-UP OF 2000 TEACHER STUDENT GRADUATES

In this section, graduated teacher students’ employment status, income development and mobility patterns after graduation is presented. Using the longitudinal individual database ASTRID, the situation for teacher students that graduated from Umeå University 2000 was followed until 2005, as long as the ASTRID database presently allows. The database ASTRID is maintained by the Department of Social and Economic Geography at Umeå University. Its main asset is individual register data from Statistics Sweden (SCB). The database covers the Swedish population 1985–2005 in considerable detail, e.g., with respect to geographical location, education level, employment status and incomes.

Using the ASTRID database, 555 teacher students that graduated 2000 were identified. This constitutes most, if not exactly all, teacher students that graduated from Umeå University that particular year. The majority, 79%, were women. Average age at graduation was 32 years, while the median age was slightly lower, 28 years. Concerning place of origin, 68% were born in Northern Sweden (of which 32% in Västerbotten, the county where Umeå University is located) (cf. Figure 1). Of the remaining 32%, 4% were born in a country other than Sweden.

In using the ASTRID database to examine graduated teacher students’ subsequent employability, three different definitions of the concept has been utilized. In the first, most general definition, employability is defined as having a work income that exceeds social benefits and other non-work related income. However, such employment may consist of tasks that to varying degrees are related to the occupation the concerned graduated student is educated for. Therefore, a second definition is employed based the first definition, but limited to teaching duties of some kind. The third, most precise definition also requires employment according the first definition, but with teaching duties more closely matching the education. The evaluation of employability according to the second and third definition is based on the Swedish Standard Classification of Occupations (SSYK). The lack of highly detailed work descriptions in this classification means that the third definition should be understood as for instance a gymnasium teacher that works as gymnasium teacher, even if he or she wholly or partly is teaching the “wrong” subjects. In addition to the occupational group classification, a modified version of the Swedish Standard Industrial Classification (SNI) has been utilized to examine at what kind of workplaces the alumni are employed.
Mobility, employability and incomes after graduation

Higher education and employment are related to migration in many different ways. Compared to other groups, individuals with a university education exhibit a comparatively high rate of migration (Malmberg, Sandberg & Westin, 2005). In many cases, graduation from a university college or university is more or less directly followed by migration from the place of study. Although recent studies (e.g., Lundholm, 2007) have shown that considerations other than employment are increasingly important for migration, migration decisions are still largely made for labour market reasons. Hence, soon after graduation, it can be expected that many teacher students move from the place of study.

Figure 2 shows the registered place of residence at the end of the years 2000–2005. It may seem surprising that so many are registered in places outside of the Umeå local labour market region the year of graduation. One the one hand, this reflects that many examined students actually moved during that particular year. On the other hand, in some cases the explanation may be commuting students or simply a neglect to register at the place of study. Nevertheless, a clear tendency is that, over time, more and more graduated teacher students move from the Umeå local labour market region to the rest of Northern Sweden and other parts of Sweden. The other graduated teacher students cohorts examined in the project (the classes of 1990, 1995 and 2001) exhibit similar migration patterns (Mattsson & Strömgren, forthcoming). The graduated teacher students’ geographical origin plays an important part for their subsequent migration patterns. Of the 2000 graduates born in Northern Sweden, 88% are located there five years after graduation compared to 25% for those born in other parts of the country.

Figure 2. Registered place of residence 2000–2005.
Not surprisingly, the “employability” of the graduated teacher students depends on how the concept is defined and measured. Utilizing the first definition of employability, i.e., a work income exceeding non-work related income, employability is 95% in 2005, five years after graduation. Among those teacher student graduates, 80% were working as teachers of some kind (i.e., employability according to the second definition). In certain parts of Sweden, particularly in the south and among others the counties containing the two largest metropolitan areas of Stockholm and Gothenburg (see Figure 1), a particularly high degree of the alumni are employed in non-teaching related professions. For those teacher student alumni where the type of education can be determined with a high degree of certainty, it is possible to also examine whether they work in the teaching profession they are specifically educated for (i.e., employability according to the third definition). As Table I reveals, graduated pre-school teachers are most likely to work in a teaching profession matching their education. Although pre-school teacher students thus are especially likely to find work within their particular field of study, other teacher education students exhibit a wider range of teaching employment. Graduated gymnasium teachers, which are least likely to have an occupation matching their education, instead largely work as some other form of teacher, primarily comprehensive school teacher or teacher at an institute for higher education (university college or university). It should be noted that the category “other occupation” includes employment in a school, but as school leader rather than teacher. In 2005, there were eight school leaders (five in a comprehensive school and three in a gymnasium) with varying educational background, primarily special education teacher education background.

Table I. Teacher education direction by occupation 2005.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Teaching occupation</th>
<th>Other occupation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Matches education</td>
<td>Other teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school teacher</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive school teacher</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnasium school teacher</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special education teacher</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the first definition of employability (i.e., a work income greater than non-work related income), as many as 87% of the teacher students are already employed the year of graduation, compared to 36% the year before. The corresponding figure for 1999 is 97%. Although these figures may seem surprisingly high, it should be kept in mind that they just represent a work income from any occupation, small or large, exceeding social transfers and other non-work related income. Not surprisingly, actual work income also exhibits a substantial increase the years around time of graduation: an increase with 113% between 1999 and 2000 and a 45% increase between 2000 and 2001.
There are differences in work income depending on gender, line of work and place of residence. In 2003, average yearly salary was 11% higher for the male teacher student graduates, while in 2005 the wage gap had increased to 17%. Figure 3, which displays the average yearly salary by workplace type between 2000 and 2005, shows that for all years, alumni not working in learning institutions have higher average salaries. There are some notable geographical differences as well. For instance, the county of Västerbotten exhibit lower teacher wages than the rest of Northern Sweden. Certain counties in Southern Sweden, for instance Stockholm, exhibit particularly high wages in non-teaching professions (cf. Figure 1).

Figure 3. Average yearly salary (€) 2000–2005 by workplace type.

The remaining part of this section looks at alumni employment in 2005 in more detail. Using the workplace type and occupational group classifications, alumni statistics for the ten most common workplaces (Table II) and occupations (Table III) are presented. For each workplace/occupation, the tables present the number of alumni employed, their mean age and the share of women as well as average yearly salary (€) and the corresponding standard deviation. Workplaces and occupations related to teaching are highlighted in grey.

Among the teaching occupations (Table III), women are especially predominant among pre-school and special education teachers. The highest average wages can be found among special education, higher education and other teaching professionals. In this context, it should be noted that special teacher education is a further higher education programme directed to previously graduated teachers. Thus, such graduates tend to be comparatively old and are likely to have previous working experience as teachers.
Table II. Alumni statistics for the ten most common workplace types 2005. (Workplaces related to teaching are highlighted in grey.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workplace type</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean age</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Average yearly salary (€)</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive school</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>23,336</td>
<td>8,578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnasium</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>24,318</td>
<td>8,991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>16,692</td>
<td>8,716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University college or university</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>27,706</td>
<td>8,154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other teaching institution</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>28,306</td>
<td>10,403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>29,160</td>
<td>8,953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care service</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>21,478</td>
<td>9,113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health care</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>28,083</td>
<td>13,638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest organization</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>23,644</td>
<td>8,364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>16,228</td>
<td>6,784</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table III. Alumni statistics for the ten most common occupational groups 2005. (Occupations related to teaching are highlighted in grey.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean age</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Average yearly salary (€)</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary education teaching professionals</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>22,200</td>
<td>8,533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education teaching professionals</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>22,083</td>
<td>8,339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-primary education teaching professionals</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>18,771</td>
<td>8,141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special education teaching professionals</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>28,496</td>
<td>6,198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College, university and higher education teachers</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>26,602</td>
<td>8,874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal care and related workers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>17,133</td>
<td>9,758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production and operations managers</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>42,195</td>
<td>5,894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other teaching professionals</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>27,365</td>
<td>9,665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public service administrative professionals</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>28,078</td>
<td>9,177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business professionals</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>29,760</td>
<td>17,911</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graduated teacher students not working in teaching institutions are most commonly employed in workplaces concerned with administration, care service and health care (Table II). The most common non-teaching occupations (Table III) are personal care and related workers, public service administrative professionals, production and operations managers and business professionals. The occupational group production and operations managers includes the already mentioned eight alumni working as school leaders. The wage difference between the non-teaching related workplace types and occupations is larger than between the teaching-related ones. However, this would not have been the case for occupations, had school leader been considered a teaching-related profession. On the other hand, there are some other non-teaching related workplaces and occupations where average salaries are particularly high, such as the occupations computing professionals and physical and engineering science technicians.
In the following section, the paper reports on the questionnaire and interview study directed to school leaders. For this purpose, the current Swedish teacher education policy, its structures, and student recruitment patterns are first clarified.

**PERSPECTIVES ON THE EFFECTS OF THE 2001 TEACHER EDUCATION REFORM**

Since 2001 “teacher education” is used to refer to all teacher education and pedagogical professional pathways aimed at work in comprehensive school, gymnasium, pre-school, and youth and day-care centres (Governmental bill 1999/2000: 135). A key policy aim of the 2001 teacher education programme is to increase the employability of graduated students, on the basis of wider and general competencies for all, in combination with a high degree of individually chosen contents of studies. Based on the national framework, local structures for teacher education are outlined and implemented at 26 universities and university colleges in the country. According to the idea of goal-steering, the curriculum and the contents of courses thus vary between the establishments.

The view on knowledge which underpins the 2001 teacher education reform is clarified in detail in the preceding state report (SOU 1999:63, p. 57–59). It is for example argued that knowledge is created and related to a particular time and place, or culture. Within this socio-cultural perspective, which can further be related to Vygotsky (Vygotsky, 1978; Kozulin, 1996), the construction of knowledge is seen to be related to individuals’ previous experiences, and collectively constructed in meetings between individuals (see also Bourdieu, 1991; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Säljö, 2000).

The 2001 national structures include the creation of a new teacher education programme for undergraduate studies to be closely linked to research and postgraduate studies, and the establishment of a new research area for teacher education. All tracks of teacher education qualify graduated students for entrance to a PhD programme, which prior to the reform was not generally accessible for teacher students directed to teaching in comprehensive school and pre-school. In order to provide a common knowledge base for future teachers of various school stages, and to bridge traditional gaps between different teacher groups, a general field of studies (GFS), of 18 months full time studies is directed to all students. This professionally based field covers for example curriculum studies, democratic values including gender equity, special needs education, teaching as reflective practice, theories on learning, and child/youth development, perspectives on class, gender, ethnicity and information technology. At the time of data collection for this study, the 2001 teacher education programme followed the structures shown in Table IV.
Table IV. National structure of the 2001 teacher education undergraduate programme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching orientation</th>
<th>Time of study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school (ages 1–5), pre-school class (6 year olds)</td>
<td>210 ETCS (including GFS); 3½ years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth leisure centre (ages 7–12)</td>
<td>210 ETCS (including GFS); 3½ years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early years of comprehensive school (ages approximately 7–12)*</td>
<td>210 ETCS (including GFS); 3½ years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late years of comprehensive school (ages approximately 13–15)**</td>
<td>270–330 ETCS (including GFS); 4½ years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnasium (ages 16–19)</td>
<td>270–330 ETCS (including GFS); 4½ years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational subjects</td>
<td>180 ETCS (including GFS); 3 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Local municipality and/or school leader decision on the age level of teaching for teachers oriented to early years.
** Similarly, local decisions on the age level of teaching for teachers oriented to late years.

Further, and to attract more students, a flexible system of tracks for different teacher orientations is provided, which also differs between the local teacher education providers. Thus, the individual student chooses the contents of studies to a large extent. Moreover, the reform includes the introduction of one teacher exam, which replaces previous eight exams for teachers specializing in different school subjects, or areas of knowledge. In the exam document, locally designed by each university, the teaching orientation in terms of school level and the courses of studies of the individual student shall be clarified.

The first students of the 2001 programme graduated in 2005 and 2006, and were about 8,500 students each year (National Agency for Higher Education, 2007). At Umeå University, about 500 teacher students graduated each of those years. The majority of teacher students are women who nationally make up for over 80% of the graduated students (National Agency for Higher Education, 2007). This gender division also applies for Umeå University. Large proportions of women go for teaching directed to the young, but also for the older school pupils at gymnasium level. In 2005 women constituted 96% of graduated students with pre-school orientation, and 88% with orientation to teaching in the early years of comprehensive school. Among teachers for gymnasium level, women constituted 63% of the graduated students. The highest proportion of men, 37%, graduated with a double exam for teaching in the late years of comprehensive school and the gymnasium.

**Evaluations of the 2001 teacher education programme**

National evaluations and reports on the 2001 teacher education reform have pointed to various problems connected to the new structures. What is particularly noticed by the Swedish National Agency of Higher Education (2005, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c) and the two major teacher unions (National Union of Teachers in Sweden & Swedish Teachers’ Union, 2006; National Union of Teachers in Sweden, 2004, 2007a, 2007b), and also by a major teacher student union (Student Union of the
National Union of Swedish Teachers, 2007), is that equal standards of teacher education are not obtained from the different higher education establishments. This is considered to be due to the high degree of decentralisation of teacher education, and the following differences in the interpretations of the national framework by the local institutions. An example of this effect is that the exam diplomas vary a lot between the institutions. The policy of one exam for all teachers proved in fact to be constituted by 379 different types of diplomas for 3,479 graduated students (National Union of Teachers in Sweden, 2007b). Further, different exam diplomas are provided for similar educational tracks for studies carried out at different establishments. What has also been noticed as a weakness, and which applies for graduated teachers directed to teaching the young, is a general lack of substantial knowledge for teaching the basic skills of reading and writing, and Mathematics. Moreover, and contrary to the suggestions of policy makers, the freedom of choice of the students, have not lead to an increase of qualifications to teach Mathematics and Science, nor foreign languages (French, German and Spanish) for higher school levels. To sum up the critique delivered, it focuses on the apparent lack of national comparability of teacher education, which in turn is seen to eliminate equal opportunities for employment of graduated teachers of the 2001 teacher education programme. On the basis of the weak points identified, a committee set up by the new liberal-conservative government, will present national guidelines for new teacher education structures in September 2008.

