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Evaluation and Quality



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Theodor Sander

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European Teacher Education in the late 1990s - updating the SIGMA report

The state, however, derives no inconsiderable advantage from their instruction [referring to the „inferior ranks of people“]. The more they are instructed the less liable they are to the delusions of enthusiasm and superstition, which, among ignorant nations, frequently occasion the most dreadful disorders. An instructed and intelligent people, besides, are always more decent and orderly than an ignorant and stupid one. They feel themselves, each individually, more respectable and more likely to obtain the respect of their lawful superiors, and they are therefore more disposed to respect those superiors. They are more disposed to examine, and more capable of seeing through, the interested complaints of faction and sedition, and they are, upon that account, less apt to be misled into any wanton or unnecessary opposition to the measures of government. In free countries, where the safety of government depends very much upon the favourable judgment which the people may form of its conduct, it must surely be of the highest importance that they should not be disposed to judge rashly or capriciously concerning it. (A. Smith, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, vol. II, London-Toronto: E.P. Dutton & Co., pp. 269-270)

1. In 1994 the European Commission initiated and funded a pilot action in the field of teacher education within a larger framework of investigating the effects of the ERASMUS programme on European cooperation and of defining new measures in relation to new needs in view of the transition to the second generation of cooperation programmes (the SOCRATES programme) (see Sander 1995b). This was called the SIGMA project, comprising also other fields of university study apart from teacher education. A Scientific Committee of representatives for the 15 EU Member States was established, being coordinated by the Universität Osnabrück/Germany on behalf of the Santander Group, an international university consortium. Reports for all Member States were used as conference material for a major conference organised in Osnabrück in June 1995 (Sander 1995a; a revised updated version was edited in 1996 by Sander et al.) which combined a final meeting of all the sub-networks of the Réseau d'Institutions de Formation d'Enseignants (RIF), an earlier pilot action of the European Commission in teacher education which was begun in 1990, with a general invitation to teacher educators in Europe to discuss fundamental problems of European cooperation under the ERASMUS/SOCRATES programme. Resulting from the conference a synthesis report was published intending to summarise both the preparatory reports and the discussions in working groups at the conference (see Synthesis 1995, available on the website of Umeå universitet under <http://tntee.umu.se>).

Based on experiences of the RIF (see Barbe et al. 1993; the six issues of the RIFLET, the News Bulletin of the RIF, edited by Yves Beernaert; the reports on the four European Summer Universities published by Hogeschool Gelderland [I], Yvard 1991 [III], Beernaert/Rupert n.d. [IV], report II unpublished but results summarised in Beernaert/van Dijck/Sander 1994, pp. 148ff.; the report on

the RIF Symposium 1993 - Janssens/Loly-Smets 1994) and the SIGMA pilot project in teacher education, a group of teacher educators applied for funding from the European Commission for a Thematic Network of Teacher Education in Europe (TNTEE) under the SOCRATES programme. This network started operations in autumn 1996, being coordinated by Umeå universitet/Sweden. Within short time TNTEE developed into a large network of teacher education institutions producing various materials in a number of sub-networks working on specific themes (see website of TNTEE under <http://tntee.umu.se> where all materials currently available are deposited).

Early in 1998 TNTEE began cooperating with a group under the aegis of the Comité National d'Evaluation (CNE) in France and the Evalueringscenteret in Denmark which had received funding from the European Commission since 1997 for a pilot action preparing the establishment of a „network of evaluation agencies in Europe“. Jointly with the CNE the Thematic Network organised a workshop in September 1998 in Lyon focusing on the evaluation of teacher education and the specific problems being involved. Thus, the workshop brought together two categories of participants - specialists in the domain of evaluation, mainly from national evaluation agencies, and experts in the field of teacher education. In order to provide participants with some background information on recent trends and problems in teacher education in the second half of the 1990s, since the publication of the SIGMA report, an effort was made to assemble updates from all Member States of the EU. These updates are now published on the website of the Thematic Network of Teacher Education in Europe and will become available in a hardcopy version later.

2. What is the situation of teacher education in Europe at the end of the 1990s? It is not self-evident that we know the answers, or at least some of the more important ones, in spite of so many specialised publications dealing with developments in European teacher education. Certainly the present publication provides some insights into what experienced teacher educators in the 15 Member States see as being the current state of affairs. At the same time I suppose we are all aware of the increasingly critical attitude of the public and of the state as employer and as the major mediating institution in society towards teachers and teacher education in recent times. In the eyes of governments in many countries schools are no longer properly fulfilling their tasks, teachers are no longer effectively coping with their professional duties and existing problems in the classroom, and among others (above everything else?) teacher education should be blamed for that, as it does not provide teachers with the tools they need for dealing with growing problems. This may be a somewhat simplified and generalised version of current criticism but the thrust of the argument could nonetheless be assumed to be reproduced quite correctly. Even though some teachers and teacher educators might be prepared for beating their breasts, accepting the public criticism as being justified, I do not have the impression that the criticism is generally thought to be valid in these circles. On the other hand it should not be overlooked that teacher educators and teachers themselves have particular perspectives and specific interests, not a monopoly in defining and knowing which criticism is justified and which not.

In quite elementary ways this might already suffice for underlining that there is certainly no general agreement about the situation in teacher education in the late 1990s, rather fundamental disagreement between the interested parties. Beyond doubt school itself contributes massively to generating problems which it then desperately struggles to deal with in terms of education, it might even increasingly do so - but that is certainly not the only source of its difficulties in the present situation. The development of class society in recent decades requires ever higher levels and ever higher effectiveness of mediation which all mediating institutions, particularly the state and its various institutions, are apparently unable to provide. However, it would be rather premature and irrational to blame schools and teachers (or teacher educators) for this inadequacy, as they are far from being the prime source of more and more difficult problems and as they are simply lacking the means for dealing with them in effective ways. We are faced with a clear tendency of ignoring the sources of

problems and of projecting all failures of class society in coping with its own problems, all failures of the welfare state and its mediating functions on schools and teachers. While this correctly reflects the very central role of school/educational institutions in modern society among the mediating institutions, it simply overestimates the mediating capacity of this institution. The same would be true for teacher education.

But disagreement on the situation prevailing in teacher education in the late 1990s has other reasons as well, almost completely distorting public debate about the needs for reforming teacher education and the appropriate means of doing so. This concerns the fundamental question of the context and objectives of teacher education. In order to know where teacher education failed or succeeded, it is of course important to have a very precise idea about the role and functions of teacher education within the education system and society in general - and about what could definitely not be its role and functions. This is a more serious problem than it might seem at first sight, as the debate in the 1990s has narrowed down on functions which in my view at best represent a side aspect of teacher education, if they are of any relevance at all. Is the main objective and function of teacher education not very simply to teach prospective teachers about teaching? This would probably be the question, if not the basic widely shared assumption, among persons inside and outside the field of teacher education. Unfortunately this assumption does not reflect more than purely normative positions - a perspective dominated by what teacher education ought to do (ignoring fully the question whether it has the means of doing it) and disregarding what it actually does. Focusing sharply and exclusively on what teacher education does and not on what it ought to do, the role and functions of teacher education could be described in the following contexts which in fact do not stand in isolation but are dynamically linked among each other in a developmental process and tend to reinforce or weaken each other, depending on the circumstances:

(a) Labour market regulation in the face of growing difficulties of the occupational system. This is one of the most genuine and essential functions of the education system as such ever since the origins of compulsory schooling in modern capitalist society. The transition to compulsory schooling, in some countries already in the last century, actually followed a pattern which confirms this general statement. In industrial regions it began earlier than in agricultural regions. In the latter the transition process was only accomplished after the need for child labour had ceased to exist, and that was with the beginning mechanisation in agriculture. There is a very clear historical and logical relationship between the world of the (compulsory) school and the world of labour. It will be entirely impossible to understand the school as a social institution if not as non-labour, as the negation of the world of labour. This is particularly evident in modern history when education/school ceases to be the domain and the instrument of a particular social group (e.g. the churches, the craft organisations) to become a public institution, an institution under the responsibility and the jurisdiction of the state. It reproduces the world of labour and the divisions existing in society through negating the world of labour and its divisions and specialisations. That is the only possible legitimacy it could have.

Being separated from working life and opposing the world of labour, including its effects, separating itself from the objective of educating workers, and also separating itself from the tradition of training for specific occupations in production and circulation, the school represents a real and not just an intellectual abstraction from work in capitalist society. It is precisely this abstraction which permits school to play an important role in regulating the labour market. In the highly industrialised countries of Western Europe the education systems continued to react flexibly to growing problems at the level of the occupational system even beyond the general introduction of compulsory schooling. They have contributed greatly in the post-war period, at least for some decades, to containing unemployment within acceptable limits. Attending the higher levels of the education system and particularly gaining access to higher education were actually the privilege of a very small minority of students in relation to the relevant age group in an early phase of post-war development. Very

soon after the war this situation began to change visibly, with participation rates in upper secondary education and then also higher education rising, often rising quite rapidly. Within higher education, it was the expansion of teacher education, at university level and in other institutions, which represented the decisive factor in pushing up participation rates in the 1960s and the 1970s. More or less since the mid-1980s teacher education gradually lost this particularly effective role in regulating the labour market, with other fields of academic study succeeding teacher education in this respect. However, the role of higher education in general in relation to the labour market is still that of a very important reserve mechanism, although this role has increasingly come under attack from the side of governments in the 1990s.

(b) Social reproduction on the basis of the existing division of labour. Compulsory schooling represents a radical break with previous traditions of social reproduction, turning against systems of reproducing the existing division of labour through the churches, the crafts, the professions, the classes, the families, etc., and replacing it by a system of reproducing the existing division of labour through education in schools as public institutions. This education is characterised by involving all young persons within a certain age group independent of their social origin. Even within a vertically or horizontally structured school system there is no specific school for the children of the ruling class and another separate school for the children of the working class. Again school as an institution being centrally involved in the reproduction of society represents a process of real abstraction from classes and internal divisions of classes. Just by abstracting from the class system and the division of labour under a formal principle of equality for all, school actually succeeds in faithfully reproducing it.

This particular role gradually changed in the post-war period. As long as only a small minority of an age group was given an opportunity to attend upper secondary school (beyond compulsory schooling) and higher education, this minority was certainly not identical with the ruling class but represented mainly specific groups of privileged professionals to be employed in their vast majority in the public sector. By numbers teachers have always been the most important group within this category, and teacher education was to equip prospective teachers with the basic instruments and attitudes for maintaining selection processes in education. Among others the increasing participation rates in the upper secondary education and higher education reflected more and more massive attacks on the particular social privileges characterising the employment situation of professionals working in the public sector as well as a fundamental transformation of many white-collar jobs, wiping out many of the former distinctions between workers and employees, blue collar and white collar. That was particularly true for teacher education. In the 1980s the higher the education system in general and teacher education programmes in particular had ceased to be a jumping board for rewarding and successful careers in the professions, with jobs being more or less guaranteed for all those managing to obtain a degree. This situation is even more aggravated in the 1990s by massive attempts from the side of governments to strictly adapt the supply of academically qualified personnel to a more and more limited real demand.

(c) Ideological integration, mainly through citizenship education. The world of school and the world of university as dominated by the interests of the state are regulated by the same principle: University shares with the school the fundamental aim of educating citizens - and that has priority above everything else - but necessarily refuses the idea of professional preparation because of this very fact. University in modern times could only be understood as a world of non-professionalism, non-professionalisation, as a negation of the professions and the world of work/professional practice related to it. In just this sense university studies were reconstituted with the rise of bourgeois society around a new concept of philosophy as the *mater studiorum*, a philosophy that absorbed and reflected the revolutionary movements in the transition to bourgeois society. This was all the more logical, as philosophy and philosophical studies aimed at the education of man, not at a narrowly interpreted professional competence of lawyers, doctors and clergymen, or teachers. The education of man

presupposed the framework of democracy (imaginary or real, that was of no importance), constitutionalism and human rights and was clearly directed at preparing for participation in democracy. Hence education for citizenship became the very hub of university studies, and the perfect sense this made was nowhere expressed more clearly than in the education of future civil servants, among them specifically teachers. This is evidently a very specific historical mode of preparing for work in class society and specifically the professions through abstracting from the particular ideologies of classes - and of professions - and replacing it by the general ideology of citizenship.

Even if in teacher education this particular model of university education for professionals was perhaps more deeply rooted than in any other branch of academic study, it did not survive into the post-war period, in teacher education and elsewhere. In fact philosophy ceased long ago to be the core of university studies representing the sum of contemporary knowledge in the natural sciences and the humanities. It was replaced by the rapid development of disciplines, among them the educational sciences separating from philosophy and beginning to establish a particular framework of research and teaching practice and at the same time having to define external relations with other disciplines like psychology, anthropology, sociology, etc. Beyond that the educational sciences were characterised by intra-disciplinary developments promoting a very high degree of specialisation on particular themes and areas of study. It is a question whether any of the disciplines in their present state seriously offer opportunities for citizenship education in any sense.