School leaders’ perspectives on employability

As previously mentioned, primary employers’ perspectives on the employability of teachers, graduated from Umeå University within the 2001 teacher education programme, were gained through questionnaires and interviews to school leaders, in and around Umeå (see also Figure 2). Questionnaires were used to find school leaders in this geographical area who were likely to have experience of recruitment of more recently graduated teachers, and to whom interviews later could be directed (Mattsson & Strömberg, forthcoming). The questionnaires were distributed by e-mail to about 225–250 school leaders in 16 municipalities, through a teacher education and school network, headed by Umeå University. Questionnaire answers were received from 55 school leaders, and 26 of these reported recruitment of one to six “new” teachers, respectively. In total, the questionnaire answers reported 64 “new” teachers (8 men, 58 women), spread in different school levels, including preschool, pre-school class, comprehensive school, grades 1–9 and gymnasium. The vast majority, 84% (42 individuals), had teaching orientation to the early years of comprehensive school. The others were spread in pre-school, gymnasium and the late years of comprehensive school.

Interviews were conducted with 13 school leaders (1 man, 12 women) of 17 individuals (4 men, 13 women) approached by e-mail. Interviewees were chosen on the
basis of being heads of different school levels, and thus assumed to have experiences of recruitment of specific categories of teachers. The interviewees were geographically distributed in eight municipalities. The interviews focussed on the interviewees’ experiences of school leadership, perceived qualifications of “a good” teacher, the importance of graduated teachers, and views on the 2001 teacher education programme. The interviewees were also invited to reflect on any subject that was considered to add important information to the study. Further, the professional and educational backgrounds of the interviewees were covered. An interview guide with open questions was used for the thirty minute long interviews that were conducted on the telephone, recorded on mini-disc and fully transcribed. Transcripts were sent to the interviewees who were asked to clarify any information that was found to be missing.

The responsibilities of the interviewed school leaders covered schooling and education from early childhood to the late teen years. Twelve interviewees were educated teachers, with different teaching orientation which included pre-school level, primary school level, upper secondary school level and gymnasium level. All had longer experience from teaching or care-taking in school, pre-school or day-care centres. One interviewee had a social work and education background. The average time of leadership position was nine years.

The interviewed school leaders reported 39 “new” teachers (5 men, 34 women) recruited, of whom the majority, 27 individuals (4 men, 23 women), were orientated to teaching in the early years of comprehensive school. Six were oriented to education and teaching in pre-school, and four to teaching at gymnasium level, all women. Two individuals, a man and a woman, were orientated to the late years of comprehensive school. The majority of the “new” teachers reported were employed in an area of teaching which broadly corresponded to the individual’s exam orientation. However, nine employed taught at other school levels. Among seven graduated for teaching in the early years, three were staff in youth leisure centres, two taught in the late years of comprehensive school, one in pre-school and one in the gymnasium. Two individuals with exams for late years in comprehensive school were teaching at gymnasium level and in grade six, respectively.

The school leaders’ views on teacher qualities, including a “good” teacher, the importance of graduated teachers and their experiences of the 2001 teacher education programme, are reported in the following section.

**Demand and supply of teacher qualifications**

The school leaders’ response to what they perceived as essential qualifications for a “good” teacher varied. Good leadership and theoretical and practical knowledge
(“social competence”) to handle individuals and groups were generally seen as fundamental knowledge by school leaders of all school stages.

Another general requirement of a “good” teacher was solid knowledge of the national school policy, including the democratic and fundamental values nationally agreed upon (see National Agency for Education, 2005). Other qualifications, particularly demanded by school leaders in comprehensive school and the gymnasium, included higher education exam.

Graduated teachers are required, and I find this very important. […] [As a school leader] you then have the right to demand certain things. (Eva, school leader, early years of comprehensive school)

Good subject knowledge and pedagogical or “teaching” skills and knowledges, were also highly estimated by these school leaders:

[…] in order to raise and “lift” the pupils […] the starting point is that the teacher has subject knowledge, and also knowledge in methods and pedagogy. (Gunnar, school leader, pre-school & early years of comprehensive school)

[…] there will always be individuals who have good knowledge in a subject, and who do not have a pedagogical exam, but who have a natural talent for teaching. But [as a school leader] you can’t build the school’s educational programme on these individuals. (Charlotte, gymnasium school leader)

It was also suggested that a good, qualified teacher would have “the right” personality, and “should like to be with children […] and like to be in the classroom” (Åsa, school leader, pre-school class & early years of comprehensive school).

According to the interviewees, the official requirement of an exam diploma meant that teachers who were not graduated, could not be hired permanently. However, it was also recognised that the officially demanded qualifications were hard to live up to, when it concerned certain school subjects. The lack of qualified teachers in foreign languages, and in Mathematics and science education for older pupils in comprehensive school and in the gymnasium, was thus seen as problematic.

There’s a lack of language teachers in French, German and also in Spanish, which we will now start to give. Though, only one individual has applied for the post as a teacher in Spanish. […] We have a teacher in German [a mother tongue speaker], who has no teacher exam, but who has been re-employed for almost 30 years. (Åsa, school leader, pre-school class & early years of comprehensive school)

We have very few teachers with qualifications in Mathematics and Science, and that is real problem. (Eva, school leader, early years of comprehensive school)
Though generally positive to the individual “new” teachers, who at the time of the interviews were employed, the interviewees pointed to a number of weaknesses, or lack of competencies, which the interviewees found were effects of the 2001 teacher education programme. School leaders for the lower level of comprehensive school, found that recently graduated teachers for this teaching area, generally lacked needed qualifications in many subject areas:

 [...] the question is whether the teachers orientated to early years, should teach in areas in which they lack qualifications. (Eva, school leader, early years of comprehensive school)

 [...] a teacher often teaches subjects that she has not taken in her exam, for example maths, which yet is taught. (Carina, school leader pre-school & comprehensive school)

A general need concerning teachers in lower levels of comprehensive school was broader and deeper subject competencies. This group of teachers should be prepared to teach a broad variety of subjects within the national curriculum, according to the interviewees. A wide subject knowledge of the individual teacher was also seen particularly important for school areas located in the countryside.

 [...] the new teachers in grades 3–5 teach all subjects in class; Maths, Science, Swedish etc, irrespective of their own teaching orientation. They have the responsibility for the whole class in all subjects. (Ann-Marie, school leader of youth leisure centre, pre-school class & early years of comprehensive school)

Particular demands of the interviewees included qualifications for teaching the basic knowledges of reading, writing, and Mathematics, and also English came from school leaders responsible for the early years of comprehensive school.

 I find it self-evident that teachers must have basic knowledge in Maths and Swedish. It feels strange to have to ask: “Do you have knowledge for teaching reading?” and to get to know that these qualifications are far from being general knowledges. (Britt-Marie, school leader of pre-school class & early years of comprehensive school)

The lack of knowledge in teaching reading and writing is really a bad effect of the new teacher education programme. I usually tell students who come to this school that they should concentrate on Swedish, and the reading and writing skills if they want to be employed. (Sofie, school leader of pre-school class & early years of comprehensive school)

We have had teachers who thought that “maybe I will manage to teach English in grade six” but who didn’t! English has therefore become one of the subjects we have to look more closely on. (Berit, school leader of pre-school class & early years of comprehensive school)
However, some school leaders with responsibility for pre-school had other perspectives, concerning subject knowledge. It was suggested though, that a good teacher should be able to guide the pupil’s learning process, in any area of knowledge, and with no specific knowledge for this.

Nowadays, subject knowledge has become too emphasised, as if the teacher should be an encyclopaedia. […] a teacher should be able to guide children in how to find knowledge. (Gun, pre-school & early years of comprehensive school)

For me subjects are not important as such. I find that subject knowledge is something the teacher can acquire […] The learning aspect is important. Some teachers can make the pupils listen, and others can’t. (Carina, school leader, pre-school & early years of comprehensive school)

One thing considered as an improvement for those student teachers oriented to pre-school, was a stronger focus on writing, and analysis of documents.

In pre-school of today we have to write reports which are to be read by others. This new part in teacher education of written analysis – I find it just excellent that students are trained to do this! (Lovisa, school leader, pre-school)

Another important improvement pointed to by the same school leader, Lovisa, was that teachers oriented to pre-school were able to graduate with two exams, which included teaching competencies for pre-school, and/or pre-school class and/or the early years of comprehensive school, and/or youth leisure centres.

I think it is an advantage that you can have teacher competence for both areas [pre-school and early years of comprehensive school]. I find it possible that teachers graduated for the early years, may meet the children at the age of three, to follow them later on. (Lovisa, school leader, pre-school)

One interviewed school leader, a former primary teacher who had 14 years experience of school leadership, and longer teaching experience from teaching in grades 4–6, meant that the demands of the schools rarely corresponded to the supply, in terms of subject orientation of the “new” teachers. To his views, the policy of large freedom of choice for the individual clearly reduced the opportunities for employment.

Many students make tricky choices in subjects and teaching orientations. It actually happens that students call me, and ask my advice as a school leader for what [subjects and teaching orientations]. I think they should choose. It can be difficult for students to be employed with all this freedom to choose. (Gunnar, school leader, early years of comprehensive school)
As a result of the weaknesses, particularly considered to be due to little input in basic knowledge fields for teachers oriented to the early years, tutorial or “mentorship” was generally organized in school districts.

In 2007 we will organize a mentorship programme for teachers who teach reading and writing. Four teachers of the municipality, with long and specific experience, will be given 20% employment for in-service training of colleagues. (Ann-Marie, school leader youth leisure centre, pre-school & early years of comprehensive school)

One of the older, more experienced teachers, with former primary teacher education have extra time for helping colleagues [in teaching reading and writing] and also for teaching pupils. Another teacher has taught history in the class of a new colleague. (Carina, school leader, pre-school, pre-school class & early years of comprehensive school)

Other kinds of support school leaders for the improvement of teaching knowledges of the new teachers took place in organized “work teams”.

We have a sort of mentorship since we have “work teams”. We always try to integrate new teachers in teams where there are both younger and older staff members. (Sofie, school leader, pre-school & early years of comprehensive school)

School leaders of the gymnasium found that the new teachers at this level were not sufficiently equipped with knowledge in the special needs field, nor prepared to handle conflicts and other difficult issues. Another weakness, according to one interviewee, was lack of curriculum knowledge.

I think they have very thin knowledge! They do not know the teacher contract! How do you read and analyse school curriculum in teacher education? When I meet new teachers I often find that this [lack of knowledge] is chocking! (Charlotte, gymnasium school leader)

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this study, the employability of recently graduated teacher students from Umeå University, from 2000 onwards, is explored from various perspectives. The study of mobility, employability and incomes for the 2000 teacher student graduates shows that, over time, more and more graduated teacher students move from the Umeå local labour market region. The geographical origin of the alumni plays an important part for their subsequent migration patterns. Almost the entire class of 2000 has some kind of employment five years after graduation; four out of five is working as some kind of teacher. Graduated pre-school teachers are most likely to work in a teaching profession matching their education, while gymnasium teachers are more likely to be involved in other forms of teaching. In certain of southern Sweden a particularly high degree of the alumni are employed in non-teaching re-
lated professions. Among those employed as teachers, the highest average wages can be found among special education, higher education and other teaching professionals. In non-teaching professions, there are large wage differences depending on occupation and workplace type.

Results of the school leader study pointed to a number of weaknesses of the 2001 teacher education programme. An apparent lack of teaching skills in the basic knowledge areas of reading, writing and Mathematics for teaching young pupils was noticed. Also, students’ individual choices of subject orientation were generally seen to mismatch the needs of the comprehensive school. School leaders for the higher level of comprehensive school would like to see a more specific knowledge base in foreign languages, including English, and also in Mathematics and Science. The gymnasium school leaders, in particular, wanted “new” teachers to be better prepared for special needs education, and for handling conflicts and other difficult issues. Further, it was considered that the general knowledge of school curriculum was too “thin”.

However, school leaders responsible for pre-school, and with educational and professional background in the area, were more positive to the 2001 programme. It was considered an advantage that pre-school teachers could widen their exam and approach school. Further, the broader theoretical approach in teacher education was considered to raise the quality of the graduated pre-school teachers. Moreover, the views on knowledge differed. School leaders for comprehensive school lacked broader and deeper knowledge for teaching in the compulsory subject areas. In contrast, school leaders with pre-school background found that the importance of knowledge was over-emphasized, and that the role of the teachers rather was to provide support to the individual pupil. Finally, the school leader study shows that the employability of the “new” graduated teachers in many respects was questioned by comprehensive and gymnasium school leaders.

In measuring employability by use of register data, evaluation has to be carried out using available database variables. Due to lack of highly detailed descriptions of occupations in the ASTRID database, it is impossible to see whether or not a teacher teaches the “wrong” subjects at the “right” level. In any case, “employability” is not a straightforward concept. Indeed, the possibility for a graduated teacher student to teach subjects not within the exam, or have an entirely other occupation, can represent either a strength or a weakness from the individual’s point of view. On the one hand, it may indicate a lack of labour market demand for the occupation they are educated for and prefer. On the other hand, it may signify an opportunity and desire of the individual to take on other kinds of jobs, which their education give them access to. From the employer’s point of view, it is highly relevant to know whether or not the prospective employed teacher has the qualifications needed. In this context, the construction of teacher education, as well as its contents, is of great importance for all concerned.
The 2001 teacher education reform aims at decentralization and deregulation, and thereby increased local autonomy (Governmental bill 1999/2000: 135). This is in line with Swedish education policy trends, particularly noted since the 1990s (Rönnberg, 2007). Another aim, pointed out in this study, was to increase the employability of all teacher students by widening the teacher education programme to include a range of general, professionally based teacher competencies. Flexible study orientation and opportunities for professional development were in this respect considered to enhance the employability of those graduated, and to reduce traditional gaps between different teacher categories. Increased recruitment of student to specific subject areas (particularly Mathematics and Science), was another policy aim.

However, a major conclusion that can be drawn from the school leader study, also underpinned by a wide range of national reports, is that stronger national steering of teacher education is needed. It is obvious that the qualifications of a vast majority of the “new” teachers, in particular those orientated to comprehensive school, generally do not satisfy the needs of the primary employers, i.e., school leaders. The lack of needed competencies might thus have negative implications for the employability of the graduated teachers in school settings. Another conclusion, related to the lack of knowledge in teaching basic skills for the young, is that these weaknesses might have undesirable effects for Swedish pupils’ learning in a shorter and also a longer perspective.

Interestingly, a common misinterpretation of socio-cultural perspectives on knowledge construction, according to Säljö (2000), follows from the disregard of school as an institutionalized setting, where the knowledge construction of the pupil is dependent of the knowledge and pedagogical skills of a more knowledgeable adult, the teacher. As indicated in this study, school leaders with little experience in the field they manage, in this case individuals with pre-school teacher background, tended to neglect the need of teaching knowledges for the actual school level and distanced themselves from demands of more “school subject” related knowledge. However, this view on knowledge is contrary to the key idea of Vygotsky (1978), of a close connection between adult reasoning and children’s development of logical, more abstract thoughts and problem solving (Kozulin, 1996). Following this, another conclusion drawn is that school leaders, irrespective of school level, must understand that the academic qualifications of hired teachers should correspond to the subject area being taught.

Finally, in times of increased international pressure for professionalism in teaching and teacher education (Council of the European Union, 2001; see also Erixon Arremar & Weiner, 2007), it is difficult to understand why Swedish policy makers of the 2001 teacher education reform seem to have chosen to neglect both practitioners’ experience and research, international and Swedish (see Myrberg, 2003),
which clearly emphasise the need of professional teaching in the early years. However, the failed policy intentions to attract more students to teaching Mathematics and Science, and also foreign languages, should probably be related to a larger context of wider employment opportunities for student who choose to go for other, new directions of study programmes in higher education, set up from the 1990s onwards.

Hopefully, the next teacher education reform in September 2008 will seriously take into account the 2000 Lisbon declaration on teaching and teacher education, the meaning of which is that the priority of teacher education is to produce “good” teachers that are able to enhance life-long learning of their pupils:

The most important of these competencies is the ability to learn – maintaining curiosity and interest in new developments and skills – without which lifelong learning cannot exist. For many teachers, however, this ability is difficult to stimulate; and its development should therefore be a focus both of teacher training and of educational research in the coming years (Council of the European Union, 2001, p. 9).
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How Children see Diversity, the Effects of Schooling, and Implications for Initial Teacher Education.

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I present the findings and implications resulting from empirical research conducted in primary schools in central England and Southern Germany where I investigated 9 and 10 year old children’s multicultural awareness. I explored the opportunities for multicultural education in both the hidden and formal curricula for this age group.

The project is located in the wider debate about cultural identity, racism, ‘equality’ and multiculturalism. The research draws on literature concerning multicultural and anti-racist education.

Methodologically, a qualitative research paradigm was adopted. I was influenced by feminist methodology. The empirical work in England was more substantial and I employed a ‘least adult role’ and worked ‘with’ not ‘on’ the children. In Germany I worked to a more limited timeframe but nevertheless gained an insight into multicultural education in another European context.

I discovered that many children, whatever their background, displayed anti-racist behaviour and opinions, and that attending a school with a high proportion of minority ethnic children did not necessarily lead to anti-racist tendencies. Moreover, there were children from schools with a high proportion of minority ethnic backgrounds who displayed overtly racist behaviours. The organisation of the school curriculum, and the school ethos, in both England and Southern Germany, had an influence on whether anti-racism was promoted or whether racism remained unchallenged. My research offers insights into aspects of white, Western privilege in both the formal and hidden curricula, in the selected schools in England and Southern Germany. The paper concludes with a discussion of the influence of schooling on children’s multicultural awareness, and explores the implications of my findings for policy and practice in Initial Teacher Education Institutions.

1 Research Findings: England

During the empirical work in England I adopted a ‘least adult role’ (Mandell 1991), working alongside the children in a non authoritarian way to investigate their knowledge of and attitudes towards their own and other cultures (Elton-Chalcraft 2008). I discovered that the children’s attitudes and knowledge could be categorised (see table 1).

Racism and children’s multicultural awareness

The majority of the 9 and 10 year old children, in my study were naturally anti-racist whether they were knowledgeable about other cultures or not. I would place them in quadrants A or B in table 1. A small minority displayed racist or negative speech or
behaviour as identified in quadrants C and D in table 1. I feel these findings, are significant because they correlate with other research (Brown 1998, 2001; Connolly 1998; Lewis 2005) which identified that children often ‘learn’ to be racist/ prejudicial from society, but, these theorists state, they are not born so.

Table 1 A diagram charting children’s attitudes and knowledge

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quadrant</th>
<th>Attitude/ Knowledge</th>
<th>Attitude/ Knowledge</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Anti-racist/ Positive</td>
<td>Anti-racist/ Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less Knowledgeable/</td>
<td>More Knowledgeable/</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Less multiculturally aware</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>(Anti-racist/Positive</td>
<td>(Anti-racist/Positive</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Less Knowledgeable/</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less multiculturally aware</td>
<td>Less multiculturally aware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Racist/ Negative</td>
<td>Racist/ Negative</td>
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<td>Less Knowledgeable/</td>
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Anti-racist and More Knowledgeable: Quadrant A

Approximately a third of children felt positive about their own culture and so wanted to accord the same degree of respect to those of a different culture. For example Tazia and Zena were fairly strict Muslims, Zena wore the hijab (head covering), and their religion provided their moral code. (I use protective pseudonyms throughout this paper (David et al 2001)).

Tazia: you’re not allowed to eat other, White people’s meat because, in a day we have to pray 5 times a day and we have to keep a scarf over our heads sometimes when we pray and Muslims when it’s a special Friday all the men they have to go to Mosque and pray
Zena: and the girls like have to wear long dresses and pray and go to a mosque[...]
Tazia: If your hair comes out you have to cover it because you get bad luck you mustn’t be dirty. And if you like if you like fart,... miss you get a really bad look and you have to go back to the toilet and wash yourself again.
Sally: Right…………..
Tazia: Ummm You know like Muslims if they swear there’s a fairy on the shoulder, one is bad and one is good [...] And they say that if you be, if you swear, a bad fairy writes a line down and when you go to God he repeats it.

**Anti-racist and Less Knowledgeable: Quadrant B**

Approximately a half of children were anti-racist despite having limited knowledge of other cultures and they thought it was ‘important to be nice’. Also many were aware of the need to be politically correct and thus displayed anti-racist speech and behaviour because they believed it to be the right thing to do (Troyna and Hatcher 1992).

**Racist and More Knowledgeable: Quadrant C**

There were three types within this category, firstly a few children who were generally knowledgeable about most cultures were, however, negative about cultures with which they were unfamiliar (Gittings 2005). Tejpreet and John both British Asian, Sikh boys, and Marshall, of Black Caribbean heritage, claimed that British Chinese eat cats, dogs and snakes. D school was a high proportion minority ethnic school which had no children of Chinese heritage.

Marshall: I don't know much about Chinese people but I know they have plain faces and their eyes are a bit weird

Tejpreet: They have snakes or stuff like that

John: (at same time) not snakes do they?

Marshall: They don't eat snakes, they eat cats and dogs- that's what I've heard I could be wrong, and chickens - everybody eats chickens

The children expressed disgust at these eating habits. Such prejudicial attitudes towards Chinese culture are discussed by Gittings (2005) and Hesler (2002). D school was a high proportion minority ethnic school but there were no children of Chinese heritage. I would argue that these boys were being negative because they were ignorant of Chinese culture. Throughout the rest of the interview these boys had been very anti-racist, and in the Interim report feedback session I conducted with the children, Marshall in particular had been very vociferous about a ‘Rule out Racism’ initiative which his school had been involved in.

Secondly a few made a racist/negative remark or displayed racist/negative behaviour which they subsequently regretted, for example Rachel, of African heritage, at another
high proportion minority ethnic school, made offensive gestures when speaking about British Chinese but almost instantly she said

I shouldn’t have done that. (Rachel)

Thirdly one child, from a high proportion minority ethnic school, who I considered to be knowledgeable, was described as both a racist and a bully, to children of his own culture and also different cultures.

Racist and Less Knowledgeable: Quadrant D

The minority of children who made negative or racist comments I deemed to be less knowledgeable about different cultures. Most of these children were white, male, low ability and tended to be younger than the other children in the study. Most negative comments came from the research which I undertook after the events of September 11th 2001 in B school, predominantly white. Their comments seemed full of anger and they felt threatened by what they perceived to be ‘alien’ and ‘bad’ cultures. These children mainly seemed to be repeating the views they had heard from their parents or in the media. Bart from one of the predominantly white schools discussed British Asians,

Sally: Bart what did you put [in answer to the question ‘what do you know about British Asians’]?
Bart: they are coloured
Sally: Coloured?
Bart: Horrible
Sally: Why did you put horrible? [all children in interview giggle]
Bart: Because I don't like looking at them. They talk a lot..................Miss they wear rags, talk a lot and I don't like the look of their faces

One of the most explicitly racist comments was made during another interview in the same predominantly white school. Max and Jeremy, both British white, said:

Max: My dad's ermm a racist because he don't like no brown skinned people but he does like half caste cos there's a wrestler that's half caste De Roc …..but he does like half castes, 'cos he's just fine with half castes, 'cos he used to take the rip out of half castes but I said ‘don't dad because it's a bit nasty but you can take the rip out of Hindus because I don't like them’. 'Cos it's Bin Laden he's like the boss of all the Hindus (2.1) That's about all I know …..
Jeremy: My dad says like ermm I'm not going to let you go to a mosque because it's not for your type and it's only Pakis that go and because my Dad doesn’t' like em
2 Influence of the School, conclusions drawn from research conducted in England and Southern Germany.

Despite the majority of children expressing anti-racist attitudes nevertheless I also noted a ‘white western privilege’ stance in all four English schools, and this was also dominant in the German fieldwork. I drew conclusions from my data concerning the influence of a school on a child’s multicultural awareness. Firstly I discovered that the organisation of the curriculum in England and also in Southern Germany reinforces a white Western standpoint. Secondly the formal curriculum in England and also Southern Germany is often ineffectual at challenging stereotyping, reducing prejudice and questioning the domination of a white Western perspective (Blair et al 1999; Kincheloe and Steinberg 1997). Thirdly, the hidden curriculum in England sometimes reinforces stereotyping and can implicitly communicate white Western privilege (Back and Nyak 1993; Jones 1999; Gaine 2005). Finally I suggest that some of the children in the English schools seemed to be dominated, either intentionally or unintentionally, by authoritarian teachers who had a view of children as inferior (James 1995). I proceed to argue that the domination of children by adults may be linked with the domination of white Western culture (Adorno et al 1950).

Organisation of education system in Germany

The German Education system is quite different to the British one in several respects; children attend Kindergartens (aged 3-7 years old) before starting formal Grundschule (primary school) at 7 years old in Klasse 1. In Klasse 4 children undergo tests and assessments to determine which secondary school they will attend. It is difficult to present definitive percentages and obviously each local area is different but generally I was told by one of my respondents in the German fieldwork

About 30-50% go on to Gymnasium, age 10-18/19 (grammar school), and 20-30% attend Realschule age 10 - 16 (secondary modern), the last group continue on to Hauptschule age 10-14 (for the less academic children), which often has strong links with Berufschule (apprentice work). (Frau I )

I had a discussion with one mother at a local Kindergarten who told me that this tier system did not work as well for borderline children who may just have missed getting into the Gymnasium, and then they did less well than other children who managed to attend the Gymnasium. Likewise, those who just missed being placed in the Realschule and who ended up in the Hauptschule, were equally disadvantaged. A
retired Gymnasium teacher, Frau I, spoke of upper class Afghanistan, Italian and Iranian people who arrived in Germany 40 years ago and whose children speak perfect German and who usually go to the Gymnasium. These children are seen as ‘virtual’ Germans because they are from the upper classes of their countries, and yet the lower socio economic classes, the migrant workers, who are also necessary to Germany as they provide cheap labour, are viewed less favourably according to Frau I. She said most of these ‘lower class Ausländer’ go to the Realschule and then take apprenticeships or go into the catering business.

Many [lower class Ausländer] work in restaurants. Most [indigenous] Germans don’t like to do that because the hours are unsociable and the pay isn’t very good. (Frau I)

During an interview with Prof Boes, who had conducted research into immigration issues and modes of multiculturalism (2000), a similar point was made. He described the difference between nationality and citizenship in Germany:

Many immigrants try to ‘become’ German by applying for citizenship – there is a new law about this, but there is resistance to this. There is a difference between citizenship and nationality. Some [immigrants] cannot gain German nationality – therefore they cannot be voted into a democratic political position. (Prof Boes)

We discussed the consequence of this as being the insular nature of German society and the continued ostracisation of ‘Ausländer’ who were often seen and treated as second class citizens. This is consistent with claims by Boes (2000) and Hoff (1995).

Student teachers Herr R and Frau R, both of Muslim background, discussed the factors underlying immigrant underachievement:

Herr R: Immigrants often don’t speak German at the age of 6 or 7 when compulsory education begins. Many do not send their children to the Kindergartens and so they don’t get to learn German – they are therefore at a disadvantage when they start in Klasse 1 and they never catch up. When they get to take the test at 10 [Klasse 4] they don’t do well and most go to Hauptschule.