There are other developments outside university increasingly standing in the way of the university succeeding in providing its clients with citizenship education under democratic assumptions, particularly so in the post-war period. Many observers not even having a particular reputation as radicals have diagnosed a major crisis of participatory democracy resulting from what has sometimes been called the „broken promises of democracy“. In this sense sharp distinctions would have been made between the democratic illusion and the really existing state. In education for citizenship, be this at the level of school or at the level of university, democracy and constitutionalism as a frame of reference are replaced by the really existing state as a hierarchical structure of social control. Quite obviously the really existing state has an understanding and a policy of education for citizenship which diverges from basic assumptions of education for citizenship under a democratic regime. In teacher education, and elsewhere in the education sector, the meaning of citizenship education has changed enormously since the 1970s and it is to be asked whether it still makes sense for teacher educators and students in the 1990s. Teacher education itself contributes to sharply reducing its own effectiveness in the matter.

(d) Preparation of teachers for performing the same functions as above at school level. While school as a public institution was characterised by its abstracting from the world of labour (and out of necessity having to do so), university and with it teacher education at university level are characterised for their part by a double process of abstraction and opposition to the world of labour. Teacher education does in fact abstract first of all in very practical and not only theoretical ways from the world of the school and the daily problems arising in it, and then also from the world of labour in general (and out of necessity has to do so). This includes abstracting from the existence of classes and ideologies of classes and from the social reproduction of the class system and the division of labour inherent in it. Otherwise university would have no proper legitimation as being separated from the processes of schooling or from experiences of labour/professional practice themselves. As mentioned above, it represents quite logically a way of reproducing the professions through the negation of professionalism and professionalisation. This is a modern, rational and not an irrational, basically inefficient way of reproducing the existing division of labour. Even if the university today has developed significantly in comparison with the beginning of the 19th century, its basic orientation has not changed at this level and will probably only change with the disappearance of the university.

Teacher preparation within university or other higher education institutions then has a clear orientation - educate teachers for performing the same tasks and supporting the same functions at school level which are linked to higher education and its role, namely labour market regulation, social reproduction and ideological integration. Quite obviously it is of no particular importance for the outcomes and effectiveness of such an education whether this orientation is given prominent place in the teacher education curriculum or not, indeed whether this orientation is reflected at all in the official curriculum. Rather there would always have been a tendency that outcomes mainly depended on the hidden curriculum of teacher education. At the same time there would have been a complete reliance on the homology of problems and tasks between higher education level and school level. It is this very homology which provided teacher education over many decades with a proper legitimation and with a basis for dealing in relatively effective ways with its fundamental tasks. However, in all likelihood these ties and links are no longer functioning today as much as in the past, for reasons largely beyond the control of teacher education institutions and educators.

3. I am quite aware that this brief overview of the role and functions of teacher education might appear somewhat strange to some colleagues, asking, eyebrows raised, about the place of being prepared for teaching classes, planning lessons, assessing students, etc. in the overall context of teacher education programmes and courses. As I said before, I tried to focus sharply on what teacher education does, not on what it ought to do. Legend has it that the competence for teaching at school level in the sense of planning lessons, keeping discipline in the classroom, etc. is acquired (or at least could theoretically be acquired) in pre-service teacher education. But it is only too obvious that this is a self-defensive legend, and nothing else. In a more sober and self-critical perspective it has to be admitted quite simply that these and similar competences have been basically acquired by generation after generation of teachers after terminating their teacher education courses, simply through learning on the job, mostly without anyone's help and assistance.

Current debates on the situation of teacher education in the late 1990s revolve around many aspects and problems - but definitely not around the basic question whether teacher education still succeeds in maintaining its fundamental roles and functions, as briefly sketched above in four points. Rather, recent debates on teacher education focus on key words like „professionalisation“, „competencies“, „qualifications“, „quality enhancement“, „accountability“, etc. There is a strong tendency, even echoed among teacher educators, of demanding that university and in particular pre-service teacher education should be more strictly oriented on „professional practice“, „professionalism“, „professionalisation“, „professional competence“ in quite a narrow sense - and of pretending that this would produce positive results in coping with present-day problems in schools. For example, a list of standards to be reached by teacher students at the end of their education which was published recently in the UK contains, among others, the following items:

Those to be awarded Qualified Teacher Status must, when assessed, demonstrate that they use teaching methods which sustain the momentum of pupils' work and keep all pupils engaged through

- stimulating intellectual curiosity, communicating enthusiasm for the subject being taught, fostering pupils' enthusiasm and maintaining pupils' motivation;
- matching the approaches used to the subject matter and the pupils being taught;
- structuring information well, including outlining content and aims, signalling transitions and summarising key points as the lesson progresses;
- clear presentation of content around a set of key ideas, using appropriate subject-specific vocabulary and well-chosen illustrations and examples;
- clear instruction and demonstration, and accurate well-paced explanation;

- effective questioning which matches the pace and direction of the lesson and ensures that pupils take part;
- careful attention to pupils' errors and misconceptions, and helping to remedy them;
- listening carefully to pupils, analysing their responses and responding constructively in order to take pupils' learning forward;
- selecting and making good use of textbooks, IT and other learning resources which enable teaching objectives to be met;
- providing opportunities for pupils to consolidate their knowledge and maximising opportunities, both in the classroom and through setting well-focused homework, to reinforce and develop what has been learnt,
- exploiting opportunities to improve pupils' basic skills in literacy, numeracy and IT, and the individual and collaborative study skills needed for effective learning, including information retrieval from libraries, texts and other sources;
- exploiting opportunities to contribute to the quality of pupils' wider educational development, including their personal, spiritual, moral, social and cultural development;
- setting high expectations for all pupils notwithstanding individual differences, including gender, and cultural and linguistic backgrounds;
- providing opportunities to develop pupils' wider understanding by relating their learning to real and work-related examples. (Department for Education and Employment, Teaching: High Status, High Standards. Circular 10/97, pp. 10f.)

It is certainly the authors of such lists whose „errors and misconceptions“ about education and teaching need very careful attention indeed, although there might actually be no way of „helping to remedy them“. For any critical observer this (and the rest of the catalogue contained in circular 10/97) is nothing but a mass of vague and hollow phrases which definitely could not serve in any way as an orientation for beginning teachers in understanding how to organise their work in the classroom or how to structure processes within teacher education courses with the aim of gaining the required competence. The need for interpreting the respective requirements in their complete vagueness (what is „good use of textbooks“, what is „effective questioning“, what is „well-paced explanation“ outside highly specific contexts and beyond personal interpretations - more circulars by ignorant technocrats needed to explain this!) makes it perfectly impossible to regard them as appropriate standards which could be used in any rational way for assessing specific classroom behaviour of students. Requirements could be deliberately interpreted in widely differing and even opposite ways. Whatever behaviour students demonstrate in practice, it could be regarded at will as corresponding with the standards or as not corresponding, as there are absolutely no criteria or only hints for knowing whether specific behaviour of specific students in specific situations does correspond with the standards. On top of this, it is completely unclear how such competences could be acquired at all in pre-service teacher education, be this at university or in schools. It is only too obvious that university does not have the means of promoting the acquisition of competences in this very narrow sense and it is definitely not its role to deal with such matters. Therefore teacher educators should be very reluctant to promise results which could never be achieved. At the same time it is very clear that schools are not more effective in this respect. The often heard claim that students would be better prepared for their job, if more elements of practice, practical experience, school experience, practicum, etc. were introduced into the study programmes of prospective teachers, has no foundations whatsoever. This is just thoughtless propaganda.

The very idea that teacher education, as taking place at university or at other higher education institutions, should have the aim of preparing students for lesson planning, keeping discipline in

the classroom, knowing all about accurate well-paced explanation in lessons, etc. etc. could only appear to be extremely misguided and hopeless, failing to grasp the meaning and role of university and teacher education in history and to understand its actual limits, possibilities and achievements. If such petty matters were indeed all prospective teachers had to learn and know, then there would be absolutely no need for teacher education in a separate educational institution called university, there would not even be a need for any kind of teacher education in any place or institution. One would just throw beginning teachers into the water and ask them to swim - which they have done with satisfactory results for ages.

If the present debate about professionalism, professionalisation and professional practice of teachers is not to get even more confused and disoriented, much to the disadvantage of teachers and teacher educators themselves, a thorough critical analysis of teacher education is needed. It does not really matter if that analysis is undertaken as internal or external evaluation, as long as it is undertaken at all. Certainly it would be a sign of the healthy state of the profession if teachers and teacher educators themselves were able to demonstrate their ability for producing a realistic picture of developments in the education sector, instead of adding another brilliant plan for the reform of teacher education to the hundreds of plans which have not worked in the past.

4. Such reflections do have consequences for the current debate about evaluation and quality assessment in teacher education which will certainly become more heated in coming years. Quality is such a vague and meaningless concept if it is not tied firmly to a very precise understanding of the functions and role of teacher education (Sander 1995c). It could not be seen as an accident that few attempts are made to arrive at such a precise understanding and the vagueness of the quality concept appears to be its very advantage for governments in using it for increasingly massive attacks on the education sector. In my view there are three fundamental aspects to be taken into account concerning evaluation processes as they are now being introduced into teacher education all over Europe:

(a) Evaluation attempts to eliminate its political context, i.e. its instrumental value and functions for austerity policies and hierarchical control in the education sector, and instead prefers to present itself as a simple rational mechanism of quality control according to a technical model (as e.g. in car production) which could not possibly be refuted by anyone not being out of his senses.

(b) Evaluation claims to provide indicators for the quality of teacher education but never enters into a proper debate about the social functions of teacher education and instead proceeds from assumptions about aims and objectives of teacher education as a frame of reference for assessment which quite clearly teacher education institutions do not and cannot achieve.

(c) Evaluation tends to employ methods for assessing the quality of teacher education which presuppose the readiness to radically ignore the wealth of critical reflection on methodological problems having been produced in the so-called empirical sciences and with alternative scientific orientations in the past five decades or so, be this in the field of sociology, psychology, ethnology, the educational sciences or whatever branch of reasoning.

If the political context is left aside quite intentionally, if functions are ascribed to teacher education which it never had and could never fulfill and if methods are applied which which are at best pre-scientific - could we really expect under such circumstances that evaluation, systematic as it might be, is going to provide the kind of critical insights needed in order to understand the specific achievements and failures of teacher education at the end of the 20th century?

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Teacher Education in Austria: Description, Analysis, and Perspectives

In 1994 the European Commission had entrusted different consortia of higher education institutions (e.g. SIGMA) (i) to prepare descriptions and evaluations on various academic disciplines and/or fields of study at higher education level in the member states of the European Economic Area, (ii) to evaluate the impact of European Commission (education) programmes (e.g. ERASMUS) and (iii) to develop perspectives for the further development of these fields of study both at the level of the different member states and at European (Commission) level. It may be interpreted that the importance attached and the many problems perceived in the field of teacher education (TE)/Lehrerbildung might have influenced the decision that it had been selected for description and evaluation. In-depth descriptions and analyses of the different TE systems of the member states of the European Economic Area had to be prepared by experts of TE in the different member states. Subsequently (after an intensive discussion at an all-European conference held in Osnabrueck in 1995) these reports had formed the substance for comparative analysis and the drawing up of recommendations for the further development of TE (F.BUCHBERGER et al. 1996). Research done and recommendations developed have then been very well documented in a comprehensive publication (cf. T.SANDER et al. 1996). Within this context F.BUCHBERGER/K.-H.GRUBER (1996) had submitted their report on TE in Austria reflecting both the recent state and the problems of TE in Austria in 1995 as well as perspectives for its development.

Since the first production of this article in 1994/1995 changes in the context of education policy may be observed. Neo-liberal and to some extent neo-conservative ideologies have increasingly won ground in Austria. Closely related to (sometimes narrowly conceived) theories of human capital (cf. World Bank 1995) education and training have increasingly been bound to economic and social policy issues (e.g. NAP 1998). Having become a member of the European Union in 1995 problem definitions and education policies of the European Union have strongly begun to impact on the education discourse and on education policy in Austria. Against this background it seems to be challenging to analyse (i) which problems of TE perceived in the first half of the nineties could find solution(-s) until 1998, (ii) which new needs have emerged in the meanwhile, and (iii) which solutions are discussed recently to meet these adequately. In dealing with these issues the article will mainly follow the guidelines set for the initial report to the European Commission.

0 Preliminary remarks on the Austrian school system

The legal base for modern education laws (School Organization Act/Schulorganisationsgesetz) has been established in Austria by a completion of the constitution in 1962. This act has replaced regulations dating back to the Hapsburgian Monarchy (until 1918) and the First Republic (1919-

1938). Any major decisions in education and training (e.g. concerning school organisation or the organisation of TE) rest with Parliament and need to be passed by a majority of two thirds of all parliamentary votes, which presupposes consensus among the leading political parties of the country (Social Democrats, Christian Democrats/Oesterreichische Volkspartei) on matters of education and training. Additionally, because of the federal structure of the Republic supplementary acts for compulsory education have to be made by the Parliaments of the (nine) federal states/Landtage der Bundeslaender. Since 1962 several amendmets to the basic School Organization Act/Schulorganisationsgesetznovellen have been made.

Till now the most salient features of the Austrian education system are its pronounced centralism in legislation (despite of its federal structure) and its bureaucratic form of administration focussing on the principle of legality/Legalitatesprinzip of the constitution. State administration is legally bound by law with schools as institutions being subject to state administration. There are further characteristics peculiar to the Austrian education system:

- (i) The Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs possesses far-reaching authority and independence (e.g. syllabi).
- (ii) The same applies to Local Education Authorities in the nine federal states/Bundeslaender of the Republic (e.g. influence on TE at Colleges of Education and the continuous education of teachers).
- (iii) Policy in Austria in general and education and training policy in particular follow a consensus model where many institutions, organisations and groups have to play important roles (e.g. as regards the development of national syllabi). This consensus model adopted reflects the political culture of Austria. Owing to the particular nature of Austrian politics, a preparliamentary space is of considerable importance. As regards TE in addition to the bodies mentioned above the following groups/"actors" are involved in this preparliamentary space (cf. "social arena of TE", T.POPKEWITZ 1993): Churches (esp. the Roman Catholic Church because of the treaty between the Republic of Austria and the Holy See/Konkordat), various chambers (e.g. federal chamber of economy/Bundeswirtschaftskammer, chamber of employees/Arbeiterkammer) and the association of industrialists/Industriellenvereinigung, the trade union/Oesterreichischer Gewerkschaftsbund and its different organisations for different groups of teachers (e.g. for teachers educated at Colleges of Teacher Education, teachers educated at University), teacher associations/Lehrervereine of the different political parties, Universities (e.g. conference of rectors), institutions of initial teacher education and administration (e.g. staff of Ministries and Local Education Authorities).

Main regulations of the School Organization Act (1962) may be described as follows:

- (i) Students are obliged to participate in instruction/Unterrichtspflicht for nine years (nine grades) beginning at the age of six.
- (ii) Two opportunities have been established to fulfil this obligation: (a) at public compulsory schools/Pflichtschulen: primary school (grades 1-4), lower secondary school/Hauptschule (grades 5-8), polytechnical school/Polytechnische Schule (grade 9), schools for special education/Sonderschulen (grades 1-9); (b) at an optional type of school/Wahlschule named "Allgemeinbildende Hoehere Schule" consisting of a lower secondary part/Unterstufe (grades 5-8) and an upper secondary part/Oberstufe (grades 9-12) which may be finished with a qualified school leaving examination/Reifepruefung. Public compulsory schools and Allgemeinbildende Hoehere Schule are defined as the general education sector of the Austrian school system/Allgemeinbildendes Schulwesen.

- (iii) The vocational sector of the education/Berufsbildendes Schulwesen consists of four different types of schools: (a) compulsory vocational education/Berufsbildende Pflichtschule (grades 9-11/12) organized as part-time school in a dual system for apprentices; (b) vocational schools at intermediate level/Berufsbildende Mittlere Schule (grades 9-11); (c) vocational schools (e.g. specialized in business or technical education and training) at higher level/Berufsbildende Hoehere Schulen (grades 9-13) which may be finished with a qualified school leaving examination/Reifepruefung; (d) "Kollegs" (grades 13-14) providing programmes to obtain vocational qualifications for students holding a qualified school leaving certificate of "Allgemeinbildende Hoehere Schule".
- (iv) Colleges of Teacher Education/Paedagogische Akademie have been established as schools at post-secondary level for the initial education of teachers (ITE)/Lehrerausbildung for primary school with a programme of a duration of two years. Subsequent amendments to the School Organization Act have brought about changes in the duration of the programme and expanded the mission of Colleges of Teacher Education to the education of teachers for lower secondary school/Hauptschule, polytechnical school/Polytechnische Schule and special education/Sonderschule.

Without being subject to the School Organization Act and separated from ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education ITE at University could find a new legal base in 1971. For more than hundred years Universities had only been obliged to provide the theoretical foundations in two academic subjects and pedagogy for (prospective) teachers who after completion of their studies at University had to take a state examination/Staatspruefung ("Lehramtspruefung fuer Hoehere Schulen") with school administration responsible for this examination. Having passed this state examination graduates had to take practical training at schools organized and supervised by school administration and excluding University. For the first time the new regulations of 1971 have introduced ITE at University as (i) a masters programme/Diplomstudium (comparable to other branches of research-oriented fields of study) lasting 4.5 years, (ii) ending with a final exam at University and (iii) leading to an academic graduation. ITE has been constructed as a one-phase model of TE consisting of studies in (two academic) subjects, educational studies and studies in subject didactics/Fachdidaktiken as well as school practice of a short duration. This model came into force then in 1985.

1 Contextualizing Austrian teacher education

1. It was in the late sixties that education and training were given political priority in Austria because of a growing awareness of the important role played by education and training in social and economic development as well as to the recognition of severe shortcomings in the field of education and training. Until mid of the nineties great efforts have been made to improve and to expand the Austrian education and training system. Enormous financial investment had since led to the evolution of an education and training system that may definitely be called efficient even if seen in relation to international standards. The process of school reform till mid of the nineties had resulted in a wealth of both quantitative improvements (e.g. enormous expansion of technical, economic and vocational schools at upper secondary level) and qualitative improvements (e.g. "silent reform" of primary education, introduction of inclusive education or of new information and communication technology). However, except the higher education sector (e.g. introduction of Fachhochschulen/polytechnics) structural reforms of the primary and secondary sector of the education and training system have only become partially effective and that is why there still exist problem areas that are in need of reform such as (i) an early selection after four years of primary education, (ii) problems at lower secondary level (grades 5-8) as regards both structure (e.g. three different types of school)

and content (e.g. modernization of national syllabus), or (iii) an upper secondary sector of education (grades 9-12/13) that is highly differentiated and lacking permeability.

2. Until recently particular care and attention was devoted to teachers (e.g. substantial improvements of working conditions and salaries; cf. OECD 1995) and to TE - to initial teacher education (ITE)/Lehrerausbildung as well as to the continuous education of teachers (INSET)/Lehrerfort- und Lehrerweiterbildung. As a result Austria has got a competent and (until recently very) committed teaching force. Under the leitmotif “professionalization” (of teaching and TE) and aiming at improving the quality of education reforms have been made in most areas of TE: (i) Step by step almost all forms of ITE (except that for kindergarten staff) were transferred into the post-secondary sector of the education system with almost all courses now lasting a minimum of three years. (ii) ITE programmes for teachers at lower secondary level/Hauptschule and polytechnical course/Polytechnischer Lehrgang (grades 5-8/9), (iii) in special education/Sonderschule (with a focus on inclusive education), (iv) in compulsory vocational education/Berufsbildende Pflichtschule (grades 10-12/13) or for (v) commercial schools (grades 9-11/13) were established. (vi) ITE at University for teachers at lower and upper secondary level/Lehramt fuer Hoehere Schulen (grades 5-8 and 9-12/13) was subject to main reforms: After its first reform (see introductory chapter) it was supplemented by a period of practice at school (“Unterrichtspraktikum”) lasting one year. Additionally, a very recent change of law (Universitaetsstudiengesetz 1997) may bring about some major changes. (vii) Finally, a dense network of INSET institutions/Paedagogische Institute had been established.

These changes outlined followed mainly a “more of the same”-strategy (cf. similar trends in most member states of the Council of Europe, G.NEAVE 1987). Having adopted this strategy improvements and reforms have mainly been made within different (sub-) systems of TE. As a result Austria has now got different and rather fragmented (sub-) systems of TE and most of them may definitely be called efficient.

3. There was and still is a close link between measures aiming at school improvement and those aiming at a reform of TE with TE being mainly a successor of the former. That is why TE shares both the strong points and the shortcomings of the former. Whereas the favourable conditions referred to above until mid of the nineties have led to enormous quantitative and qualitative improvements in most fields of TE, far-reaching structural reforms are still pending (e.g. ITE for teachers at lower secondary level of the education system, cf. K.H.GRUBER 1990, 1998). Amongst other this also means that at the present moment teachers for different types of schools are undergoing different forms of education in different institutions with variations in the duration of courses and an implied difference in status later on. There exist (i) more than eight different types of ITE bound to different types of schools, (ii) organised at separate institutions (e.g. Colleges of Teacher Education/Paedagogische Akademie, Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education/Berufspaedagogische Akademie, different faculties of Universities, INSET institutes/Paedagogisches Institut), (iii) at different levels of the education system (upper secondary, post-secondary, higher education), (iv) following different rationales (e.g. concurrent/integrated, “sandwich” and consecutive) and (v) rooted in different traditions (e.g. “seminaristic” or “academic traditions”; cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1994). (vi) These differentiations are also carried over into INSET. On a structural level three features are generally considered problematic: (i) the high degree of separateness, (ii) the lack of permeability among existing TE programmes (although some recent changes intend to increase permeability), and (iii) the ensuing lack of integration that also makes itself felt between ITE and INSET.

Except for teachers in special education and for teachers of technical subjects at upper secondary level of the education system there is an increasing surplus of (young) teachers for all the other types of school. At the same time the average age of Austrian teachers is approximately 42 years

and frequent retirements may not be expected the near future. This fact implies that all new tasks school is confronted with in a rapidly changing society have to be achieved with a “greying profession”. Coherent measures to tackle this problem have not been taken yet (e.g. making continuous education of teachers compulsory, introduction of effective support structures, cf. P.POSCH 1996). At the same time most institutions of ITE (especially Colleges of Teacher Education and Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education) had to begin to react to a rapidly decreasing number of students and they have introduced additional study programmes/Zusatzstudien for (prospective) teachers, become more active in the further education of teachers or by stronger involvement in educational research. However, coherent measures how to make sufficient utilization of too large capacity available have still to be missed.

4. Increasingly since mid of the nineties discussions and activities on school improvement have focused on the following issues:
 - (i) human resource development and its improvement especially as regards education and training at upper secondary and at post-secondary level - education and training issues have increasingly become subject to economic and social policy (cf. NAP 1998);
 - (ii) restructuring the administrative and organizational structure of the education system by focussing on principles of “deregulation”, “decentralization” and “autonomy” and of measures of a “New Public Management”;
 - (iii) economic restructuring of the entire education system with the State taking reduced financial responsibility asking at the same time for private investment by economy and by introducing again fees (from parents/students) as has been the case until the early sixties;
 - (iv) increased focus on quality evaluation and quality management (cf. P.POSCH/H.ALTRICHTER 1997) rather closely related to administrative, organizational and economic issues, but less to content issues;
 - (v) modernization of the national syllabi/Lehrplaene focussing on deregulation (“lean syllabi”) and on the autonomy of schools as regards procedural issues and on “core qualifications”/ Schluesselkompetenzen as well as competence for life-long learning as regards content issues;
 - (vi) restructuring the lower secondary level of the education system (cf. organizational structure);
 - (vii) restructuring the upper secondary sector of the education and training system with focus on programmes of study, permeability and aptness to life-long learning and training;
 - (viii) restructuring the post-secondary sector of education and training (e.g. ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education) and higher education (cf. C.EINEM 1998);
 - (ix) “internationalisation” of the education and training system and implications of having become a member of the European Union (e.g. recognition of academic diploma), and
 - (x) dealing adequately with the multimedia revolution and its implications for teaching and learning.

Most of these issues may be seen in close relationship with education developments in other member states of the European Union. Within Austrian education politics they reflect a neo-liberal shift of the education policy of the leading Social Democrat Party and a growing influence of both neo-liberal and neo-conservative ideologies represented by the Christian Democrat Party/Oesterreichische

Volkspartei being partner of the Social Democrat Party in Government for more than a decade. Because of the close links between school reform and TE these issues and activities mentioned above will have strong influence both on teachers (e.g. aggravation of conditions of work) and TE (e.g. substantial reform of its curricula). In addition to problems persisting in the different programmes/(sub-) systems of TE, these issues may be seen as important elements of the problem-space for improvements and reforms within the different (sub-) systems of ITE as well as its overall structure, and for INSET.

5. Since mid of the nineties the “actors” in the “social arena” are involved in sometimes heated discussions on the administrative and economic restructuring of the education system in general and TE in particular. These discussions may be explained both (i) by changed/changing perceptions as to which role the State and the public sector ought to play in education and (ii) by (contemporary) budgetary constraints the State seems to be confronted with (cf. critical remarks on this rhetoric U.BECK 1997). As regards economic restructuring Government, the chamber of merchants or the association of industrialists claim (i) that public expenditure for education has become too high (e.g. salaries of teachers because of a civil servant system bound to bi-annual increases of salary and the age structure of the teaching force), (ii) that the cost effectiveness of the education system had to be improved (e.g. too small class sizes), and (iii) that public expenditure for education and training had to be reduced in general by introducing measures of new public management and quality control in particular. Most other “actors” involved argue that an education system of highest quality calls for best resources possible. Teachers as well as staff at institutions of TE and their Trade Union view the attempts of the Government outlined as an attack against their professional status and against the high quality of the Austrian education system. At present it is debatable whether perceived problems of administrative and economic restructuring (necessary) can be solved within the consensus model outlined or education policy in Austria will increasingly become subject to a conflict model (cf. political factors affecting change in TE, H.SIMOLA/T.POPKEWITZ 1996). Additionally, it may be feared that the recent focus on administrative, organizational and economic issues might lead to omissions as regards education and training issues being in strong need to be improved.

2. Description of the Austrian system of teacher education

Following an overview of the entire system of ITE in Austria this chapter will present a detailed description of the main (sub-) systems of ITE in Austria. A second part will deal with the continuous education of teachers/Lehrerfort- und Lehrerweiterbildung. In a third part descriptions will be given on the impact of European Commission co-operation programmes on TE in Austria.