Frau R: We both did well at Primary school and we made it to Gymnasium but most Ausländer go to Hauptschule

It is important to note that Germany does not have a private school system (fee paying schools) as there exists in Britain and so the high achievers go to the Gymnasium and the less able students tend to attend the Hauptschule. Herr R added:
Herr R: Hauptschule are not very good schools and no one wants to teach in them – the
children who attend are really difficult. Hardly anyone from the Haupschule and very few
from the Realschule make it to university
Thus it could be argued, the organisation of the schooling in Southern Germany,
discriminates, against Ausländer who find it difficult to get in to the Gymnasium and
therefore their prospects of attending University are reduced, thus limiting their job
prospects. This is a similar finding to Lewis (2005) who, in her study of American
schools, claimed that Latinos and African American children were disadvantaged
because of the schools they attended, and their life chances limited compared with
their white peers who attended predominantly white schools in ‘nice’ neighbourhoods
and went on to “get good jobs”(2005:155).

Organisation of Education system in England
In England there are also different types of schools but currently parents can, to a
certain extent, choose which school to send their child, for example community
schools, and various types of faith-based schools (Francis and Lankshear 1993;
Parker-Jenkins et al 2005). Also in England parents can choose to send their children
to fee paying schools which, by nature, usually bar children from low socio economic
backgrounds, although scholarships are sometimes available (Independent School
2007).

When considering racism Blair et al (1999) consider the very organisation of the
curriculum to be at the heart of the problem of the underachievement of minority
ethnic children and they highlight, among other things the very poor academic level of
ethnic monitoring nationally. This has improved in recent years (DFES 2007),
however, it is still the case that minority ethnic pupils are often disadvantaged. The
Training and Development Agency (TDA) funds a project, Multiverse which
developed a website for supporting the achievement of minority ethnic pupils and
exploring issues of diversity (Multiverse 2006).
I would argue that minority ethnic children, in England, are beginning to receive a
more ‘equal’ education than previously, after the Macpherson Report (1999).

Formal Curriculum: Germany
In these sections I show how the design of the curriculum in both Southern Germany
and England promotes, to varying degrees, white privilege (Heldke and O’Conner
2004; Lewis 2005).
Education in Germany is decentralised and each of the provinces (Länder) have autonomy (Hull 2005) and in turn are influenced by the ideologies of the particular political party in power for example the Christlich Demokratische Union or the Green Party. Many parties have a Christian base for example the Christlich Demokratische Union, and so this is transmitted into the school curriculum.

The curriculum in the German province of Baden-Württemberg is set out in the Bildungsplan (syllabus), which all schools follow (Baden-Württemberg 1994a). The schools in my sample had a content-led rather than child-led curriculum. The teaching and learning which I observed was mainly whole class teaching of a particular theme which had been dictated by the Bildungsplan (Baden-Württemberg 1994a). However the Early Years education in Baden-Württemberg was very different. This was predominantly a very child-centred curriculum. I visited one Early Year’s Setting, which was a Katholische Kindergarten (Catholic Pre-school) on a regular basis for two months, and here the children were engaged in Early Years activities. Early Years educators who are particularly interested in issues of discrimination, for example Brown (1998, 2000) advocate a system which is more ‘play’ orientated

How we encourage children to learn is as important as, and inseparable from the content of what they learn. Active collaborative learning in small groups can promote the development of concepts, skills attitudes and the ability to argue rationally. It is a challenging approach which does not fit easily with a curriculum geared to compartmentalised knowledge, back to basics and formal teaching methods. (Brown 1998:91)

Thus the German system, in Baden-Württemberg, supports the ideologies of a child-centred and ‘play’-led curriculum for the Early Years, yet ironically I would argue that the German system after pre-school is less child-centred. Similarly the pre-school curriculum in Southern Germany advocated a more egalitarian ethos whereas the upper schools segregated children, and Ausländer often seemed to be at a disadvantage (Lähnemann 2006).

I would argue that the organisation of the formal curriculum has an impact on the development of the children’s conceptualisation of learning. For example Heimat and Sachunterricht (homeland and topic) lessons I observed included a study of
indigenous Germans and ‘others’ who have come to live in Germany therefore creating, a ‘them’ and ‘us’ culture.

Religion lessons are monitored by the Protestant and Catholic churches. Herr R told me that the newly instigated Islam Religion classes will be monitored by Muslim communities, because there is no formal hierarchy of Islam in Germany comparable to the Evangelische or Katholische churches. Teachers of religion are expected to have a personal belief and all priests have an obligation to teach in schools each week whether they are particularly suited to this or not. Religion lessons are mainly confessional in approach and appeared to concentrate on faith nurture which is in contrast to British RE, which in community schools focuses on ‘learning about’ and ‘learning from’ religion in an educative rather than faith nurture approach (QCA 2004). However RE is given a very high status in Germany which is different from many schools in England where sometimes RE has a very low profile.

Herr and Frau R both said that Islamophobia had become a problem for Muslims and they felt it their responsibility to inform indigenous Germans, through the curriculum, that Muslims, as well as others, condemned the attack of September 11th, and that this was not “true Islam” (Lähnemann 2006).

There were opportunities for Multicultural and Intercultural education in the Lehrplan (Curriculum Syllabus) in the sections ‘Cross Curricular themes’ which Baden-Württemberg teachers follow in the Grundschule (Baden-Württemberg 1994a). The guidance states that Christians believe that in spite of differences “we” are “all God’s children” and Biblical references are given (Baden-Württemberg 1994a:173). Thus despite the good intentions of encouraging these children from other lands to tell about their country, animals, religious beliefs, cuisine etc this is done from a monoculture perspective (Kincheloe and Steinberg 1997).

This monocultural, white, western, privilege perspective is evidenced by Frau B, the headteacher of a Grundschule, and former Olympic swimmer, who spoke of the ‘lazy’ and ‘wrong’ lifestyle of ‘Turkish immigrants’. When she was describing what was covered in Heimat (homeland) studies she said:

Frau B: They [Turkish immigrants] do take part in swimming lessons though, at least. I think swimming is very important. In the Turkish bath they just sit and talk. In our culture it’s important to swim. There was a Greek philosopher who said if you are educated you can read
and write and swim. So I explain to them it’s a part of our life. If you can’t swim you are stupid. In India they don’t swim. When you are born you have an instinct- you want to crawl, walk and swim. You have to learn [to do them all]. Poseidon was a very high God – everyone ought to swim, including girls.

Frau B, made a clear distinction between the Turkish immigrants and the indigenous German children using ‘us’ and ‘them’ language and the indigenous Germans are definitely seen as the superior group.

However this white western privilege attitude was not prevalent in all the schools in my Southern Germany study. Frau N a class teacher in N school, talked about a Turkish girl in her class:

We talk about her difficulties, yes, but look at what she can do- she has 2 languages- she’s clever. My classes are very tolerant- today they clapped her [the Turkish girl].

Frau N was a very caring teacher who strove to address inclusion issues by not stereotyping. She had high expectations of all children and she kept behavioural problems under control without being authoritarian.

**Formal Curriculum in England**

In English faith-based schools, RE is often confessional in nature, but the extent to which the faith community has an influence on the curriculum is dependent on the status of the school (Francis and Lankshear 1993; Parker-Jenkins et al 2005). In all community schools and many faith-based schools RE is taught as Religious Education and not faith nurture as set out in the Non-Statutory National Framework for RE (QCA 2004:3). In my English research I found that children’s multicultural awareness was often developed through the Religious Education curriculum as well as through the general school ethos. Religious Education in England is determined by the local SACRE (the standing advisory council for Religious Education) who produce an Agreed Syllabus for all state schools to follow (QCA 2004). Faith-based schools have their own diocesan or faith syllabus.

I would argue that it is more likely for children to be anti-racist and have positive attitudes towards different cultures if they have learnt about them, and learnt how to be respectful towards those who are ‘different’ from them. Unfortunately despite these ‘worthy’ aims of RE, in England, in practice, the aims are not always translated into effective teaching and learning as I discovered in my research. For example when I asked the children about their curriculum, RE was nearly always one of the last
subjects to be discussed. Despite being in one predominantly white school for six weeks in the summer term I did not observe any RE lessons. Stuart told me about the Friday afternoon RE slot on the timetable

We don’t do RE if it’s sunny – we do PE outside. (Stuart, X school)

However, the children of X school, despite being arguably the least knowledgeable about different cultures, were not the most racist. The most racist comments came from white boys from B school, as I discussed earlier in this paper.

I noticed in the predominantly white schools, that Christo-centric dating was used, dating systems AD and BC, rather than BCE and CE (Before the Common Era and the Common Era).

Impact of the Hidden Curriculum on children’s multicultural awareness

I would argue that the hidden curriculum, or the ethos of the school, is influential on the children’s multicultural development. As I had an opportunity to spend longer in the English schools than in the Southern Germany ones my discussion here draws predominantly on the English context to explore this view further.

I would argue that teachers’ comments and ways of communicating with children had a bearing on the children’s multicultural awareness. I believe that the teacher’s view of children (James 1995) and the way they behave towards children can be linked with a domineering ethos (Devine 2003). Thus if adults see children as inferior, then children grow to learn that inferiority and superiority exists, which in turn could be directed towards different cultures being superior and inferior. This is a similar finding to Adorno et al (1950).

In R school, Mr Denton had ‘favourites’ who were encouraged and praised for contributions and only mildly rebuked if at all for misdemeanours. Conversely the ‘non-favourites’ were often criticised for the same behaviour which had been admissible for the ‘favourites.’ For example, Rosanne, a white girl, was often singled out by Mr Denton as being “annoying.” During a music lesson in Mr Denton’s class, children on the right hand side of the class dominated the discussion about tempo and style of music after listening to some excerpts from a Compact Disc. Terri especially became very animated and called out several times. However Rosanne called out an answer and was reprimanded by Mr Denton:
You are really beginning to annoy me Rosanne Smith.

I think Mr Denton must have realised what I was thinking as he looked at me and then stated

The people over here, although over excited, have something to say which is relevant.

I was not convinced. This provided more evidence pointing to the crucial role of the teacher in promoting children’s self esteem. The teacher’s expectations also play a part in children’s achievement (Brown 1998; Arthur et al 2006). Rosanne remained silent for the rest of the lesson. Terri continued to exuberantly shout out answers and was praised by Mr Denton. From my observations I considered Mr Denton to be a caring and competent teacher, but nevertheless, I felt that he did not treat the children with equal respect. This of course is very difficult to do when as a human being we naturally have preferences for certain types of people, usually people who are more like ourselves.

In D school Mrs Moser did not, I felt, treat the misdemeanours of Melissa, a girl of Caribbean heritage, with the same leniency as other children. In fact both she and Mr Millan seemed very intolerant of Melissa. Melissa was described by both Mr Millan and Mrs Moser as a ‘troublemaker’ and their expectations for her to act as such reinforced their assumptions. Mr Millan described her as a right pain. The children have to take it in turns to have her on their table.

Connolly (1998), Blair et al (1999) and Lewis (2005) have all noted such behaviour, where African Caribbean children were stereotyped. The treatment of Melissa described above can be contrasted with that of Rachel, an African heritage girl in the other high proportion minority ethnic school, whose behaviour had been recognised as ‘disruptive’ but she was offered support in the form of ‘sharing sessions’ with other children, inspired by the work of Moseley (1998). Thus I would argue that in comparing the treatment of these two girls, Rachel’s school’s ethos reflects egalitarian principles more so than Melissa’s school, which incidentally was also Roy’s school – the boy who was deemed a bully and a racist in quadrant C.

In X school, predominantly white, the high turnover of staff, and also of headteachers, had an influence on the relationships between staff and children. I would argue that the instability of staffing at this school led to an ethos of authoritarianism, which was felt necessary to achieve and maintain discipline. There had been an arson attack on
the school by a former pupil the previous year and several members of staff treated children as though they were soldiers in an army being told what to do, rather than children in a school engaging in learning. Lewis (2005), in her research at West City Elementary school, noted a similar trend where “authority and control were regularly asserted in dramatic fashion” (2005:42).

I would suggest that some of the children in the English schools seemed to be dominated, either intentionally or unintentionally, by authoritarian teachers. I would argue that the domination of children by adults may be linked with the domination of white Western culture. Cultures of oppression (Devine 2003) have institutional settings, and the formal and hidden curriculum (ethos) in each school provided climates for the children’s positive or negative attitudes to thrive or remain unchallenged.

3 Implications for Policy and Practice

Finally I discuss several action points from my research findings which are particularly relevant for Initial Teacher Education.

Planned Opportunities for Teaching and Learning in Different Types of Schools

Do Initial Teacher Education Institutions ensure student teachers recognise the importance of incorporating planned opportunities, in curriculum time, for positive discussions about different cultures, and the diversity within as well as between cultures? I found that the most knowledgeable children were also anti-racist because they respected the variety of different perspectives on life from a variety of cultures with which they were familiar (quadrant A table 1). I am not advocating a bland “acceptance of all” cultures without any critical analysis, rather the planned opportunities should encourage informed, rigorous debate coupled with respect for difference.

ITE institutions need to dispel the myth that the ‘contact hypothesis’ (Troyna and Hatcher 1992; Connolly 2000) alone can eradicate racism and develop anti-racism. The ‘contact hypothesis’ is the belief that by integrating children of different ethnicities in one school, children will necessarily be less racist because they work alongside each other and thus will necessarily get on with each other. This has been challenged by Troyna and Hatcher (1992), and in my own research, because I discovered that there were racist children in the high proportion minority ethnic
schools and there were a great many anti-racist children in the predominantly white schools. Thus teachers in high proportion minority ethnic schools cannot rely on osmosis alone to eradicate racism and promote human equality.