2.1 Initial teacher education/Lehrerausbildung

Decisions as to the structure and organization of ITE in almost all aspects (institutions, duration of programmes, course structures, exam regulations, certificates) are taken by Parliament and Government (e.g. Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs, Ministry of Science and Traffic). Colleges of Teacher Education/Paedagogische Akademien as well as Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education/Berufspaedagogische Akademien (and even institutions of INSET/Paedagogische Institute) have to follow national laws (e.g. School Organization Act/Schulorganisationsgesetz) and decrees (e.g. syllabus for Colleges of Teacher Education/Lehrplan der Paedagogischen Akademie), which define structure, aims, subjects and content of TE programmes (cf.

F.BUCHBERGER/J.RIEDL 1987a,b, 1989a,b). Although law guarantees (academic) freedom (of teaching)/*Freiheit der Lehre* to Universities national laws and decrees by the Ministry of Science and Traffic define the basic structure, aims and fields of study of ITE programmes at University (e.g. *Universitaetsstudiengesetz* 1997). Thus all institutions of ITE in Austria are fairly similar in structure yet (changes may be expected for ITE at University when new regulations decreed by *Universitaetsstudiengesetz* mentioned above will become to impact). And to add one more characteristic of TE in Austria, structure and organization of TE are geared to the different types of schools and the categories of teachers required there.

Colleges of Teacher Education and Universities are the two main providers of ITE. Colleges of Teacher Education have their origin in former teacher seminars/*Lehrerbildungsanstalten* which were located at the upper secondary level of the education system. They have been established in 1967/1968 and have to educate teachers for compulsory schools. Rooted in a “seminaristic tradition” (“*ecole normal tradition*”) they follow (i) a concurrent model of ITE, at which the four components of the programme (educational sciences/*Humanwissenschaften*, academic studies/*Fachstudien*, subject didactics/(*Fach-*) *Didaktiken*, teaching practice/*Schulpraktische Studien*) have to be studied in parallel, and (ii) a one-phase approach which implies that graduates of Colleges of Teacher Education have the status of fully-fledged teachers (a “probationary period” was abolished by the School Organization Act in 1962). ITE for teachers of general subjects at lower and upper secondary level of the school system/*Allgemeinbildende Hoehere Schule* (grades 5-8 and 9-12) and for teachers of general subjects at commercial and technical schools/*Berufsbildende Mittlere und Hoehere Schulen* (grades 9-11-13) (“*Lehramt an Hoeheren Schulen*”) at University is rooted in an “academic tradition” oriented on the Humboldtian principle of “*Bildung durch Wissenschaft*” (literally translated as “education through science”) and focusing on the study of “academic disciplines”. This model of ITE is divided into two parts. A first part is organized by University and a second one by Local Education Authorities. Students may obtain a masters degree upon successful completion of the programme at University. The second part focuses on teaching practice and it is only a positive assessment of teaching practice that then gives the status of a fully-fledged teacher.

Many concepts such as “academic training”, “professional studies”, “educational sciences”/*Erziehungswissenschaften* or “subject didactics”/*Fachdidaktik* frequently used in descriptions of (European) systems of TE have different meanings in different cultural contexts. This fact may be seen in close relationship with confusion and misunderstanding produced sometimes by publications on TE in Europe (cf. F.VANISCOTTE 1989). To avoid misunderstanding as far as possible the following description of ITE in Austria will (i) adopt concepts used in main recent publications on TE in Europe (cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1994, EURYDICE 1998, T.SANDER et al. 1996), (ii) make use of OECD terminology in describing education systems, (iii) follow main structures of the system of ITE in Austria (different types of schools and categories of teachers required there), and (iv) use both Austrian and - as far as possible equivalent - English concepts (cf. H.VAN DAELE 1997).

Figure 1: Systems of ITE

Programme/ Schools/Levels	Entrance requirements	Location	Course structure/ Duration	Qualification/ Title
Kindergarten (age 3-6)	Lower secondary school leaving certificate (after 8 years of schooling)	Upper secondary level; Bildungsanstalt fuer Kindergarten- paedagogik	Integrated model; 5 years	Kinder- gaertner/in
Primary school/ Volksschule (grades 1-4)	Qualified school leaving certificate of an upper secondary school /Matura or special entrance exam (Studienberecht- igungspruefung)	Post-secondary level; Colleges of Teacher Education	Concurrent/integrated model (25% educational sciences, 50% subject didactics in all subjects of primary school, 25% teaching practice) 168 weekly units of tuition minimum duration: 6 semesters one-phase approach	Lehramts- zeugnis fuer Volksschulen; Certificate for Teaching/ Volksschul- lehrer/in
Lower secondary school/ Hauptschule (grades 5-8) and Polytechnischer Lehrgang (grade 9)	see primary school	see primary school	Concurrent/integrated model (25% educational sciences, 50% academic studies in in 2 subjects; 25% teaching practice) minimum duration: 6 semesters one-phase approach	Lehramts- zeugnis fuer Hauptschulen; Certificate for Teaching/ Hauptschul- lehrer/in
Special education/ Sonderschule (grades 1-9)	see primary school	see primary school	see primary school; main parts of educational sciences and subject didactics are devoted to special education; specialization in one field of special education; 168 weekly units of tuition; minimum duration: 6 sem. one-phase approach	Lehramts- zeugnis fuer Sonderschulen; Certificate for Teaching/ Sonderschul- lehrer/in
Lower and upper secondary school/Allge- meinbildende Hoehere Schule (grades 5-8/9-12) and general subjects in vocational schools at upper secondary level / Berufs- bildende Mittlere und Hoehere Schulen (grades 9- 11/12/13)	see primary school	1st part: University 2nd part: Practicum/ Unterrichtspraktikum (Local Education Authorities, schools, Pedagogical Institutes)	1st part: study of 2 academic isciplines including subject didactics; educational studies including school practice (appr. 12 weekly units of tuition/sem.) duration: 4.5 years (9 sem.) 2nd part: teaching at schools, courses in education, science of teaching, subject didactics, school administration duration: 1 year two-phase approach	Masters degree Certificate for Teaching/ Lehrbe- rechtigung fuer das Lehramt an Hoeheren Schulen

Vocational school/Berufsbildende Pflichtschule (grades 10-12/13 and practical subjects at upper secondary level/Berufsbildende Mittlere und Hoehere Schulen (grades 9-11/13)	Qualification as a master craftsman, two years of experience in a trade and participation in special introductory courses; or: qualified school leaving certificate of a (technical/commercial) school at upper secondary level and practical experience	Post-secondary level;Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education/Berufspaedagogisch Akademie	Concurrent/integrated model (subject studies, methodology, teaching practice); duration: (normally) 2 years one-phase approach	Lehramtszeugnis fuer Berufsbildende Pflichtschulen; Berufsschullehrer/in Certificate for Teaching
Commercial schools (grades 9-13)	see primary	University, two years of experience in enterprises	Diploma programme; integrated model (academic studies, business education, educational sciences, teaching practice); duration: 4.5 years (9 sem.)	Masters degree Lehrer/in an Berufsbildenden Mittleren und Höheren Schulen
Technical schools (grades 9-13)	see primary	University, two years of experience in enterprises	Academic studies (min. 9 sem.) at University; INSET programmes	e.g. Dipl.Ing. (diploma) see commercial schools

A simplified overview of the main subsystems of ITE in Austria will be presented below in figure 1. Subsequent descriptions will focus on six categories: (i) institutions, (ii) staff, (iii) entrance requirements, (iv) organization of studies, (v) examinations/certificates, (vi) research). For detailed descriptions of the various (sub-) systems of Austrian TE see F.BUCHBERGER (1996).

2.1.1 Personnel for pre-primary education (kindergarten)

Education at pre-primary level (age 3-6) is mainly provided in kindergarten. Austrian law defines that education at kindergarten is not part of the school system. This implies that the education of personnel for kindergarten education is separated from ITE and its institutions and may not be seen as (an integral) part of ITE in Austria.

1. *Institutions:* The education of (prospective) personnel for kindergarten is organised at separate schools at upper secondary level (Bildungsanstalten fuer Kindergartenpaedagogik). These schools have training schools of their own (Uebungskindergarten), where students do their teaching practice and teachers of these schools are involved in the development of innovative practice.

2. *Staff:* Staff at these institutions consists of two different groups. General subjects are taught by teachers who have to hold a masters degree obtained at University. The same applies to teachers for educational studies or psychology. Methodology lessons and clinical supervision of (kindergarten) practice are given by experienced staff of kindergarten.

3. *Entrance requirements:* Admission is possible earliest after eight years of schooling after successful completion of lower secondary school at the age of fourteen.

4. *Organization of studies:* These schools have to follow a national syllabus. This national syllabus integrates general education, professional education (e.g. pedagogy, educational psychology, methodology), and kindergarten practice.

5. *Examinations/Certificates:* The programme lasts a duration of five years and may be finished with written and oral examinations/Reifeprüfung. This qualified school leaving certificate (equalling five A-levels) permits both to apply for a post at kindergarten and to study at institutions of higher education (e.g. ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education, University).

2.1.2 Teachers for compulsory education

1. *Institutions:* Colleges of Teacher Education/Paedagogische Akademie have responsibility to educate (prospective) teachers that intend to obtain a teaching certificate/Lehramtszeugnis for compulsory education either (i) in primary school/Volksschule (grades 1-4), (ii) lower secondary school/Hauptschule (grades 5-8), (iii) polytechnical courses/Polytechnischer Lehrgang (grade 9) or (iv) special education (grades 1-9). Austria has a dense network of Colleges of Teacher Education. There is one State College of Teacher Education/Paedagogische Akademie des Bundes per federal state. In addition to these 9 institutions another 5 colleges are run by the Roman Catholic Church (Paedagogische Akademie der Dioezese). With a total number of about 4500 students at all of these colleges it is not surprising that there should be some educating no more than 200 students. This means that ITE for teachers for compulsory education is organized in the regions/federal states in small units. In addition to ITE Colleges of Teacher Education may offer INSET programmes.

2. *Staff:* Staff of Colleges of Teacher Education consists of three groups: (i) professors of educational sciences/Humanwissenschaften and academic disciplines/Fachwissenschaften have to fulfil the following requirements to be appointed: doctors and/or masters degree, research documented by publications and six years of teaching practice assessed with very good; (ii) lecturers in subject didactics/(Fach-) Didaktik have to hold either an academic diploma of a University or two teaching certificates of a College of Teacher Education, document research and development with publications, and six years of teaching practice assessed with very good; and (iii) teachers at training/model schools/UebungsschullehrerInnen that have to fulfil similar criteria for appointment as lecturers.

3. *Entrance requirements:* Applicants have to fulfil the following requirements: Qualified school leaving certificate of an upper secondary school/Reifeprüfung which may be obtained earliest after 12 years of schooling. Other applicants with experience in various occupations and who do not hold a school leaving certificate of an upper secondary school may take preparatory courses and then take an entrance examination (Studienberechtigungsprüfung). Although the percentage of the second group is increasing ("mature students") the majority of students decides at the age of 18/19 for the teaching profession. In addition to these entrance requirements other criteria are tested for both groups, but these are only of limited importance. Numerus clausus regulations do not exist.

4. *Organization of studies:* Colleges of Teacher Education offer separate programmes for prospective teachers for the four types of schools mentioned above. These programmes have to follow a national syllabus (Lehrplan der Paedagogischen Akademie). They last a minimum of 3 years (6 semesters) and consist of 168 weekly units of tuition which equals around 2500 units (45 minutes each) of tuition. The programmes follow a concurrent model. This means, that (i) educational studies/Humanwissenschaften (appr. 25%), (ii) subject didactics/(Fach-) Didaktik, (iii) academic disciplines/Fachwissenschaften, and (iv) teaching practice (approx. 25%) have to be studied in parallel (cf. F.BUCHBERGER/J.RIEDL 1987).

Student teachers in each of the four programmes have to study educational studies/Humanwissenschaften (e.g. pedagogy/Erziehungswissenschaft, science of teaching and general didactics/Unterrichtswissenschaft, educational psychology, educational sociology, and special education/Sonderpaedagogik). The same applies to teaching practice/Schulpraktische Ausbildung.

Each College of Teacher Education has a training/model school/Uebungsschule of its own, where students do part of their teaching practice and many teachers are involved in research and the development of innovative practice (e.g. new methods of teaching and learning). In addition, each College of Teacher Education has a network of (training) schools with co-operating teachers specially trained/Ausbildungslehrer. Student teachers do there their weekly teaching practice/Tagespraktikum and practica of a longer duration/Blockpraktika. Teaching practice is organized in small groups, where one supervisor of the college, three co-operating teachers and around eight students form a quality circle (cf. H. BRENN et al. 1997, F.BUCHBERGER et al. 1997).

(Prospective) Teachers for primary school train in subject didactics/(Fach-) Didaktik for all learning domains given at primary level. The same applies to teachers for special education, but with focus on inclusive education and special needs. (Prospective) Teachers for lower secondary school/Hauptschule and polytechnical courses/Polytechnischer Lehrgang train in two (school) subjects. Subject studies consist of academic studies (around 450 units of tuition per academic subject) and subject didactics (around 150 units of tuition per subject). Students have to choose a first subject (either German, English or Math) and a second subject (out of a list of another 12 school subjects).

In addition to the four programmes outlined Colleges of Teacher Education may offer programmes for additional studies/Zusatzstudien (e.g. multicultural education, information and communication technology, adult education). These programmes are open to prospective teachers as well as to teachers of schools and may lead to additional teaching certificates.