Nevertheless ITE institutions need to ensure student teachers realise it is even more important to learn about different cultures for children in predominantly white schools because they do not have the advantage of high proportion minority ethnic schools in having a variety of cultures represented (Troyna and Hatcher 1992). But teachers in predominantly white schools often fail to recognise the need for multicultural education (Gaine 2005; Jones 1999). Gaine (2005), Jones (1999) and Lewis (2005) have all conducted research which correlates with my own findings, namely that teachers in predominantly white schools think that multicultural education is for minority ethnic children. Therefore it should be highlighted to ITE student teachers that planned opportunities for multicultural and anti-racist education are crucial in all types of school, to combat both ignorance and potential racism. Numerous resources are available to support the teacher such as Dadzie (2000) *Toolkit for talking Racism*, Knowles and Ridley (2005) *Another Spanner in the Works*, and websites such as Oxfam Cool Planet (2007), and Multiverse (2006).

**Teaching and Learning: Starting Early to Eradicate Racism**

Do ITE courses in Early Years Education encourage student teachers to foster, in young children, positive attitudes towards different cultures and discourage young children from copying the discriminatory attitudes which surround them from, for example the Media, their families, the school, the local community etc? (Brown 1998, 2001). In my study I found that the most racist children were the youngest and least able, (in category D table 1). It has been argued that prejudiced attitudes remain unchallenged throughout the primary phase and possibly continue into secondary education and adulthood (Brown 1998, 2001). The use of Persona dolls can support learning about different cultures and encourage adopting positive attitudes (Brown 2001, Elton-Chalcraft 2006). In order to eradicate racism I would argue that racism needs to be “unlearned” (Brown 1998).

**Awareness of Macro and Micro Climate**

Many of the children in my research were either naturally respectful, or had learnt to be respectful towards those of another culture. However, anti-racism is not just about
‘being nice’ to a particular person (Blair et al 1999), institutional racism must be avoided too (Macpherson 1999). I would agree with Troyna and Hatcher (1992:37) that it is not sufficient to think about the “micro perspective” of bullying and racist incidents in the school without also taking into account the “macro” situation which could be described as “institutional racism” (Macpherson 1999; Lewis 2005). Thus issues of equality need to be extended beyond the concept of equal opportunities within the classroom to realise that equality is not in evidence in society at large (Troyna and Hatcher 1992; Lewis 2005). The implication is to encourage children to ‘be nice’ to each other in school, but also to encourage them to acknowledge, explore and challenge injustices that they see in the world outside the school gates.

Awareness of White Western Privilege. Promoting Anti Racism.

Do ITE courses encourage students to consider the influence and dominance of white Western culture? (Jones 1999; Gaine 2005; Lewis 2005). I found that many children used white Western language and referred to white Western culture as being the ‘norm’. Some teachers argue that they do not want to discriminate between children of different ethnicities because this in itself is racist and may lead to conflict but this has been disputed by Jones (1999). I would agree, such an attitude denies a child’s identity and also may deny that prejudice exists (Jones 1999; Gaine 2005). Thus teachers need to explore differences as well as similarities between peoples. I agree with both Gaine (1995, 2005) and Jones (1999) who acknowledge that racism can flourish where there is “colour blindness” and a denial of difference.

Also it is important for teachers to explore the multi faceted nature of identity, (Back and Nyak 1993; Modood 2007). People cannot be stereotyped into one category, and the concept of identity is an important issue which can be explored in the classroom for example using ‘philosophy for children’ (P4C) to consider prejudicial and stereotypical attitudes (Knowles and Ridley 2005; Philosophy for Children 2006).

I have found that the organisation of schools and the very curriculum itself may be partly responsible for allowing racist attitudes to flourish. This is a similar finding to earlier work by Troyna and Hatcher (1992) and to Lewis’s American study (2005). Guidance to support ITE and CPD programmes includes the Multiverse (2006) and DfES (2007) websites. There also needs to be an overhaul of the curriculum which Parker-Jenkins et al suggest is
At best Eurocentric and at worst Britocentric but rarely multicentric. (2005:145)
My findings support this claim as does Lewis’s work; she calls for schools to fulfil,
The role they have been cast in- that of the great equalisers. (Lewis 2005:37)

**Considering the Links between Racism and Bullying Behaviour**
Are concepts such as ‘domination’ and ‘oppression’ rigorously debated in ITE courses? As my research progressed I considered the links between domination of children, racism and oppression (Adorno et al 1950; Devine 2003). Further research is needed to correlate this finding, however I believe it is important for teachers to consider how they treat children; because if there is a domination of teacher over child, or child over child, then this could foster ‘domination tendencies’ which could result in racism and discrimination (Troyna and Hatcher 1992; Devine 2003). In my own research, the one child who was deemed to be racist and yet knowledgeable was also deemed to be a bully (quadrant C table 1).

Racism is often linked with domination of one group over another (Adorno et al 1950)
The influence of the school ‘climate’ should not be underestimated. Similarly if teachers view children as ‘inferior’ and lacking in status (James 1995), then they are creating an atmosphere of antagonism which could promote racism and prejudice.

I would agree with Devine that “treating children seriously as humans in their own right” is a relatively new phenomena (2003:2). This is despite the existence of a children’s rights movement which spans many decades (Parker-Jenkins 1999). Policy on teacher training should more adequately reflect emerging norms and values concerning the status and treatment of children.

**Teacher’s Mind Set**
What mind set do student teachers hold concerning diversity issues? When discussing different cultures with my students, I often use the *Dr Xargle: An Alien’s View of Earth Babies* picture book (Willis and Ross 1988), as an illustration of how language can be culturally biased. Dr Xargles, an alien teacher who instructs his class about “earthlets”, human babies, uses terminology from his own species or the ‘jargon’ terminology of the humans, thus demonstrating cultural dominance for example:
They [earthlet babies] have one head and only two eyes, two short tentacles with pheelers on the end and two long tentacles called leggies. (1988:3)

Dr Xargles has five eyes and two long tentacles and is thus using his own cultural language to describe another culture. This is similar to Kincheloe and Steinberg’s pluralist multiculturalism, “Hannuka is the Jewish Christmas”, (1997) and in my own research one Sikh girl referred to the “Gurdwara” (Sikh place of worship) as “Church”. Teachers could avoid this by ensuring their mind set is non-biased and they refer to a religion or culture using its own terminology (Elton-Chalcraft 2006). I would agree with Brown who states (my italics):

Racism and other social inequalities are deeply rooted in British history and still profoundly affect the lives of children and their families. These inequalities were created by and are being perpetuated by people so they can be changed by people. (Brown 1988:2)

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Teaching on teachers teaching. On teacher education's topology.

Keywords: teacher education, didactics, didaktik

Summary
This paper will investigate in how far “the teacher” could be understood as a topos. As a mold of thinking it will affect not only the professional teaching practitioner but also the teacher education student and teacher educators. It will help us to understand the double role of teacher educators’ work in relation to General Didactics as content of teacher education, and to the concept of “the teacher” which they have to present as anchoring point for the self-image of future teachers as well as a person concerned about self-cultivation (Bildung).

[1] Teaching – Past and Present
Throughout the past 20 years, Teacher Education has experienced attention from many sides in Europe, in which the Bologna Process is just a preliminary stage. Several factors, like admission requirements, the structure of training, length and level of education, the content, or quality standards have been brought out into the light of a public debate on the outcome of schooling (Euridyce 2005, 2006). One can state that the major driving force might be seen in the change of public governance of education in the wake of recent assessment studies (see Hopmann 2007b). This transformation process put the question for the quality of and the actual effect of teachers' work on the forefront of the public discourse and into the center of research.

The ebbs and tides of the discourse on Teacher Education are caused by social-cultural factors. In times of radical social change or fundamental cultural insecurities, teachers are held accountable for the problems that occur. However, it also presents a paradox: teachers (and their work) are at the same time seen as the cause of, and the solution to, the problem. On the one side, the debate is marked by the assignment of blame, but on the other side the profession of the teacher is treated as the future solution. That happens due to the fact that school is widely seen as an arena for the solution of socially and culturally caused problems.

These complex and contrary expectations of the public and the stakeholders cause a contradictory and fluctuating perception of status, professionalism and motivation for teachers - but also among possible future teacher education students. This is just one side of the Janus-
face: on the other side the public will see its image of the teacher confirmed. This causes a circular effect whereby self-image and the perception of the other is a mutual condition. By this means public expectations and teachers changing self-images, evoke periodically changing demands for «better teacher education» and reforms.

The concern of this paper is to present a way in which a philosophy of General Didaktik, can shed light on the future foundation of teacher education. The following question will be raised: “To what degree can the doubleness of teacher education be a starting point for a new mode of research and training in teacher education?” Before being able to do so the text will outline (2) the teachers call, (3) aspects of content of teacher education, (4) present some empirical data to demonstrate less “call” more pragmatism and the paper will finally (5) present the doubleness of teacher education as a possible solution on the basis of topological research.

[2] Teachers Call
According to the concept of new public management, it is taken for granted: social actions like teaching are on the surface driven by the motif of self-interest. The human being is widely described as “homo economicus” or as “animal rationale” (Hobbes, Bentham, Mill). According to these concepts people are motivated in given situations of choice by maximizing their benefits. This often heard generally represented argument leads in the end to the assumption that people act out for themselves - in contrast to the conclusion that the profession of teaching is traditionally seen to be motivated by a personal call.

This is widely described as altruism. Very generally speaking altruism refers to the selfless welfare of others. Altruism is – as August Comte coined it – the deliberate pursuance of others interests; it is focusing on common welfare. The term highlights subordination of ones own concerns, and stands in contrast to egoism by the very basic obligation on public spirit and sociability, in which rational actions are also considered (Pareto). Altruism puts itself into a contrary position based on its concentration on the self (for a broader discussion see Werler & Birkeland 2007, 2008).

This seems to be true at least for the historical period of the nation state where the teachers worked as unselfish "nation builders" (see e.g. Werler 2004). Altruism is also reflected as a
given motif for the choice of a career in teaching throughout the period of the welfare state. This is reflected in recent research. Lortie (1975) suggested that teachers opt for teaching because of the possibility of a unique personal social assignment of a high moral value. Johnson's (1990) summary of research findings prior to the late 1980s on the topic also indicate that the most common factor motivating people to enter teaching was the desire to work with and to help people. A desire for a vocation beyond the fulfillment of personal needs has been given as a reason for choosing teaching as a career in more recent research as well (Brenner, Zelkovitz & Toker, 2002).

[3] Teacher Education's Content
Any teacher education in Europe is concerned with at least three questions. Traditionally, the discourse on teacher education is mainly connected to the question as to the mission of teachers work at school. Strongly bound to this political topic, one has further to see the question concerning the necessary abilities and skills of future teachers for whatever predetermined mission might be established. It is based on this that the question of possible concepts for teaching and training – with respect to teaching the corresponding abilities and skills – will be raised. Consequently, the starting point for any discussion on teachers' teaching seems to be – even on a European level – based on the traditional model of the personality of the teacher. The teacher is widely seen as the “educator” of the younger student. This model finds its basis in Schleiermachers question on the relationship between the older and the younger generation. He puts forth the following question: “What does the older generation want to do with the younger one?” and he continues, "How will the activity meet the object and how will the result correspond to the activity? (Schleiermacher 2000: 9). Schleiermacher offers a basal reason for any institution driven processes of teaching and learning. The school or even the university is the place where the experienced and educated one meets the inexperienced and non-educated student.

These simple questions show the basic problem of education. In contrast to science, which developed a well-ordered and logical field of knowledge and description, education has to understand itself as ambivalent. The subject-matter is not only a fact but also a matter, a task. The pupil has to be taught and fostered. This double-bind situation of theoretical and practical intention opposes objectiveness (Bateson 1972). This double-bind situation is also illustrated
in the fable of *Hyginus*. It emphasizes that it is impossible to flee from the two-sided term “care”. Every human being finds himself in the hands of »care«. On the one side, every human being needs care. On the other side, every human being has to take care of others. They should become members of the society too. Consequently, every form of living is a variation of care (see: Blumenberg 1987). Neither is it possible to love without worrying (about the other), nor is teaching possible without learning. But created situations of learning and teaching are the fundamental condition of the existence of mankind. As there is no teacher without students; there are no students without an educator. Accepting that, every given answer on Schleiermachers problem – what ever that will be – has to be one on the topic of Bildung. All educational concepts build tacitly upon Bildung, the arousal of inner forces of self-cultivation of the human being.

The drawn picture shows that the teacher education student is confronted with a double challenge before he will be able to educate others. Firstly, he has to dispose of subject-matter knowledge and he has to be able to make use of methods of instruction. Secondly, the teacher is supposed to be an educated, a self-cultivated (gebildet) person before he educates and cultivates learners.