5. *Examinations/Certificates:* Studies at Colleges of Teacher Education may be finished with a final examination (Lehramtspruefung) which consists of the following components: (i) two oral examinations both in educational sciences and the academic subjects (including subject didactics), (ii) a written thesis/Hausarbeit which has to deal with a professionally relevant topic and to integrate educational studies, academic studies in the subjects and subject didactics as well as teaching practice, (iii) written examinations/Klausuren in the subjects/subject didactics, and (iv) the positive assessment of teaching practice. The successful completion of the programme permits to apply for a teaching post without being obliged to take part in induction programmes (= one-phase approach).

6. *Research:* Staff of Colleges of Teacher Education may be involved in research and development (Paedagogische Tatsachenforschung). The focus of research activities is on subject didactics, science of teaching, methodology of higher education/Hochschuldidaktik, teaching practice and educational psychology. Additionally, many professors and lecturers are involved in school development projects. In preparing a written thesis/Hausarbeit student teachers get to know (scientific) research both of “academic” and “professional” relevance. These frequently adopt an action research approach.

2.1.3 “Lehramt an Hoeheren Schulen”

ITE for teachers for “Allgemeinbildende Hoehere Schule” (lower and upper secondary school; grades 5-8 and 9-12) and general subjects at commercial and technical schools/Berufsbildende Mittlere und Hoehere Schulen (grades 9-11/13) qualifies to “Lehramt an Hoeheren Schulen”. This model follows a two-phase approach. The first part of a duration of nine semesters (4.5 years) takes place at University as a masters programme. The second part of a duration of one year (“Unterrichtspraktikum”) is organized under the responsibility of Local Education Authorities and takes place primarily at schools and at (non-university) INSET institutes/Paedagogische Institute.

2.1.3.1 First part

1. *Institutions:* As mentioned above the first phase of ITE for teachers for “Allgemeinbildende Hoehere Schule” and general subjects at commercial and technical schools takes place at Universities. Universities do not have training/model schools (“Uebungsgymnasien”) of their own.
2. *Staff:* Staff consists mainly of two groups. Lessons in (academic) subjects and subject didactics related to them and in educational sciences/Erziehungswissenschaften are given by professors and lecturers of the various (subject) departments. Staff of centres for school practice/Zentrum fuer das Schulpraktikum (professors, lecturers, teachers) is responsible for school practice. (Scientifically highest qualified) Personnel teaching in ITE is neither obliged to have experience in teaching at schools nor to hold a teaching diploma or certificate.
3. *Entrance requirements:* Applicants have to fulfil the following requirements: Qualified school leaving certificate of an upper secondary school (Reifepruefung) which may be obtained earliest after 12 years of schooling. Other applicants with experience in various occupations may take preparatory courses and then take an entrance examination (Studienberechtigungspruefung). As with all other programmes of study at University students of TE have to take seminars (around 30-90 units of tuition in the first two semesters at University) which aim at an orientation to the teaching profession.
4. *Organization of studies:* ITE at University is defined as a diploma programme consisting of the following components: (i) a combination of studies in two (academic) disciplines and related subject didactics (appr. 85 % of the study period, (ii) educational studies, and (iii) school practice. It is structured in two parts and lasts 9 semesters (=4.5 years). A first part of a duration of 4 semesters is (mainly) devoted to academic studies in (two) disciplines and finishes with the first diploma examination. During the first year of study students have to attend special seminars for orientation (see above). A second part lasts 5 semesters. It consists of (i) academic studies in (two) disciplines which ought to focus on needs of the teaching profession and school (subjects), (ii) subject didactics (90-180 units of tuition in each of the two subjects) organized under the responsibility of subject departments, (iii) educational studies (appr. 150 units of tuition) under the responsibility of departments of educational sciences, and (iv) school practice/Schulpraktikum (four weeks of preparation and eight weeks of experience in the two subjects) organized by centres for school practice/Zentrum fuer das Schulpraktikum.
5. *Examinations/Certificates:* This second part of universitarian studies may be finished with the second diploma examination after completion of a diploma thesis (which has to be written in one of the two academic disciplines and might include subject didactics). Students successful may obtain a masters degree (Lehramt an Hoeheren Schulen).
6. *Research:* Staff of subject departments and departments of educational sciences is obliged to do scientific research, but topics of research do not very frequently relate to teaching, the teaching profession or TE. The highest academic qualification/Habilitation in the Austrian university system which requires the preparation of a “habilitation thesis” has only in very few cases been written on problems of subject didactics. This fact may be brought into close connection to deficits in the development of a science of teaching and the teaching profession. As mentioned above (prospective) teachers have to prepare a diploma thesis in one of the two subjects/disciplines they study. This implies that (prospective) teachers are actively involved in scientific research in one of their subjects. Because of this and the limited amount of time devoted to studies in educational sciences (prospective) teachers have only very limited opportunity to get to know or to be involved in research on professionally relevant topics in educational sciences or subject didactics.

2.1.3.2 Second part

Having obtained a masters degree from University does not yet fully qualify the graduate for definite employment as a teacher. University graduates must take an additional year/Unterrichtspraktikum in the course of which they are (i) teaching at school with a reduced teaching load and they are (ii) supervised by a specially trained teacher/Betreuungslehrer/in. (iii) Parallel to this they must attend courses organized by INSET institutes which deal with pedagogy, general didactics/Allgemeine Didaktik, subject didactics/Fachdidaktiken and school administration. Personnel for running these courses is (mainly) recruited from a pool of experienced teachers. The overall responsibility for this one-year course rests with the Local Education Authorities. It is only after the successful completion of that one-year practicum (e.g. positive assessment of teaching practice) that the trainee has reached the full status of a teacher.

The introduction of this second part (“Unterrichtspraktikum”) has restored an important influence of school administration on ITE at University which ought to become fully academic as law of 1971 indicated. School administration had criticized ITE at University (legally reformed) before it has been materialized. It also has to be mentioned that there was big interest with prospective teachers to enter the (compulsory) second part because of the payment of a reduced salary during this part.

There exist sometimes very strict separations both within the different components of ITE at University and between the two parts of this model of ITE. At University fragmentations may be explained by the fact that responsibilities have to be shared between two subject departments (sometimes) attached to different faculties, the department of educational sciences and the centre for school practice. As regards the relationship of curricula of the first and the second part there seems to be a lack of coordination. The curricula seem to follow different rationales rooted in a set of sometimes implicit and hidden assumptions (cf. the Humboldtian principle of “Bildung durch Wissenschaft”, “superiority” of knowledge in academic disciplines compared to knowledge in educational sciences and professional competence).

2.1.4 Teachers for vocational education

ITE for the sector of vocational schools is highly differentiated and the three main programmes only can be outlined here in the nutshell.

2.1.4.1 Teachers for compulsory vocational education and practical subjects at commercial and technical schools

Teachers for vocational schools/Berufsbildende Pflichtschule (grades 10-12/13) and practical subjects in vocational schools at upper secondary level/Berufsbildende Mittlere und Hoehere Schulen (grades 9-11/13) are educated at Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education/Berufspaedagogische Akademie. There are four Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education in Austria.

A prospective teacher has to fulfil the following requirements for entry into these colleges: either a qualification as a master craftsman or a school leaving certificate after at least thirteen years of schooling/Reifepruefung, at least two years of experience in a trade and participation in special introductory courses at INSET institutes for vocational teachers/Berufspaedagogisches Institut. This implies that Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education have opportunity to deal mainly with “mature students” having experience in enterprises.

Programmes for the different types of teachers normally last two years and have to follow a national syllabus. They consist of subject studies, methodology and teaching practice which have to be studied in parallel (= concurrent model). Courses end with a major examination (Lehramtspruefung) and students successful may get a teaching certificate for vocational school.

2.1.4.2 Teachers for theoretical subjects in commercial schools

Teachers for (theoretical) commercial subjects in upper secondary schools (grades 9-11/13) are educated at University. Institutes for Business Education/Institute fuer Wirtschaftspaedagogik at University have to play a prominent role in this form of ITE.

Requirements for entry are similar to those of teachers for primary and secondary schools outlined above. Programmes at University have a duration of nine semesters (=4.5 years). They consist of theoretical studies in the disciplines, subject didactics, educational sciences and teaching practice. On successful completion of the diploma course including the preparation of a diploma thesis students receive a masters degree (Magister) either in economics, business education or educational sciences. Employment as a fully-fledged teacher is possible only after two years of experience in a profession being of relevance to the subjects to be taught in these types of schools.

The fact that student teachers may submit their diploma thesis in business education as well as in educational sciences implies that they get to know recent research of professional relevance.

2.1.4.3 Teachers for theoretical subjects in technical schools

Teachers for theoretical subjects in technical schools at upper secondary level (e.g. engineering) have to hold university degrees in their fields of specialization which can usually be obtained after five years of study at University. An employment as teacher requires experience of at least two years in a profession and a short introductory course organized by institutions of INSET. Professional ITE is not available for this type of teacher.

2.1.5 Teachers for other subjects

Besides the types of ITE mentioned above there are institutions for the education of teachers for religious instruction (e.g. Colleges of Religious Teacher Education/Religionspaedagogische Akademie, faculties of theology) or for the sector of agriculture (grades 9/10-12/13). ITE for teachers at higher education level does not exist. Although not part of the school system, staff in health education receive their education at University in special programmes ("Hochschullehrgaenge").

2.2 Continuous education of teachers/Lehrerfort- und Lehrerweiterbildung

Like in many other European countries TE in Austria may be characterized by a certain "rucksack" mentality (cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1993), which means that the focus is still with ITE, and the continuous education of teachers (INSET and further education) have not yet been given the important position they ought to occupy. This view is corroborated by a clearly felt imbalance between resources and funds available for ITE compared to those for the continuous education of teachers. Yet it must

be pointed out that the past twenty years have seen the emergence of a comprehensive system of institutions for INSET so that by now all nine federal states have the instruments vital in organizing INSET, namely the so-called Paedagogische Institute. These institutes comprise four different departments for the continuous education of teachers of the different types of school. There are other institutions available for INSET, among them the Colleges of Teacher Education, which have now got an increasingly important role to play in further education in preparing teachers for new tasks of the teaching profession (e.g. multicultural education), the Institute for Interdisciplinary Research and Distance Education (cf. K.KRAINER/P.POSCH 1996) or Universities.

Paedagogische Institute have to fulfil the following tasks: (i) It is their main task to organize INSET. In Austria the term INSET refers to sessions that provide professional education and aim at supporting teachers professional development (Lehrerfortbildung) but do not lead up to any certificates. (ii) It is an additional task of these institutions to organize further education for teachers. The term "further education"/Lehrerweiterbildung basically refers to education courses after which the teacher eventually receives a certificate (e.g. a teaching certificate/diploma in an additional subject or a certificate for special tasks such as school management, inclusive education or information and communication technology). (iii) Furthermore Paedagogische Institute are also involved in ITE of teachers for "Lehramt an Hoheren Schulen" in their one-year school practicum/Unterrichtspraktikum and some forms of ITE of teachers for vocational schools. (iv) Finally these institutes may also carry out certain research and development projects (Paedagogische Tatsachenforschung) and provide support in school improvement projects (cf. P.POSCH 1996).

Although law defines taking part in INSET as a must for teachers, it is normally undergone on a voluntary basis. When main innovations are introduced into school, INSET can be made compulsory (e.g. introduction of a foreign language in primary school or introduction of information and communication technology at lower secondary level). Teachers attend about one third of their INSET during their holidays, the other two thirds during their regular working time. Many teachers have developed a highly positive attitude towards INSET so that the overall impression one gets is that there is a high degree of participation in INSET, particularly among primary school teachers/VolksschullehrerInnen and teachers at lower secondary school/Hauptschule. About 80 % of teachers of these types of schools participate approximately 4.5 days per year in INSET courses (cf. F. BUCHBERGER 1996).

Offers of INSET sessions are extremely varied in both form and content. There are courses in the school holidays. Teacher working groups/Lehrerarbeitsgemeinschaften for different subjects usually offer two afternoon sessions per year with participants themselves deciding on the course content in advance. There are compact one-week courses/Kompaktseminare or intermittent training sessions. It is also worth mentioning that school-based INSET has been developed increasingly. Topic areas are extremely varied as well with didactics/methodology being a particular favourite. But other areas such as school management, computer studies, classroom management or multicultural education have increasingly become popular. Particular emphasis is being placed upon frequent INSET of teachers actively involved in ITE as co-operating teachers. A new focus has been set on quality management especially at schools at upper secondary level. INSET seems to be oriented on a personalistic model focusing on individual (professional) needs and interests of teachers. More coherent models of INSET which focus on the school as unit of improvement (e.g. organization development) can only be observed to a limited extent (cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1997).

2.3 Impact of European Commission co-operation programmes

In the past few years much activity has been taken to overcome a national or even regional introversion in the field of TE in general and at Colleges of Teacher Education in particular. These moves may also be seen in the context of a growing internationalization of Austria and of having become a member of the European Union in 1995. Developing a European awareness/European Dimension (cf. Y.BEERNAERT et al. 1993) a concept contained in all national syllabi for many years has been given greater emphasis both in schools and in ITE. Long-standing contacts and programmes of foreign language learning for teachers have been intensified. The study of comparative education though long part of the syllabus of Colleges of Teacher Education has been given greater prominence. Increased efforts towards multicultural education have been made. In ITE as well as in the continuous education of teachers of history and social studies or geography and economic studies questions of a European integration have been given even more prominence. And a variety of exchange programmes have lately been supported by the authorities (cf. J.LEIDENFROST 1998).

In the ongoing process of the internationalization of ITE education and training programmes of the Commission of the European Union (e.g. SOCRATES, LEONARDO) have become of special importance and they are given particular support at the national level (especially by the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs through its Office for European Education Cooperation/Buero fuer Europaeische Bildungskoooperation). In the very first year of a possible participation in the former ERASMUS programme (1992/1993) 9 out of 14 Colleges of Teacher Education have been successful with their applications. From the very beginning on some Colleges of Teacher Education have acted as coordinating institutions for various programmes (student mobility, staff mobility, curriculum development, intensive programmes). Since 1994/1995 all 14 Colleges of Teacher Education are involved in the SOCRATES programme in most of its chapters (ERASMUS COMENIUS, LINGUA, ODL) in addition to education co-operation projects with former Communist countries funded nationally. The percentage of students participating in ERASMUS programmes has increased from 2.1% in 1992/1993 to 4.1% in 1993/1994 and 6.5% in 1994/1995 (cf. M.FRIED 1995). This steadily increasing percentage may be seen as a leading one compared to other institutions of TE in the European Union (cf. J.LEIDENFROST 1998). The very high percentage of projects accepted by ERASMUS and the high percentage of students as well as staff involved in European Commission education co-operation programmes may be explained by intense efforts and a highly positive attitude towards mobility at national level and may also be seen as proof of the high quality of ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education.

The participation of Colleges of Teacher Education in the SOCRATES programme may be seen in close relationship with improvements in the curricula of the different institutions (e.g. modularization of curricula) and the high quality of teaching methodologies adopted. Both aspects unanimously receive highest appreciation of partner Universities all over Europe. The participation in curriculum development projects implies that most of the students have opportunity to benefit from the SOCRATES programme although they are not involved in student mobility components of this programme. To make optimal use of the opportunities provided by the SOCRATES programme more investment into curriculum development projects, more investment into multimedia actions and more frequent participation in the thematic network on teacher education in Europe (TNTEE) seem to be necessary.

Problems of institutions of ITE participating in the SOCRATES programme frequently reported at European level (e.g. unflexible curricula, duration of student mobility, recognition of achievements and credit transfer; cf. M.DELMARTINO/Y.BEERNAERT 1996) did occur to a very limited extent only. Curricula and exam regulations at Austrian Colleges of Teacher Education (did) allow flexibility necessary. Additionally, the active participation in the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS)

proved to be of big support. In turn, this participation in ECTS has put some pressure on national TE policy. While leading European Universities fully recognize studies done at Austrian Colleges of Teacher Education, Austrian Universities find only very limited opportunity to recognize studies done at Colleges of Teacher Education. Similar as with ECTS applies to the fact that the modernization of curricula oriented on best practice of partner universities all over Europe has been given priority and been incorporated at many Colleges of Teacher Education into institution-wide improvement strategies (cf. F.BUCHBERGER/P.SCHUERZ 1997). Combining opportunities offered by the different chapters of SOCRATES (especially ERASMUS, LINGUA and COMENIUS) might be seen as an “example of best practice” for the development of TE in Europe.

Austrian universities have long-standing traditions in exchange activities. Many ITE programmes for teachers of different subjects (e.g. foreign languages, history and social studies, geography and economic studies) contain in their curricula contents of relevance to a European Dimension and call for (short) periods of study abroad. Detailed information on the impact of European Commission education co-operation programmes (e.g. ERASMUS) on the first phase of ITE at University is not available. This fact may partially be explained by the fact that responsibilities for ITE are split up into three different departments (two subject departments and the department of educational sciences). Although (prospective) teachers may take part in student mobility programmes as part of their studies in the subjects, the percentage seems to be rather low. The small amount of time devoted to studies in educational sciences and subject didactics may be seen as another obstacle against student mobility. Curriculum development programmes (under ERASMUS or LINGUA) do exist so far to a very limited amount only and Universities will have to explain this reluctance. As regards the second phase of ITE (“Lehramt an Hoheren Schulen”) rather strict regulations at a national level may be seen as an obstacle against more frequent (student) exchanges.

As regards INSET Austrian schools and teachers frequently participate in European Commission education programmes both as co-ordinating institutions and as partner institutions. This applies to all chapters of COMENIUS (e.g. European Education Projects) and the relevant chapters of LINGUA. Again, the percentage of participation is far beyond European Union average (cf. M.HEISSENBERGER 1998). Similar applies to the ARION programme for head teachers and the school inspectorate.

3. “New” needs in teacher education

Depending on aims and criteria, problem-sensibility, ideologies, opinions and attitudes of different persons and lobbies, issues and topics selected descriptions of “new” needs in TE will bring about different results (“new” has been put into quotation marks because of the relativity of this concept and the fact that some “new” needs recently discussed have a long history; cf. the first version of this article written by F.BUCHBERGER/K.-H.GRUBER in 1994 and this second version written in 1998). Although there seems to be fairly broad agreement in Austria on some “new” needs in TE in general (e.g. transforming Colleges of Teacher Education from the post-secondary sector of the education system into the higher education sector, increasing the professionalization of ITE at University, relevance of continuous education of teachers), the problem-definitions of different groups involved in or concerned with TE clearly express differentiations and differences. At this place it will only be possible to outline some of these lines of argument.

The following descriptions and analyses will consider issues discussed in (international) research on TE as well as in recent European Commission education policy documents (e.g. the white book “Teaching and learning: towards the learning society”, 1996 or the green paper on “The European

Dimension in education”, 1993) and relate them to problems and needs perceived in TE in Austria. Firstly, issues will be discussed that apply to the entire system of TE in Austria. Secondly, problems and needs in the different (sub-) systems of TE will be described.

3.1 “New” needs - entire system of teacher education

1. G.NEAVE (1987) has presented a comprehensive analysis on the situation and problems of TE in the member states of the Council of Europe. Adopting the issues and criteria used in this analysis an evaluation of TE in Austria in the late eighties might result as follows: (i) very good (economic, material and human) resources, (ii) well developed system of vocational TE, (iii) well developed system of ITE for special education, (iv) very well developed system of teaching practice at Colleges of Teacher Education, (v) comprehensive system of INSET, (vi) too short duration of programmes of ITE for teachers of compulsory education, (vii) problems regarding the transformation of ITE for kindergarten teachers and for teachers of compulsory education into the higher education sector of the education system, (viii) deficits as regards the professionalization of different types of ITE: ITE for teachers at primary level seemed to lack a coherent academic education component. The same seemed to apply to ITE for teachers at lower secondary level educated at Colleges of Teacher Education, although to a smaller amount. ITE at University seemed to lack a coherent professional education component (e.g. subject didactics, educational studies, teaching practice).

2. Again in 1992, G.NEAVE (1992) has presented an analysis on the situation and problems of the teaching profession and TE in the member states of the European Union. Adopting the issues and criteria of this analysis to evaluate TE in Austria mid of the nineties could give the following results: Improvements and reforms have been made in most of the (sub-) systems of TE (e.g. prolongation of ITE for teachers of primary school, infusion of more professional components into ITE at University). But it is debatable whether these improvements and reforms may have met the needs of a rapidly changed environment of schooling and education. The following issues seemed to be of problematic nature: (i) orientation on static conceptions instead of an orientation on dynamic conceptions of teaching and learning, (ii) orientation on “traditions” (e.g. “seminaristic or academic tradition”), (iii) fragmentations between the different (sub-) systems of TE, (iv) a lack of mobility and flexibility as well as (v) a lack of permeability between the different (sub-) systems of TE.

3. Since Austria has become a member of the European Economic Area, and even stronger since 1995, when Austria has entered the European Union, education policies and education policy documents of the European Commission (cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1999) have influence on Austrian education policies. Although education policies of the European Commission mainly operate in an indirect way, they have strong impact on definitions of problem-spaces and rhetorics adopted in the education discourse (cf. A.NOVOA 1996). Education policies as well as education policy documents of the European Commission may be seen in close relationship to the generation of “new” needs (for and in education as well as TE) in Austria.

The basic rationale of European Commission education policies may be seen in theories of human capital with an instrumental perspective on education and training and a subordination of education and training under economic as well as social policy issues. In combination with predominating neo-liberal ideologies the education discourse seems to be dominated i.a. by the following issues: (i) “quality” especially of human resource development including the notion of life-long learning; (ii) organizational, administrative and economic re-structuring of the education sector adopting formulae such as “quality management”; (iii) internationalization, globalization and mobility perceived to be necessary; (iv) making maximum use of new multimedia technology; and (v) developing a European Dimension mainly by competence in (three) Community languages.

Adopting issues and criteria defined in the main education policy document of the European Commission (“Teaching and learning: towards the learning society”) to define “new” needs in Austrian TE might lead to the following result: (i) lifelong - learning, the continuous education and training of teachers and flexible models of qualification necessary to approximate to these have to become more than lip - service; (ii) curricula and programmes of study of TE have to be restructured oriented more than recently on dynamic qualifications and have to become more flexible; (iii) curricula have to become more compatible to European standards (cf. with the European Credit Transfer System ECTS) and problems of academic as well as professional recognition of (teacher) diploma are in need of clarification; (iv) better use has to be made of multimedia technology, especially as regards telestudying (open distance learning) and its adoption in creating powerful learning environments; (v) vocational, economic and technical education and training had to be improved and efforts in TE had to be taken (although Austrian solutions are seen as very well developed within the European Union persisting problems may not be hidden); (vi) measures to combat failure at school seem to be imperative and TE had to contribute to reach this aim (again Austrian solutions seem to be well developed without neglecting existing problem areas, cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1998); (vii) promoting a European Dimension i.a. by improved competence in (three) Community languages may be seen as another target and linguistic competences of Austrian teachers had to be improved substantially.

Action programmes of the European Commission such as SOCRATES aim to meet needs defined. Austrian institutions of TE in general and Colleges of Teacher Education in particular make pro-actively use of opportunities offered. This fact may be seen in close relationship with an emerging “critical mass” competent to cope with perceived “new” needs. At the same time coherent action of education policy makers in general and of TE policy makers in particular has still to be missed.

4. TE in Austria may be characterized by an orientation on a static conception (of TE) based on the hidden assumption that ITE could be able to qualify (prospective) teachers adequately for a professional career lasting more than thirty years even in dynamic environments and a rapidly changing society. This orientation implies that (i) the focus is still on ITE. (ii) Questions of an appropriate induction into the professional cultures of schools and (iii) of lifelong learning and development (continuous education, INSET) are frequently suppressed. Although the shortcomings of an orientation of TE on a static conception are obvious, systematic action to restructure TE oriented on a dynamic conception is still pending. There is only some discussion focusing on a redefinition/modification of the aims and curricula of ITE, an introduction of (soft) models of compulsory INSET or on an introduction of incentive models for participation in continuous TE. Opportunities for sabbaticals for teachers have been opened up in 1998, but these are not necessarily bound to INSET. Other opportunities for continuous professional development have been described in the National Action Plan for Employment (1998), but are not materialized yet.

5. It might be argued that theoretical and research-based argument as well as rational system planning or the expertise of those involved in TE have not always played the most prominent roles in constructing and developing systems and models of TE - and many of the recent problems of TE may be explained by this fact. H.JUDGE (1990) states that “TE in England and Wales is a product of history rather than of logic” and this statement seems to hold true for TE in Austria too. It is possible to point to some long-standing “traditions” which consist of a blend of not always consistent (and sometimes hidden) assumptions, beliefs and opinions on the professional role of teachers and the acquisition of professional expertise, and which have had strong influence on the development of institutional as well as curricular patterns of TE. Although (i) education, schooling and the professional role of teachers have been subject to substantial changes, and (ii) reforms of TE have been made oriented on the leitmotif of “professionalization”, these traditions even nowadays have strong influence on TE in Austria - a “seminaristic tradition” on ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education

and an “academic tradition” on ITE at University (cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1994). Reforms of TE have infused more academic components into the “seminaristic” model and some professional components into the “academic” model, but they did not lead to substantial change (necessary). Different groups (e.g. teachers, parents, students) perceive very well the shortcomings and deficits that may partially be explained by this fact. Recent discussions and activities on reforms of ITE seem to follow (again) a “modification approach” or a “more of the same rationale” and try to avoid (more) substantial change (cf. Entwurf eines Akademiengesetzes 1998, Entwicklungsausschuss 1993, E.MAYR 1994). Comparable seems to apply to a very recent change of ITE at University (Universitätsstudienengesetz 1997).

6. The entire system of TE in Austria may be characterized by a high degree of fragmentation and separateness of the different (sub-) systems which seems to be of problematic nature in several ways: (i) Fragmentation may be seen in close relation with a lack of permeability between the different programmes for different types of teachers. (Prospective) Teachers have to make (final) decisions on a professional career in one of the different types of school at the age of eighteen (“one-way street” model). This may be seen as a main obstacle against more flexibility and mobility. Only recently some slight modifications have been made to increase the permeability between the different programmes of ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education and University. (ii) Teachers for the (two main different types of) lower secondary schools are educated at different institutions (Colleges of Teacher Education, University), although these schools have to follow the same syllabus. (iii) This fact outlined may be brought in relation with a suboptimal use of resources which at the same time are defined by some policy makers as scarce. (iv) Strict separations and fragmentations between ITE and INSET may be made accountable that positive effects of ITE are “washed out” when graduates of ITE enter into schools. In addition, these separations correspond with an inadequate use of resources available.