After having outlined an overall framework for teaching and teacher education's situation, which seems to be symbolized by the same description throughout Europe: the focus is to be directed on the content. Seen from a structural level teacher education “consists of courses in a variety of subject matters – the content to be taught – and in foundational disciplines that presumably contain information about basic processes involved in teaching and schooling” and teacher education includes “methods, i.e. specifications and procedures for conducting lessons and prescriptions about how to solve common problems teachers face in classrooms” (Doyle & Carter 2003: 133). This is true on a European scale while taking into account, – of course different structure of teacher education in different regions. Besides academic studies in disciplines with relevance for the curriculum of schools, common curricular components seem to focus on courses in subject matter didactics, multicultural education, social studies and often in teaching practice (see Hudson et.al (eds.) 1999; Buchberger et.al. (eds.) 2000). Beyond that, teacher education gains its identity as other academic disciplines (e.g. medicine) by studies in educational sciences (e.g. educational history, *Didaktik*) (Gundem & Hopman

The underlying assumption of such a curricular framework is that knowing about something will provoke actions and the resulting actions are seen as a direct consequence of knowing. If this is the effort then all reform activity – as adoption to social change – will result in concepts giving prospective teachers as much knowledge as possible before they enter the classrooms. This «more of the same» strategy seems to be rather problematic (see Terhart 2005). In the long run it will open up insufficient opportunities to qualify future teachers in all basic aspects of teaching (Brouwer 2007). The following two sections will clarify this thesis. Neither the learning of the great myths of pedagogy nor the work with a multiplicity of didactical theories and methods will contribute to a sustainable teacher education. A presentation of some empirical findings will further strengthen this reasoning.

a) The story of «great man»

As teacher education was installed in the 19th century, part of the curriculum became the history of pedagogy. Proper instruction of future teachers is, since then, not to be without such names as Montaigne, Comenius, Fénélon, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Fröbel, Dewey or Makarenko – just to mention a few. The general idea was to present in teacher education the heritage of the past to “form the future teacher's mode of thinking, their pedagogical outlook, their attitude towards their future position” (Salimova 1993: 104). But, all instruction on the “great man” fulfills the expectation that telling stories, which is a paedagogica perennis will a) promote motivation as well as professional development of teacher identity and b) legitimize traditional values of education. Any question on the relevance of history for the education of teachers is to be rejected (see Depapae 2001). Despite all critique (see Tenorth 2003, Casale 2004, Tröhler 2004) it seems astonishing that teacher education sticks to these stories while the public discourse on education and school is coined by concepts like accountability, performance or benchmarking.
Teachings on the “great man” raise suspicion to establish neither role models who present theory and practice in a desired way, nor a reservoir of concepts and ideas for practice. Rather, they are more myths and symbols: Ellen Key is “The century of the Child”, John Dewey is “Learning by Doing”, Pestalozzi is the “true and human teacher”. All the portraits about education's ancestors are fiction and constructions and serve as “powerful semantics” (Tremel 1999: 49), they symbolize educational tasks and problems of a society which have to be mastered. “They document the stocks of problems and tasks upon which educational theory research and educational practice live” (Tenorth 2003: 12). As topoi they show different solutions for perpetual problems of education. If the “great man” is understood as topoi for a philosophy of Didaktik the new problems of educational theory in light of an everlasting changing context will then open for the possibility to renew research on hypothesized solutions.

b) The Didaktik-story

On a European scale Didaktik was primarily developed as the core discipline of teacher education (see Hudson et.al. 1999) at least since Johann Friedrich Herbart published his book “Allgemeine Pädagogik aus dem Zwecke der Erziehung abgeleitet – General Methods of Instruction derived from the Purpose of Education” (1809). In this context numerous theories and methods about ways of teaching and learning were developed. As instruments of teacher training they were conceptualized as theories of Bildung. But as Hopmann rightly points out, “Bildung cannot be achieved by Didaktik. The only thing Didaktik can do is restrain teaching in a way opening up for individual growth of the student” (Hopmann 2007a: 115). Bildung remains the outcome of the students’ confrontation, treatment and transformation of the difference between matter (Inhalt) and meaning (Gehalt). Only by its own cognitive transformation of taught knowledge will one be able to “grasp as much world as possible” to “achieve as much substance as possible for the concept of humanity in our person”. (Humboldt 1792/2000: 58).

At the bottom line one can agree that the German coined term “Didaktik” is mainly concerned about situations and concepts of teaching and learning. One has to learn something; the other
one has to choose what and how. Content has to be taught by a teacher and has to be learned by a student. According to Künzli (2000: 43), Didaktik deals with at least three problems:

- What is to be taught and learned?
- How is “content” to be taught and learned?
- Why is “content” to be taught and learned?

In addition, the entire concept of “Didaktik” can be put into the so called *didactical triangle* (Paschen 1979; Prange 1983) which consists of poles and its relations. In a reflection and synopsis on different models taught at universities and seminars on the intercourse of teaching and learning in a historical perspective, it is summed up as an axial relation between the *subject* to be taught and learned and the *learner* to whom the “matter” (e.g. subject matter content) is offered by the *teachers* teaching who bridges learner and subject (Künzli 1998).

The pole “content” is defined by restrained cultural artifacts. It is socially fixed to what has to be taught in the classroom. On the basis of teacher's professional competence it is expected that he is able to organize, perform and evaluate his instruction. The teacher’s task is to cope with the subject matter. He has to know students' abilities, their knowledge and their needs. Concerning the student the teacher has to suppose that he possesses the abilities for learning and Bildung.
Then, didaktik is about teacher’s representation of chosen cultural artifacts – written down in the Lehrplan (curriculum). It is about the catechesis of the teacher and the student and about the student’s experience of learning by use of a method.

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With regard to present teacher education programs, Tröhler argues that philosophical arguments from the education discourse are too little embedded in teacher education (Tröhler 2007). It is not the importance of the “great man”. Their presentation in teacher education will not show us a “timeless truth”. But the presentation of “great man's” philosophical argument in its context would help us to understand the traditions within which we find ourselves, as researchers, teacher educators and students. Will that be true for Didaktik?

As Didaktik or thinking about methods of instruction in teacher education are connected to theories of teaching, to theories of school or a theory of Bildung, it is directed towards the construction of a syllabus, to procedures with regard to the macro and micro structure of a lesson and to learning outcomes. But, in contrast to the position of Seel (1999: 88), Didaktik is not the science of the teaching profession; it is subject matter for teacher training. It appears as semantic content, like the stories of the «great man». Didaktik – seen as part of teacher’s education – will produce myths: Comenius is «comprehensive», Herbart is «tact», Klafki is «allgemeine Bildung by key problems». As such, teaching of Didaktik will not help teaching in the classroom, it can’t help the future teacher to define learning outcomes or construct layouts of schools syllabi. It will not serve as a tool for teaching. Teaching on teachers teaching will not work as long as the teacher educator is not able to create a situation where the teacher education student will be able to imagine himself as a future teacher – confronted with didactical decisions. So, as it is true that teacher education is about the introduction of the novice into the world of education by an experienced educator, Didaktik, in fact, gets doubled. Nonetheless, this seems not to be reflected in teacher education at all. One consequence of this is that only the student who has ever seen himself as a teacher will/can be a successful teacher.

Thus, it would be more rational to choose a completely different career. This leads us to the hypothesis that students might have different reasons for choosing a probably poorly paid
career – which in addition to the financial aspects - exhaust either their mind or their body. The motivation for this profession will than be the individual, in an altruism based calling. However, if the profession of a teacher is only an exit option (the only way to get into university), then the motivation and the self-image is missing compared to those who feel called to the teaching profession. Those students cannot imagine themselves as teachers despite their instruction on the «great man» or Didaktik. Some empirical evidence for this provocative hypothesis will be presented later on (see section 4).

What is missing is a philosophy of Didaktik for teacher education which embeds the role of the teacher educator, the teacher education student and Didaktik as content. This would allow the teacher education student to imagine himself as a prospective teacher – gaining motivation out of the topoi of classical Didaktik. Then topoi like «teacher», «pupil» or «Bildung» will serve as a thinking pattern (Denkform). Furthermore, the resulting philosophy on Didaktik would allow us to position ourselves in a world made of knowledge and – much more important – it would allow us to choose between different concepts and ideologies. First, if we are able to see the different concepts of education which have gone with various different societies one is able to discover one's placement. Learning from the past always means separating necessity from contingency, which is “the key to self-awareness itself” (Skinner 1988a, p. 67).

[4] Pictures Evoking Doubts

Teacher education throughout Europe is in transition. One might see some evidence for that in the Bologna process and the introduction of standards for teacher education. They are largely defined by generic and subject specific competencies of teacher education, as they are defined by the Tuning-Project (see González, Wagenaar 2003). The project highlights intellectual knowledge and individual qualifications (see ibid. p. 61-98, 125-136). However, it seems to be very difficult to implement not only new structures of teaching and learning, but also the idea of educational standards (Broadhead 2002; Lindblad, et al. 2002; Karlsen 2004).

The discourse on standards appeared in the wake of new public management which has, over the last decade, challenged classical professions which build on the professional triangle of autonomy, knowledge & altruism (see Hirst 1982). The dissolution of the nation-state
abandoned the golden age of the nation building teacher (see Werler 2004). His professionalism ends with the central government investing in classroom practice within the framework of the free market (see Bottery & Wright 2000). But this politics had consequences. Recent data from qualitative in-depth study of teacher education students shows a change in reasons given for their motivation to become a teacher. Two following examples presenting recent research data evoke doubts on students motivation – and therefore on their self-image. When looking at the data, one might ask if in this way sustainable and high-quality teacher education is possible.

a) Are Teachers in Need of Empowerment?

The human being is widely described as “homo economicus”, as “homo faber” or as “animal rationale”. Likewise, this concept seems to be valid in situations for the choice of career. When students have to make their choice out of a bunch of courses of study people might be driven by the above mentioned motifs. Theories of self-interest or theories of rational choice propose a solid foundation for strong explanatory power for the formation of society.

When looking at motivations for students' career choice to “teach,” the student will be confronted with the questions as to what he wants to do and what he ought to do. Norwegian third-year teacher education students (n= 103, response rate 88%) were asked to give 1) reason for their choice of career and 2) to describe their (professional) career expectations (see Werler & Birkeland 2007).

With these simple questions we tried to identify utilitarian aspects (self-interest vs. altruism) in their choice of career. A quite clear picture appeared. On question one, 39% of the students showed an altruistic motivation; yet another 39% showed self-interest as motivation. With regard to question two, only 13% of the students expressed an altruistic motivation. Approximately 69% saw themselves as driven by self-interest. Missing percentage up to 100% indicates that student’s answers were labeled as “exit option” (question 4: 22%; question 5: 18%). Either they indicated that teaching training was their last possibility for getting into university (due to enrollment limits) or they followed their parents' advice. The distribution of data occurred as predicted. A relatively high percentage of students express self-interest as a central reason for becoming a teacher. Despite this, self-interest increases by
professional socialization at the university. A quite similar picture is presented in a German longitudinal study.

**b) Not committed, not motivated**

After having asked German teacher education students (n= 1000) on multiple occasions throughout their education and in their first professional years about their career choice and their aptitude for the teaching profession, clear results were found.

Three types of students/professionals were described in this investigation (Rauin & Gold 2007). More than 62% of the respondents indicated that they chose teacher training because of pragmatic motifs and they were skeptical about their aptitude for being a teacher. Solely 38% were represented by the circle of the engaged. About 60% of those who felt overloaded showed little commitment during their course of study, this is true for only 10% of the same students. Surprisingly, 25% of all respondents stated that they never intended to become teachers. They felt their study was a less-than-ideal solution – and dropped out as soon as possible.

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The overall picture allows for the assumption of new professional identities as reflection on the new public management discourse in teacher education emerges. Choosing teaching as a profession seems to be no longer powered by altruism. Future career expectations seem to be more guided by a common discourse of competition and labor safety than a unique professional discourse developed by educational means. In view of Spranger (1958), who argued for an educational ethic, the most important condition for the profession of teacher might say that not only 'born educators' but also pragmatists wiggle into the teacher training.

Obviously, this statement leads to a provocative conclusion. The classical layout of teacher education, where subject matter didactics (Fachdidaktik) and Didaktik is seen as the professions foundation, has to fail. This construction of teacher education – and even more “improved” by standards – is characterized by its technocratic character. The stories of the “great man” and Didaktik as content of teacher training constitute “powerful semantics” or myths but they collide of course with current motifs of choice. So, prospective teachers become known to Didaktik, or subject matter didactics, as a theory of Bildung or as
approaches to research. But this overlooks the fact that the students find themselves in a
double bind situation (see Werler 2006: 34). As learners they have to gain methodological and
diagnostic competencies and insight into the subject matter. However, they should also learn
to imagine themselves as future teachers. A consequence is that they must meet the possibility
of constructing themselves as teachers teaching and educating (bilden) prospective students.

This implies that classical concepts of teacher education which predominantly are based in the
establishment and maintenance of the nation and/or welfare state do not work any longer. As
there is no philosophy of Didaktik in and for teacher education the prospective teacher will
not have the chance to form a self-image (e.g. nation builder) which will sustain him for ten
or twenty years. The following section will suggest a possible solution for the outlined
problem.

5 [Doubleness of Teacher Education]
Any person involved in situations of teaching and learning has to cope with the concept of the
teacher. Its basal task is to 1) to understand symbolized and codified artifacts of society’s
culture. Secondly, by his activity in the classroom he has to process this content in such a way
that his counterparts (students) are able to build up re-presentations of the symbolic world.

Any teacher – as a practitioner – at school has to actualize and realize their self-conception as
a teacher and accept their tasks in light of the social and cultural formation of students. And
so: any teacher education student has to make use of the topos of the teacher – as a learner –
when he will be able to construe and understand himself as a future teacher. Teacher educator
– as doubled figure – seems to be confronted with a triple task. He has not only to realize
himself as a teacher but also as a teacher teaching about teachers teaching. It gets clear that
“the teacher” is not only a symbol. The teacher itself is a culturally construed artifact. It
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Any teacher – as a practitioner – at school has to actualize and realize his self-image as a teacher. It is the only way, in light of the social and cultural formation of students. And so: any teacher education student – as a learner – has to make use of the topos of the teacher in order to be able to construe and understand himself as a future teacher. The teacher educator seems to be confronted with a triple task. He has not only to realize himself as a teacher but also as a teacher teaching about teachers teaching. It becomes clear that “the teacher” is not only a symbol of a profession. The teacher itself is a culturally construed artifact. It serves as a gold mine and will coin the common ground of a philosophy of Didaktik.

In order to outline the framework of the doubleness of teacher education it has to be asked: what is given in any situation of teaching in teacher education? As demonstrated above: the experienced one who possesses knowledge mainly about the different ways of teaching (Didaktik) has to take care of the novice. This simple layout recalls Schleiermacher's question and makes it clear that also teacher education has to answer it. The inner logic of teacher education has to educate (bilden) the prospective teacher. As a professional he will be characterized by expertise (subject matter knowledge), its ability to teach students and he will imagine himself as a teacher.

Therein teacher education could be described by the terms of Didaktik and the didactical triangle (Paschen 1979, Prange 1986). As a matter of fact, the teacher educator and the novice are physically present in any given pedagogic situation at the university. The difference, as compared to classical Didaktik, is that teacher education has not to deal with children but rather with not-yet-being teachers.

Rather difficult to analyze in this respect, is the matter of content. It was said that content appears restrained in Didaktik. Therefore, one has to ask of what is content in teacher education if it is a cultural artifact. Of course, it is knowledge about the subject. But isn’t the teacher educator also trying to teach how to teach? A classical answer was seen in Didaktik. This might be relevant for highly motivated – called – teacher education students as they will learn to reflect their profession. However, when the teacher educator teaches about teaching he will – in the framework of the didactical triangle – also teach about the topoi of content,
student and teacher. The prospective teacher will learn about two poles in their work to come. So, they will learn how to deal with possible future curricula (Lehrpläne) and the generic premises of learners (Bildsamkeit, see Werler 2005). At least these two aspects of a pedagogic situation are stable and necessary for successful teaching. But these two poles are brought to the mind in the form of ideas (e.g. topoi). In addition, one has to keep in mind that the future teacher’s students might not yet be born and the content of Lehrplan might be changed overnight.

Thus, a distinction between practice and the world of ideas is introduced in teacher education. Both the teacher educator as well as the teacher education student is connected to practical experience. They meet each other in the lecture hall as teacher and learner of ideas. So, when the teacher is presenting the content of the didactic triangle he presents, in fact, concepts of the imagined relationship between an imagined teacher, learner and content. They are topoi – places of ideas (see chap. 6). From there it must be the task of the teacher educator to read the prospective teacher into the image of a teacher. He has to present himself as a skilled and competent professional applying theoretical knowledge in practice. This has to be carried out and presented on the background of Didaktik. The educators’ task appears to be two-folded: he has to imagine the teacher being part of the triangle as well as he has to teach this imagination. One possible solution might be to conceptualize and to perform education on Didaktik with which the educator grasps the teacher education student as novice and as prospective teacher. Only in doing so, will the student meet the chance to imagine himself as prospective teacher teaching unknown learners. This means that teaching on teachers teaching has to start with the imagined teacher teaching on imagined content and learners. In this way teacher education has to allow that any prospective teacher is able to open the world of topoi in his mind. The teacher education student has to be empowered to “read” his culture's concept of knowledge. He has to be empowered to imagine a viable world in which he a) imagines himself as a teacher teaching pupils on a topic, but focusing on their Bildung.

Because of that, teacher education is in need of a didactical concept beyond how Didaktik is taught, so that the student has not only learned about it, but also is able to form and cultivate (bilden) learners. From a perspective of a theory of Bildung (e.g. Maschelein & Ricken; Biesta; Klafki), one might ask: Must it not be the goal of teacher education, to get the students
to imagine themselves as future teachers? When the idea of the teacher has to become the content and the central concept of teacher education than it can be stated that: firstly, the teacher educator must re-present in his teaching, the idea of the teacher; and secondly, all prospective research should ask how the topoi of Didaktik (“teacher”, “student”, “content”) should be prepared in such a way that the teacher educator is able to direct his teaching to initiate, to internalize, to establish the conception of the students as teachers in themselves. This might be seen as the ideal of Bildung of teacher education. To get teacher students to imagine themselves as future teachers is the only contribution that teacher education can make.

The doubleness of the teaching situation in teacher education.

[6] The topos
From the ancient world until the first third of the 19th century, the term topos was used in an unconsidered manner. Aristotle was the first to show that the term belongs to rhetoric and therefore to Didaktik (e.g., Platon: Gorgias: 456a-457c). Its function was inventio: finding of places for ideas. As a program for research, Curtius outlined the concept of topos in 1938
(Curtius 1972) and extended it in the following years (Curtius 1944). As a concept of research the term “topos” was used for the first time in 1932 (Jehn 1972: VII).

A topos is probably best explained as a concept of finding of forms, which lead to arguments and overview. So, *inventio* shows the places (topoi) from where it was possible to find arguments for the speech. Aristotle used the term “topos” as a formal element. But he didn’t define it by subject. Instead he outlined the topos as a norm to find places for evidence. However, the topos isn’t the evidence itself, but its principle. (Veit 1972: 173). Later on, classicists defined *locus communis – the common places* - as a general subject, as a topos. Here it comprises the entire knowledge of a society and all the cultural assets. Therefore, the concept »topos« becomes a form of order.

As a first result of this analysis it becomes clear that topoi have recurrent and spatial presence. They are used as undisputed arguments and expression of collective experiences. They do return in truncated form (e.g., buzzwords like “teacher” or “Bildung”). Then they can be used as “places of overview”. These topoi can be used as starting points for any debate on educational concepts. According to this, topoi are not rigid and unchangeable patterns. Their meaning and consequences change according to the changes in the world around us. New topoi may occur, may change in phases of upheaval. As a result topoi are used as goldmines for the train of thought (*argumentorum sedes*).

Following Veit, a topos appears as a (ruling) thinking pattern (*Denkform*), which is also a “form of thinking of being of reality” (Veit 1972: 82). According to Kuhn (1996) it is possible to characterize the topos as the “structure of being”. Shortly, the topos appears as mold of thinking. The thinking pattern intends and interprets the structure of being. The social discourse on education builds thereupon. So topoi can simultaneously take effect: educational, social psychological, sociological, political or even economical.

If one tries to understand educational texts, context or even an educational situation, it is recommended that one considers whether the plot follows the tradition of a topos. Does the plot provide a thinking pattern, which interprets the structure of being? Does the researcher find temporally independent concepts like “the teacher”? How are they principally construed?
Consequences for research

A topos should not be understood as an instrument of literature but as a method and tool for research. Here one may find the difference between ancient topic (Aristotle) and modern topological research. Topology as a concept of research may show constants and continuities. But it isn't about a collective idea history. The objective of topological research is to gain knowledge and the realization of a historically changed situation and its equivalent (e.g. Didaktik). Topological research will observe the change of the content of the topos (teacher, content, and student) as well as the change of the semantics used. Therefore, the guiding principles have to be: (a) finding a topos on its place; and (b) lighting up the horizon of meanings. Thus, one may ask in addition what metaphors and symbols were used.

Topological thinking wins objectivity when it confronts itself constantly with its problems. Therefore, it has to insert itself into the unity of the discourse of the problem (Veit 1972: 66). Objectivity ensures, by observation, isolation of findings, marking of results, comparisons, and it has to conclude in analogies. Thus, topological research allows the differentiation of the individual and the typical. This is only feasible if topoi are compiled and developed out of the sources. Moreover, reasons for the transformation of meaning have to be given. Furthermore, the founding ground has to be disclosed: why does this topos exist? Since the topos is a strengthened and traditionally relevant matter of fact, topological research can’t be – consequently – catalogue work or research on dependencies. In doing so, topological research is critical on a self-evident writing of history. Finally, topological research will map the topology of the discourse (e.g. the imagined relationships between the poles of the didactic triangle).

A topology of European teacher education has to map traditions of teacher education and its systems – which will be discussed according to their break-up. Furthermore, the relationships between the topoi have to be analyzed. One has to ask for the possibility of understanding education as a symbolic representation of society. On a more pragmatic level of research one should investigate cultural arenas (e.g. Franco-Romanic, German, Scandinavian, Slavonic) for teacher education. The emerging map will contain topoi as places and spaces of the educational arena and it will show the dominating ones.
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Advancing Research in and on Teacher Education

Working Group One
TEPE Conference
23 February 2008

Key Issues

› Three overarching themes
  › Research based approach to teacher education
  › Lifelong learning
  › Professionalism

Key Recommendations

› Identifying a European research agenda
› Global agenda
› Professionalism
› Practitioner based research in schools and links with policy
› Central role of the university in the education of teachers
› Creation of arenas for bringing together the links between practice, research and policy
TEPE Conference, Ljubljana, Slovenia, 21.-23.2.2008

Report from the Working Group on
Mobility and the EU Dimension in Teacher Education

Session chair: Professor Jens Rasmussen
Rapporteurs: Dr. Erika Löfström, Dr. Eve Eisenschmidt

The papers presented in the working group touched upon a variety of topics including comparison of best practices in teacher education, analyses of education policy documents, social changes in the teacher’s role and competences, mobility as a trigger for teacher’s professional development, change and transition in teacher education, and school leadership. The discussion following the presentations broadly focused on mobility, the European teacher education discourse, evidence-based policy making, provision of teacher education, and quality assurance.

The participants of the working group discussed the need to expand university teaching and research staff’s possibilities to engage in international exchange. Mobility in the discussion embraced the mobility of both people and ideas. The continuation of initiatives such as the Erasmus programmes for student teachers was recognised as was the need to communicate examples of good practice to education policy makers.

Academics are an important link between research and policy making as they possess direct access to the latest research. Therefore, they should also actively participate in interpreting and communicating research to policy makers. Too often the interpretations of for instance comparative research that media provide do not represent the interpretations of academic researchers. This could certainly be avoided to some degree if universities take an active role in interpreting causes and implications of research. Further, involvement in analysing how educational issues are reported in media is necessary. It was pointed out that the perceived importance of research over policy making may prevent academics from actively engaging in discussions on implications of research and its reporting in media. There should be incentives in place for teachers to participate in research and its dissemination to the public, policy makers and media. Networking was called for as a means for universities to strengthen their opportunities to participate in policy making.

Active discussion of education policy in universities is needed, and Higher Education institutions need to network. Having direct access to research results universities and their research-active staff need to adopt a proactive stance and embrace the idea of providing their expertise to policy makers. There are apparent dangers of unwarranted interpretations of international comparative research in media, which may have detrimental effects on national „educational climate”. Returning to the topic of mobility, the innovative implementation of already developed ideas and practices is to be welcomed and supported. At the same time, interpretations of research in the European context as well as implementation of ideas based on comparative research should always
be made taking contextual variables into account. This is where universities need to recognise their responsibility as providers of interpretation.

After a discussion on to the credibility of the evidence in evidence-based policy making, the discussion evolved to the quality of institutions providing teacher education in Europe. Higher Education institutions responsibilities in providing quality education, and assuring the quality with appropriate mechanisms was recognised. In this responsibility a stronger alliance among European universities as well as the transparency of evaluation criteria were called for. Overall, a stronger emphasis on in-service teacher education as life-long learning and part of developing the teaching force was brought to the fore.

Based on the discussion in the working group, the following recommendations emerged:

- Continued emphasis should be placed on the mobility of people and ideas, including the innovative implementation of already developed practices in novel contexts.
- Higher Education institutions should recognise their responsibility in communicating research results to policy makers, public, and media, and actively provide input into evidence-based policy making.
- Higher Education institutions should provide teacher education across the teachers’ professional career, including pre-service, induction, in-service education, and leadership training as a part of these, and vocational teacher education.
- In assuring the quality of teacher education Higher Education institutions need to recognise their responsibility.
- In order to develop the points mentioned above, European universities providing teacher education will benefit from building stronger networks.
1. Issue of diversity in quality definition

Internal QA orientation:
- Q as fitness for purpose
- Q as transformation of learners
- Q as institutional change
- Q as excellence

External QA orientation:
- Q as compliance to standards
- Q as customer satisfaction
- Q as value for money

Recommendations:
All concepts are legitimate but actors should be aware of them and positions should be explained and communicated between them.

2. Issue of quality assurance approach

- Moving from evaluation culture concept (externally driven, quantitative approach, performance based indicators, sanction orientation)
- To quality culture concept
  - (internally driven, based on self-evaluation, including process indicators, development orientation)

Recommendation: Capacity building of institutions to implement quality culture approach

3. Issue of institutional Quality culture

Institutional Quality culture encompasses:
- Top down approach (quality management)
- Bottom up approach (commitment to quality values and capacity for development)

Recommendation:
- Ensuring two-way communication and mutual trust about consequences
- Developing tools for quality control and quality development/improvement

4. Issue of LLL perspective in QA

- QA mainly applied to the ITE (national and institutional strategies, evaluation and self-evaluation procedures)

Recommendation:
QA policies, standards, and tools should be developed across the total span of CPD.

Agreed aspects of quality in ITE

- Enhancing student potential
- Efficiency in the management of resources
- Promotion of social democratic/values
- Outcomes/performance based goals (fitness for qualifications)
- Recognition of students needs (equity principle)
5. Issue of QA infrastructure

- Infrastructure not fully developed at all levels (better at the international and national levels) then institutional

- Recommendation:
  - providing means for establishing infrastructural support at institutional level (QA offices, QA teams at the level of University, Faculty, Department,)
  - training for (self)evaluation procedures

6. Issue of definition of quality indicators

- Should the indicators be product oriented or should the learning processes be tapped as well
- Issue of tangible and intangible outcomes

Recommendation:
- using different sources and methods for measuring and monitoring both educational process as well as educational outcomes.

Issue of evaluation overload

- Issue of QA procedures for their own sake
- Lack of motivation, missing points, unclear goals

- Recommendations:
  - Be sensitive and realistic in imposing QA tasks
  - Improving communication and reporting
  - Auditing and reflection of the evaluation and selfevaluation processes

- Thanks to all participants in group 3. for their innovative and critical approaches offered in their presentations and their rich contributions to the discussion!
Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

The second TEPE Conference, hosted by the Faculty of Education, University of Ljubljana from 21st to 23rd February 2008, constituted a European forum of around 100 participants from 23 countries representing most European regions in discussions on various aspects of teacher education policy in Europe. These conclusions and recommendations aim to synthesise key messages of the Conference.