7. Problems are perceived as regards the legislative, administrative and economic structures of TE. Institutions of TE claim that deregulation (e.g. reducing the number of binding laws) and decentralization (e.g. increasing responsibilities of institutions of TE for programmes and curricula; increasing economic independence of institutions of TE) seem to be necessary. Some measures in this direction have been taken recently which may be seen as first steps. Closely related to these needs of institutions of TE Government thinks that the (cost) effectiveness of TE had to be increased. Quality management focusing on organizational, administrative and economic dimensions is in a first phase of introduction (cf. F.BUCHBERGER/K.BYRNE 1995, P.POSCH/H.ALTRICHTER 1997).

8. Improvements and reforms of the education system in general and TE in particular have mainly focused on particular (sub-) systems, but did not follow an overall plan/strategy which applied to the entire system of education. Although this strategy has brought about many positive results in particular areas, its limitations have become obvious. Mid of the nineties there was an attempt to develop an overall plan/Bildungsgesamtplan for the reform/development of the Austrian education system (cf. H.ALTRICHTER/P.POSCH 1992, PELZELMAYER 1996) and. TE ought to play a prominent role in such a plan (cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1996), but coherent work on this plan has been stopped in the meanwhile.

3.2 “New” needs - (sub-) systems of teacher education

In addition to “new” needs that apply to the entire system of TE in Austria mentioned above this chapter will discuss “new” needs of ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education, at University and in INSET. Due to the fact that there are no recent discussions on improvements of ITE for pre-primary

education (kindergarten), of ITE at Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education and of ITE for teachers of theoretical subjects in commercial and technical schools, these types may be excluded at this place.

3.2.1 Teachers for compulsory education

ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education seems to be confronted with five main clusters of problems:

(a) Although Colleges of Teacher Education are recognized as institutions of higher education in the European Union within Austria they possess the legal status of schools at the post-secondary level of the education system only. The following problems correspond with the legal status outlined: (i) Studies and certificates of Colleges of Teacher Education may to a very limited extent only be recognized by Austrian universities. Fragmentations and a lack of permeability outlined above may be seen in close relation to this fact. (ii) The legal status implies that Colleges of Teacher Education are subject to rather strict legislation and administration at a national level. This reduces opportunity for autonomy. (iii) Schools are subject to the treaty between the Republic of Austria and the Holy See. This treaty guarantees to the Roman Catholic Church many rights in ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education and may be seen as one major obstacle to transform ITE for teachers of compulsory education to the higher education sector. (iv) Although staff at Colleges of Teacher Education are frequently involved in research and development, these institutions have no clear mandate for doing research. Staff does not frequently combine research and development with programmes of study aiming at increasing their formal qualifications (e.g. preparation of dissertations necessary to obtain a doctors degree).

(b) The programmes last a minimum of three years (6 semesters) and students have to attend appr. 2500 units of tuition. This implies that independent, problem-oriented and research-oriented learning of students has to be rather restricted (“too much in too short time”). Core-qualifications (“Schlüsselqualifikationen”) cannot be developed to a level perceived to be necessary. Recent discussions on this problem may be seen as rather discrepant and focus i.a. on the following issues: (i) redefinition of aims and tasks of the curricula of ITE or (ii) the introduction of an induction period.

(c) Expectations on the different programmes seem to be (unrealistically) high: (i) Teachers for primary school have to train for all subjects of primary school. This fact may be seen as an obstacle against a profound academic education in the subjects. Proposals are discussed which aim at an introduction of specialization studies in two subjects of primary school (“Schwerpunktlehrermodell”) in addition to (reduced) education in all other subjects of primary school. This proposal does not aim at an introduction of a model of subject teachers instead of an existing model of class teachers. (ii) The same applies to ITE for teachers in special education. In addition, a prolongation of the programme up to four years and/or a transformation of this type of ITE to a post-graduate level is under discussion. (iii) Teachers for lower secondary school are obliged to study two academic disciplines in addition to educational studies, subject didactics and teaching practice. It is debatable whether a profound education in two academic disciplines may be achieved adequately within the short duration of the programme outlined. Some observers have suggested a stronger orientation as well as closer links of the subject studies with the first part of the diploma programmes at University (1. Studienabschnitt). On the contrary representatives of school administration especially in rural areas have suggested to increase the number of subjects to be studied by prospective teachers from two to three with a focus on subject methodology/Fachmethodik.

(d) Problems with an optimal utilization of capacities available have been outlined above (e.g. decreasing number of students). Colleges of Teacher Education are in strong need to find a new profile to be able to survive as institutions of ITE the coming years.

(e) Staff of different components of the programmes (e.g. subject didactics for primary school) seems to hold rather low (formal) qualifications. Coherent ITE and INSET for staff of Colleges of Teacher Education does not exist, although staff frequently expresses strong needs for participating in programmes to upgrade their qualifications.

3.2.2 “Lehramt an Hoheren Schulen”

ITE for these types of teachers seems to be confronted with four main clusters of problems:

(a) A first problem consists of the strict separation of a first and a second phase of ITE introduced in the late eighties. The introduction of this two-phase approach may be explained by existing power structures. The influence of Local Education Authorities and of the professional associations of teachers of these types of schools has been stronger than University and research-based argument. The separation into a first and a second phase applies to the curricula, the organization and staff involved.

(b) A second problem consists of unclear structures of responsibility for ITE. Within University four institutes/departments have to share responsibility for ITE. Subject departments have the main responsibility for the programmes. In addition departments of educational sciences have to take responsibility for educational studies and centres for school practice for this component of the programme.

(c) On a curricular level the following problems may be analyzed: (i) Study time devoted to the “professional” components of the programmes seems to be rather restricted. This applies to educational studies as well as to school practice and subject didactics. (ii) Subject didactics have been so far parts of the academic studies and been organized by these. They have been separated from the other “professional” components (educational studies, school practice). This separation is perceived as problematic. It frequently corresponds with rather narrowly conceived conceptions of subject didactics reduced to subject methodology/Fachmethodik. (iii) (Prospective) Teachers have to prepare a diploma thesis in one of the subjects they study. New law prescribes that diploma theses have to deal with an academic problem including perspectives of subject didactics (Universitätsstudienengesetz 1997). This regulation implies that (prospective) teachers do not find opportunity to prepare their diploma theses in educational sciences/pedagogy nor in subject didactics. (iv) These three facts outlined may be made accountable that (prospective) teachers have only very limited opportunity to get to know knowledge of professional relevance and to be involved in research on topics/problems of professional nature. (v) In addition deficits in the development of subject didactics as sciences of the teaching profession may be (partially) explained by these facts (cf. H. SEEL 1998). (vi) The amount of time devoted to school practice seems to be rather low. Because of this school practice organized by University can only give some orientation. A sound teaching practice component has still to be missed. (vii) Studies in the academic disciplines in the second part of the programmes ought to be oriented on needs of schools and their syllabi. In fact models oriented on structures of academic disciplines seem to dominate and it remains unclear whether this aim mentioned above can be met in ITE at University properly. (viii) And to add a curiosity: ITE at University is not obliged to offer courses in multimedia education, which implies that someone may obtain a teaching diploma without being able to use basic information and communication technology.

(d) The second part of ITE has to follow a national syllabus. Aims and contents are in need of restructuring and redefinition. The same applies to its organization. Another problem seems to exist as regards staff involved. It is debatable whether lecturers at institutes of INSET as well as co-operating teachers at schools always do possess the high qualifications necessary to fulfil the aims of the national syllabus. Similar problems seem to exist with lecturers for subject didactics working in the first phase of ITE.

3.2.3 Continuous education of teachers/Lehrerfort- und Lehrerweiterbildung

Six main problems of INSET may be analyzed:

(a) INSET may be characterized by a lack of coherence both at a national level and at the level of schools. Priorities as regards contents/topics and the use of resources have not been defined yet. Coherent strategies and action schemes for the continuous education and training of teachers are still pending. Issues of highest relevance such as school administration or net-based learning are not adressed coherently (cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1997).

(b) INSET seems to be oriented on individual (professional) needs and interests of teachers. More systemic approaches (e.g. school-based INSET, organization development) have only found limited attention so far, but success of school improvement activities will to a large extent depend on systemic approaches. Much might be expected with a concept of establishing “supportive infrastructures” developed by P.POSCH (1996).

(c) A flexible and permeable system of INSET and further education has not been developed yet. Especially further education seems to follow fragmented models (with a lack of mutual recognition of various courses) and/or a principle of “blind alley”. Universities have still developed a culture of continuous education and training rather rudimentary. Additionally, the adoption of open and distance learning in INSET as well as in the further education of teachers may be seen as suboptimal.

(d) “Incentives” for participation in INSET (and school development activities) may be seen as a fourth problem. Conditions for participation in INSET have been outlined above. Recently the problem is discussed how to motivate a sufficient number of teachers to participate actively in INSET so that teachers and schools will be in a position to meet the needs and tasks of education in a rapidly changing society. The demographic structure of the teaching force in Austria (cf. mean age of teaching force around 42 years) calls for giving highest priority to this issue.

(e) The evaluation of INSET activities and quality management in INSET have been neglected in the past. The fact that resources available for INSET could not always be used in the most effective way may be explained by a lack of quality management.

(f) Problems of realizing a global/international/European Dimension (and their relations to teachers and INSET) may be seen as another issue. Three facts seem to be of high relevance: (i) Syllabi of all schools contain many topics relevant to international/global/European education, but a coherent concept in INSET has still to be missed. (ii) Competences of teachers and students in foreign languages (mainly in English only) seem to be in strong need to be improved (e.g. “Fremdsprachenoffensive”). (iii) Although a majority of teachers holds a critical attitude towards the European Union, they have strong interest on questions and problems of European integration. Many components of this critical attitude may be explained by a lack of information. Therefore it seems to be necessary to pay particular attention to these issues.

4. “New” measures for “new” needs

Problems and needs of TE in Austria have been outlined in chapter 3. The following description of “new” measures for “new” needs will mainly focus on issues recently discussed in the “social arena” of TE in Austria. The chapter will be structured into ITE (4.1) with a separate discussion on developments in the two main types of ITE (4.1), continuous TE (4.2), and “new” measures to be taken at European Commission level (4.3). This structure reflects the fact that coherent and comprehensive measures to improve the entire system of TE in Austria recently are subject to discussion and action very peripherally only. Measures to tackle persisting and/or “new” needs are mainly discussed and developed in rather fragmented circles of the different subsystems of Austrian TE.

4.1 Initial teacher education/Lehrerausbildung

4.1.1 Teachers for compulsory education

1. Very recently a working group responsible to the Minister of Education and Cultural Affairs has presented a draft for a new law aiming at a re-organization of studies at Colleges of Teacher Education/Akademiestedengesetz (1998) which in British terminology might have the status of a green paper. Although this draft of this law seems to contain a number of discrepancies and has gradually been subject to sometimes substantial changes, the main rationale may be described as follows:

(i) Colleges of Teacher Education and Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education should receive the legal status of institutions of higher education within Austria. This change of the legal status should guarantee the professional recognition of the graduates of Colleges of Education in the member states of the European Union as well as the academic recognition of studies done at Colleges of Education at Universities both within Austria and in the European Union. It remains uncertain whether both motives hold true considering legal regulations of the European Union.

The draft of the law mentioned states that Colleges of Education legally have to remain schools governed by the national school organization act/Schulorganisationsgesetz. Much discussion will be necessary how a change of the format drafted may be made operational.

(ii) Colleges of Teacher Education and Colleges of Vocational Teacher Education should be preserved as independent single-purpose institutions. In addition to their mission for ITE they should get more responsibility for the continuous education of teachers.

(iii) These institutions should receive organizational and administrative structures comparable to Fachhochschulen (cf. Fachhochschulstudiengangsgesetz 1993) as well as to Universities (cf. Universitaetsorganisationsgesetz 1993, Universitaetsstudiengesetz 1997). This would imply more autonomy as regards structure, organization and content.

(iv) The basic structure of the study programmes should be preserved (duration of studies, concurrent model and one-phase approach).

2. The draft of Akademiestedengesetz may be interpreted as an outcome of a neo-conservative shift of education policy in Austria outlined above, and the spokesman for education of the Social Democrats has declared that his party will not be able to accept main components of this draft of a law (this statement reflects long-standing attempts of the Social Democrats aiming at ITE for all

categories of teachers at University level). At the same time the draft considers some components contained in a reform paper for TE for teachers of compulsory education produced by a committee (cf. Entwicklungsausschuss 1993) responsible to the former Minister of Education, but the draft of *Akademiestudiengesetz* remains in many respects behind it. The proposal of Entwicklungsausschuss may be described as follows. Building on the many strengths of Colleges of Teacher Education (e.g. supervised teaching practice, educational studies, subject didactics and methodologies, training/model schools, network of co-operating schools with specially trained co-operating teachers) and aiming at preserving them this proposal had intended to take the following main measures: (i) transformation of Colleges of Teacher Education into the higher education sector and preservation of their independent status as *Paedagogische Hochschule*; (ii) increasing the permeability between its programmes and those of ITE at University (realized in the meanwhile to a limited extent by changes of law); (iii) increasing the autonomy of institutions of ITE and introducing modern structures of administration and management (slight changes have been made with decrees mid of the nineties); (iv) orientation of the curricula on core qualifications and an integrated/concurrent model; (v) definition of an explicit mandate for research and development; and (vi) definition of an explicit mandate for INSET and the further education of teachers.