Aims of the conference

Three main clusters of questions were addressed around the following themes:

- Advancing Research in and on Teacher Education
- Mobility and the European Dimension in Teacher Education
- Evaluation Cultures in Teacher Education

Over 30 plenary and workshop presentations focused on good practices, strategies and comparative analyses of teacher education in Europe and provided an impressive background for further exchange of views, debates and the search for common positions in workshops. A panel with representatives of various stakeholders including teacher education institutions, students, school teachers, trade unions as well as representatives of the European Commission, the Council of Europe, the European Training Foundation and the European Network on Teacher Education Policies (ENTEP) provided an additional opportunity to address issues from a variety of angles and to build common principles for future action.

The momentum for teacher education in Europe

“Europeanisation” in (higher) education has reached a point at which key details at the institutional and disciplinary levels have to be resolved for it to move to the next qualitative level. Conference discussions confirmed that today this situation demands sustained dialogue, reflection, exchange and co-operation underpinned by research in the very processes of reform and renewal at European universities. The academic world is able – and willing – to provide policy analysis in order to strengthen a process of decision making both at the institutional level and European level in a further process of “concerting”.

The development of educational policy is a genuine task for universities and higher education institutions that calls for their contribution at this time. This is especially the case in the field of teacher education. In the last two to three decades, Teacher Education has become a large and important segment of higher education with, on average, about 10% of all students, mainly future teachers, educators and education experts. Recent policy documents at national as well as at European levels increasingly stress the importance of primary and secondary education in implementing Lifelong Learning and in building and sustaining the Knowledge Society. Therefore, Teacher Education can and should respond to new challenges: effective Teacher Education Policy should be developed as a transparent “chapter” of a wider Education Policy, both at a national as well as at a European level.

http://www.pef.uni-lj.si/tepe2008/
Teacher education policy must also be viewed from an institutional perspective. Studies in Teacher Education Policy can link several research fields that are inherent to Faculties of Teacher Education (regardless of how they are described and/or organised) giving them an interdisciplinary basis and character and signifying areas to be included in quality assurance in teacher education: for example subject didactics, ICT and learning, curriculum development, assessment and evaluation, quality issues, equality in education, special educational needs, moral philosophy and an ethic of care in education and education for democratic citizenship and the public good. Research in Education and/or Teacher Education Policies is a precondition for improved governance of institutions and systems (for example quality enhancement and assurance, comparability and compatibility of qualifications) as well as for improved teaching and learning at teacher education institutions (for example the preparation of future teachers, pre-service courses and continuing professional development, graduate programmes, doctoral studies and research programmes).

The Conference participants welcomed the recently published communication from the European Commission (August 2007) on “Improving the Quality of Teacher Education” and agreed that it provides new opportunities to synthesise previous discussions and to build a new common approach. Universities and higher education institutions in general should take a central role in this field. During a period when we move steadily closer towards achieving the goal of the European Higher Education Area as declared by the Bologna Process, it is most urgent that these issues are (re-)addressed from today’s point of view and on the basis of collegial discussion on questions of common concern in order to identify appropriate solutions.

Key recommendations

To all stakeholders: Universities and other Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) of Teacher Education, Student Unions, Teacher Unions, Teaching Councils, Governments and European Bodies (in particular the European Commission and the Council of Europe)

Improving the Image of Teaching and the Status of the Teaching Profession
All stakeholders should:

- take action to improve the image of teaching and the status of the teaching profession, including the image and status of teacher education, in all European countries,
- support multidisciplinary platforms for peer learning between policy makers, practitioners and researchers at institutional, national and European Level.

Developing Teacher Education Policy
Teacher Education Institutions should be recognised as partners in the process of policy development based on a strengthening their commitment to this process.

http://www.pef.uni-lj.si/tepe2008/
To all stakeholders: in particular to Universities and other Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) of Teacher Education

Advancing Research in and on Teacher Education
All stakeholders should:
- support the development of research cultures in teacher education and the strengthening of the research base on teacher education as an inter-disciplinary field of study,
- support the advancement of professionalism in teacher education and the development of cultures of lifelong learning.

Promoting Mobility and the European Dimension in Teacher Education
All stakeholders should:
- strengthen their commitment to mobility of people and ideas in teacher education through the innovative implementation of established practices in novel contexts,
- support the development of networking for professional development and organisational learning as part of a dynamic process of internationalisation.

Supporting Cultures for Quality Improvement in Teacher Education
All stakeholders should move away from an emphasis on evaluation mechanisms of accountability and towards approaches based on evaluation for development and organisational learning and the consequent development of cultures for quality improvement.

To Governments
Governments should:
- improve the necessary preconditions and provisions for the continued professional development of teachers as a priority,
- introduce professional development programmes for teachers at the induction stage where this does not exist and strengthen these further where they do so exist,
- reconsider the low share of Teacher Education in overall student mobility programmes (e.g. Erasmus, Tempus) and encourage Universities and other HEIs to promote greater student mobility as part of a dynamic process of internationalisation in European education systems in general,
- promote the development of Teacher Education study programmes at all three cycles of Higher Education.

To the European Commission
The European Commission should:
- consider the issues of research in and on Education, including Teacher Education, in EU research programmes,
- reconsider the low share of Teacher Education in overall student mobility programmes.

To the European Council and the European Parliament
The European Council and the European Parliament should:
- adopt the proposal from the European Commission on “Improving the Quality of Teacher Education” without delay.
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TEPE annual Conference

Teacher Education in Europe: 
mapping the landscape and looking to the future

Thursday 21 - Saturday 23 February 2008

Venue: University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Education
Kardeljeva pl. 16, Ljubljana - Slovenia

PRACTICAL INFORMATION PACKAGE
Emergency Contact and General Inquiries Regarding the Conference:
Igor Repac
University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Education
Center for Educational Policy Studies
Kardeljeva pl. 16, SI-1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia
Phone: +386 1 5892 344
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Transfers from/to the Airport. There is no train connection at the Ljubljana Airport and public bus services are not convenient. The easiest way is to take a taxi. Taxis which you can hire at the arrival exit are rather expensive. We can organize city taxis to wait you at your arrival (up to three or four participants together) if you wish so. In this case, please send us as soon as possible, in any case not later than Feb 18, your exact flight details. Taxi driver will wait holding a paper with your name(s) at the arrival exit.

Taxi. Should you need a taxi in Ljubljana (or from/to the Airport) we recommend you to use one of the following taxi services:
Taxi Komet: +386 (0)51 601 501
Intersiti Taxi: +386 (0)1 54 15 800, +386 (0)1 54 15 805, +386 (0)41 445 406

Internet Access. At the University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Education you will be able to use Wireless Internet Access free of charge. To be able to use it you will need a password, which will be provided by the organizers upon your request. City hotel, where you will be staying, also enables the access to Internet in every room. Access to some computers will be also organised at the Faculty of Education during Friday and Saturday morning.
First key note and Reception on Feb 21

The first plenary key note speech followed by the reception for the participants will be organized in the City Hall (Address: Mestni trg 1, Ljubljana), which is located in a very centre of the city, approximately 5 minutes walk from the hotel.

When you leave the hotel walk in the direction to the old city center - towards the “Three bridges” and than over the river Ljubljanica. Once you cross the river just continue ahead and after 50 m you will find yourself at the Town Square in-front of the City Hall.

Please note that the conference organizers will be waiting for you in-front of the City Hall and accompany you to the conference room. We kindly ask you to be in-front of City Hall at 5.45 p.m. at latest.
Transfers on Feb 22 and Feb 23

Transfer City hotel - Faculty of Education. On the morning of February 22 and February 23 at 8:00 a.m. a special free bus will be waiting in-front of City hotel and take you to the conference venue at Faculty of Education. Please, be on-time! If you miss the transfer you can also take city line bus number 20 at the station Bavarski dvor (5 min from hotel) and exit at the station Kardeljeva ploscad.

Transfer Faculty of Education - City Hotel. On February 22 at 5:45 p.m. and on February 23 at 2:15 p.m. a special bus will be waiting at the bus station nearby the Faculty of Education and take you to the City hotel.
Conference Venue

The conference will take place at the

**University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Education**
Kardeljeva ploscad 16, Ljubljana
(University campus Bežigrad)
Tel: +386 1 5892 200, +386 1 5892 344
Fax: +386 1 5892 345
E-mail: mednarodna@pef-uni-lj.si
http://www.pef.uni-lj.si

Please note that the conference organizers will set up a hostess service which will try to help you to find your way at the Faculty and provide any other assistance you may need during the conference.

**Registration** of participants will be organized on Thursday, 21 February from 16.00 to 19.00 in the lobby of the City Hotel. On Friday, 22 February from 8.00-9.00, registration of participants will be organized in the main hall of the Faculty of Education.

**Coffee breaks** will be organized in the main hall of the Faculty of Education.

**Lunch** will be served at the Faculty’s Restaurant. In your conference folder you will find two lunch coupons which you will have to submit at the Restaurant cashier’s desk.

**Map of Faculty of Education**

Rooms where the plenary sessions and working groups will take place will be clearly marked as well as the way towards them.
ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

**Slovenia** lies at the heart of Europe, where the Alps face the Pannonian plains and the Mediterranean meets the mysterious Karst. To the north is Austria; Hungary is to the east; Croatia to the south and Italy to the west.
More information available at: [http://www.slovenia.info/?lng=2](http://www.slovenia.info/?lng=2)

**Ljubljana**, the capital of Slovenia, is a lively Central European city lying in a basin at the confluence of the Sava and Ljubljanica rivers, between the Alps and the Adriatic Sea, at 298 metres above sea level. It covers 273 square kilometers and has a population of 276,000. Ljubljana lies at the crossroads of important transport routes from Northern Europe to the Adriatic Sea, and from Western Europe to Eastern Europe, the Balkans and the Near East. Its geographical position overlaps with that of the so called Ljubljana Gateway, a one kilometre-wide natural passage between Central Europe and the Mediterranean leading through the very heart of the city, between the Golovec, Castle and Šišenski hrib hills. As Ljubljana is located in the immediate vicinity of both the Alps and the Adriatic Sea, a stay in the city allows you to enjoy skiing high in the mountains and swimming in the sea in a single day.

**University of Ljubljana** has significant educational traditions existing since the establishment of the Jesuit College in 1595; however, the first true university in Slovenia was founded only after the disintegration of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. In 1919, the University of Ljubljana was established with five faculties: Arts, Law, Medicine, Theology and a Technical Faculty. Today it has approximately 60,000 undergraduate and postgraduate students participating in more than 130 undergraduate and 130 postgraduate programmes. With a total of 22 faculties, 3 art academies and one university college it employs approximately 3,000 university teaching staff. The University was founded in the centre of Ljubljana where the central university building and some of its faculties are still located. Later, new buildings were constructed in the suburbs of the city.

**Faculty of Education** celebrates 60 years of continuous work this academic year. It is one of the largest faculties within the University of Ljubljana and educates school and pre-school teachers, special needs educators and social pedagogues. It also performs research and development work in the broad field of education and learning as well as in-service training for acting school and pre-school teachers. Its study programmes extend to all three cycles (Diploma, Masters, Doctorate). The Faculty is active in international co-operation; there is about 30 outgoing Erasmus students every year as well as about 30 incoming Erasmus students from different parts of Europe every year. Research and development project are also part of international co-operation. There are approximately 2,500 undergraduate and postgraduate students and 250 teaching and administrative staff at the Faculty of Education.
Weather. The climate in Slovenia varies from Alpine in the north to Mediterranean in the coastal region and continental in the Pannonian Plain in the northeastern part of the country. The climate in Ljubljana is due to the city’s central geographical position in a vast basin surrounded by the pre-Alpine and Karst climatic regions. Typical for the winter months is the so called temperature inversion, a meteorological phenomenon in which cool and moist air stays in the lower air layers. Average February temperatures in Ljubljana vary between 0°C and 5°C. To check the current and five-day forecast for Ljubljana please visit following website: http://www.wunderground.com/global/stations/13014.html

Time Zone. GMT plus one hour.

Water. Tap water is drinkable throughout Slovenia.

Currency. € (EURO)

Language. The official language in Slovenia is Slovenian, but many people also speak English, German or Italian.

Exhibition. During the conference in the main hall of the Faculty of Education there will be an exhibition of work by Samuel Grajfoner. He was born in 1962 in Maribor. In 1990 he graduated at the Academy of Fine Arts in Ljubljana, at Department of Sculpture under Professor Lujo Vodopivec, and in 1994 he finished specialisation in graphic arts under Professor Branko Suhy. He completed his study at the Academy Minerva in Groeningen in the Netherlands, in the Paragon Centre in London, Cité International des Art in Paris and in the Printmakers Workshop in Edinburgh. He is an Full Professor in graphic design at the Faculty of Education in Maribor. His graphic are kept by many galleries, also by the Vienna Albertinum.

By his opus, Samuel Grajfoner bound himself to classical techniques of intaglio printing, dry point, and engraving, as well as aquatint and etching, and he stays with expression in the black and white technique. Grajfoner’s sense of comprehending space and substantiality could be connected to his sculptural education, which is reflected in the set up of his exhibition, where he likes to influence the space by his graphic. He nurses an almost erotic relation to the material or matrix, respectively, and to the tool by which he cuts the plate, as well as to the colour. His engraves into the matrix are deep, which later demands special care in applying colour, and on the print an unusual high relief emerges. Grajnoner’s graphic print is a precisely structured relief, on which the plastically lifted lines, which are a consequence of the engraving, are changing with the velvet-like surfaces treated in the technique of aquatint. (Prepared by Marjeta Ciglenečki)

Events in the city of Ljubljana. For the list of events in Ljubljana during the conference please open the following link: http://www.ljubljana-tourism.si/en/events/default.html

Bars and restaurants. There are many bars and restaurants in the area around your hotel. The hotel location is in the city center, just a few minutes from the old city.