3. As regards institutional issues the following measures are discussed to deal with existing problems and needs: (i) Some actors in the “social arena” (e.g. proponents of *Akademiestudiengesetz*, Roman Catholic Church) are convinced that ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education should remain part of the school system and that increasing their autonomy would be sufficient to solve problems outlined above. (ii) The model of the national committee for the reform of TE (cf. Entwicklungsausschuss 1993) has been outlined above. Considering some of the main components of the model developed by Entwicklungsausschuss the Social Democrats are recently preparing a concept of “*Lehrerhochschule*” with focus on TE at institutions of higher education having universitarian status. (iii) A third model intends to increase the permeability between ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education and University. Certificates of Colleges of Teacher Education should be accepted by University as a first part of their (ITE-) programmes. (iv) A fourth model focuses on partnerships between Colleges of Teacher Education and University. Modularized programmes should offer opportunities for students to take different components of ITE programmes at different institutions. (v) Another alternative would be the full incorporation of all forms of ITE into Universities. (vi) Faculties of education at University may be seen as a sixth model. These faculties of education should integrate ITE for all types of schools and INSET as well as the further education of teachers, TE and school development, and TE and research and development (cf. F.BUCHBERGER 1996).

4. The duration of the programmes seems to be too short. Four measures to prolonge ITE are discussed: (i) prolongation by one year without changing the structure of the programmes and curricula (cf. “more of the same”); (ii) prolongation of one semester by introducing a “practice semester” devoted to teaching practice at schools integrated in the programme; (iii) introduction of an induction period of one year at schools supervised by staff of institutions of ITE and specially trained co-operating teachers; (iv) introducing compulsory INSET in addition to ITE without prolonging the latter.

5. The curricula at Colleges of Teacher Education may be characterized by a high percentage of “professional” components and the integration of studies of its different components. This integrated/concurrent model may be seen both as an advantage (e.g. integration of theoretical and practical components) and as a disadvantage (e.g. lack of flexibility). “Modularization” is discussed as one measure to reach better balance between these elements. Many problems of ITE may be explained by the fact that (prospective) teachers for primary school and special education have to train for all subjects given in these types of schools. Discussions on how to solve these problems focus on the

introduction of “specialization studies” in two or three subjects. Discussions on the programmes of ITE for teachers at lower secondary schools focus on the problem whether an appropriate education in two academic disciplines might result in effects expected within the short duration of time available. Different measures are discussed to deal with this problem (e.g. study of one academic discipline, its subject didactic and two other methodologies; problem-oriented and integrated study of combinations of academic disciplines).

6. Other new measures discussed to meet new needs of ITE at Colleges of Teacher Education may be described as follows: (i) Improving administrative and organizational issues by a strict programme of quality management. Beginning in September 1998 Colleges of Teacher Education will make themselves to subject of institution-wide quality management procedures which may be interpreted as adaptations of models adopted in enterprises. (ii) Developing (additional) programmes of study/Zusatzstudien in fields where a strong (new) need seems to exist (e.g. multimedia education, business education, training of trainers). These programmes might be open to student teachers, teachers and non-teaching staff. (iii) More intense participation in the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) combined with a restructuring of the curricula: (iv) Establishing research units/departments and research and development programmes focusing on areas of subject didactics. (v) Developing and participating in all-European curriculum development programmes (i.a. masters programmes for multimedia education and consulting). (vi) Developing training/model schools to professional development schools involved in ITE, INSET, school improvement as well as research and development. (vii) Introduction of a national programme aiming at increasing the (formal) qualifications of staff at Colleges of Teacher Education (“Habitationsfoederungsprogramm”). (viii) Establishing programmes for staff focusing on methodology of higher education (“Didaktikerqualifikation”).

4.1.2 “Lehramt an Hoheren Schulen”

1. ITE for this category of teachers has been subject to two main reforms in the eighties. Firstly, ITE has been established as particular programme of study at University. Secondly, this model has been changed again in the late eighties with the introduction of a “two-phase approach”. Problems and new needs may be seen as driving forces that again in 1993 a national commission has been established (by the Ministry of Science and Research and the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs) to develop a concept for reform of ITE at University and of the second part of ITE. Following changed paradigms of higher education (cf. C.EINEM 1998) changes of the act governing the organization of University/Universitaetsorganisationsgesetz (1993) and of the act governing studies at University/Universitaetsstudiengesetz (1997) have brought about changes of ITE at University in the meanwhile.

2. As regards the first part of ITE the national committee mentined above has presented a proposal focusing on six issues (cf. E.MAYR 1994): (i) establishing faculties of education/Paedagogische Fakultaeten at the Universities and giving responsibility for TE to these faculties; (ii) integrating centres for school practice into the faculties of education; (iii) introducing a course of study TE/“Lehramt” under the responsibility of faculties of education; (iv) subject didactics should be transfered from subject departments to the faculties of education; this transfer may be seen in close relationship with attempts to increase the quality of the different subject didactics and to offer opportunity for subject didactics to increase its scientific base; (v) responsibilities regarding programmes of TE should be reduced at a national level and should be given to faculties of education; (vi) establishing partnerships between TE at University and schools (second part) as well as establishing training schools/”Uebungsgymnasien”.

3. Again in 1997 ITE at University has become subject to reform (cf. *Universitaetsstudiengesetz*). Regulations of this new law may be described as follows:

(i) ITE is defined as a particular masters programme/Diplomstudium of a duration of nine semesters (4.5 years) and oriented towards the teaching of two subjects of school. This implies that ITE may not be conceived any more as a branch of studies of scientific disciplines.

(ii) The programmes consist of studies in two subject areas with a minimum of 900 units of tuition per discipline and a maximum of 2100 units of tuition per discipline depending on the fields of study chosen, studies in pedagogy and subject didactics related to the academic disciplines amounting 20-25% of the numbers given above for tuition, and school practice. Legally the “professional” components pedagogy and subject didactics/*Fachdidaktik* have been combined, but institutionally they remain separated with the latter bound to the (academic) subjects.

(iii) Law prescribes that the particular programmes of study/*Studienplaene* have to be materialized by special commissions/*Studienkommissionen* at the faculties of Universities involved in the subject study component as well as the educational study component of the ITE programmes with the representatives of the subject study component forming a majority in the respective commissions and the latter a (non-protected) minority.

(iv) Additionally, *Universitaetsstudiengesetz* prescribes school practice as compulsory. An exact amount has not been defined, but school practice should not be less than defined in a previous law (*Gesetz ueber geistes- und naturwissenschaftliche Studien*). The concrete amount of school practice has to be decided in co-operation with the school administration.

(v) Graduates of Colleges of Teacher Education holding a (teaching) certificate for lower secondary school/*Hauptschule* may enter the second part of Universitarian TE study programmes/*2.Studienabschnitt* (without teaching certificates being recognized as first diploma examination/*1.Diplompruefung*). This regulation is in strong need to be revised.

(vi) Additionally, Universities are obliged to recognize particular examinations taken at institutions at the post-secondary level of the education system in case they are of comparable quality.

4. Measured decreed by the acts mentioned before may be seen as ambivalent. On one side they consider only some (and in no case the most relevant issues) of the proposals made by the national committee aiming at a more professional ITE. On another side they may open up a broad space for curriculum reform in ITE, but without considering existing power structures in the “social arena” University which eventually might be counter-productive to professionalization aimed at.

5. As regards the second part of ITE reforms have recently be introduced aiming at closer relationships between the two phases of ITE (e.g. curricula, staff). Regulations decreed by *Universitaetsstudiengesetz* call for even more co-operation. Measures will have to be taken to increase qualifications of staff involved (e.g. co-operating teachers).

6. Substantial reforms of the first as well as of the second part are still pending although different groups (e.g. students, parents, industry) clearly express discomfort.

4.2 Continuous education of teachers/Lehrerfort- und Lehrerweiterbildung

1. During the past 25 years Austria has developed a comprehensive system of INSET. The introduction of reforms (e.g. introduction of a new type of school at lower secondary level) and innovations of the curricula (e.g. new syllabi at primary level, new information and communication technology) has been supported effectively by institutions of INSET. A flexible management of institutions of INSET has (very often) been open to new needs expressed by different groups (e.g. chamber of merchants, trade union) and by teachers and has provided programmes to meet these needs. However, an offensive of INSET and the development of a plan with priorities for INSET seem to be imperative (e.g. Community languages/"Fremdsprachenoffensive", multimedia education/"Multimediaoffensive").
2. Law defines that teachers are obliged to take part in INSET. Measures necessary to organize compulsory INSET have been developed only to a very limited extent. More appropriate support structures will have to be established. Recently there are attempts to provide measures necessary for school-based INSET (e.g. specially trained staff at institutions of INSET). Some federal states have established local/regional centres for INSET.
3. INSET has to be related more closely both to innovations at a national level and to school improvement activities at the level of particular schools (e.g. development of "school development plans").
4. INSET is financed by the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs. Schools themselves do not have resources to finance INSET. There is a strong need to reorganize this system and to give resources to the schools which then themselves take decisions on how to spend resources available.

4.3 European Commission level

As has been outlined above the participation of Colleges of Teacher Education in the ERASMUS programme has brought about many very positive results both within these institutions of ITE (e.g. improvements in the curricula) and for students and staff who have had opportunity for studying abroad. Similar applies to the SOCRATES programme both for most institutions of ITE and INSET. Rich experience of Austrian institutions of TE participating in European Commission education co-operation programmes permits to consider some items of relevance to the recent process of developing a new big European Commission education co-operation programme (SOCRATES II, 1998).

ERASMUS with all its chapters has proved to be a big success. The establishing of thematic networks (e.g. for TE) has been of considerable importance and Austrian institutions of TE could take a leading role. In SOCRATES II more efforts might be taken to promote networks of high quality Universities of TE. Within ERASMUS even more attention had to be given to curriculum development projects. Similar applies to LINGUA as well as to open and distance learning (ODL) where increased efforts at Commission level seem to be indispensable. European Education Projects under COMENIUS and ARION have brought about input of highest relevance. Problems seem to exist with COMENIUS/chapter 3 (INSET). More shape and coherence seems to be indispensable. Additionally, this chapter had to be brought into relation to a permanent system of accrediting qualifications acquired by teachers within such programmes ("All-European INSET-based masters programmes").

At European Commission level it seems to be necessary to support five large research and development programmes (including measures of the targeted socio-economic research programme) which might have highest impact on the improvement of TE and the process of social and economic restructuring of the member states of the European Union:

- (i) An optimal development of human resources calls both for an appropriate selection of contents to be taught and the use of the best methods of teaching possible. Teachers have to possess competence and expertise in both areas, and TE has to offer learning situations in which (prospective) teachers may be able to acquire qualifications necessary. A highly developed science - subject didactics/Fachdidaktik - seems to be a necessary condition that these goals may be reached properly. The actual state of this science may be characterized by a host of problems and deficits (cf. H.SEEL 1998). Therefore it seems to be necessary to establish and to support both at European Union level and at national level large research programmes dealing with the development of subject didactics.
- (ii) The same applies to the optimal use of new information and communication technology in teaching and learning. Large research and development programmes of a coherent nature seem to be imperative. Action taken with the Joint Call Multimedia Education may be seen as a first step in this direction.
- (iii) An introduction of a “European Dimension” into the curricula of TE as well as into the curricula of schools seems to be confronted with a host of problems (e.g. problems in the theoretical base of this concept; problems of appropriate teaching methodologie). Again, research and development programmes at European Commission level seem to be indispensable. As a result different modularized curricula may be expected.
- (iv) Life-long learning and continuous professional development have been “blind spots” of the different systems of TE in most member states of the European Union so far. Research programmes analyzing conditions (e.g. in ITE) to reach these goals and developing measures to promote them seem to be necessary.
- (v) It is frequently stated that the quality of teaching depends on the quality of teachers. The same seems to apply to TE. The quality of TE depends on the quality of teacher educators. At European Commission level an introduction of a programme for teacher educators to obtain a European diploma “Teacher Educator” might bring about substantial improvements.

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**Teacher Education in Belgium,
Flemish and French Communities
- the situation at the end of the 1990s**

I. National Education System in Belgium: an overview

In 1830 Belgium became an independent state with a Constitution of its own (1831). Since 1970 this Constitution has been reformed into a federal system. This Federal State has three Communities, responsible for cultural and personal affairs within a certain linguistic area: the Flemish Community, the French Community and the German-speaking Community. Educational responsibilities are the responsibility of the Communities.

Freedom of education is a constitutional right and is incorporated into article 24 of the Belgian Constitution. This constitutional freedom renders the organization of educational networks possible. These networks are:

- community education organized by the three Communities;
- the official subsidized education organized by the provincial and municipal authorities;
- the free subsidized education organized by a private person or private organization (in this field the largest part is presented as Catholic education).

Education organized by the first two networks is called official (state) education; the education provided by the third network is called private education.

In Belgium school attendance is compulsory and full-time from 6 years up to the age of 18. However, from 15/16 years on, pupils can opt for part-time compulsory school attendance. (Compulsory School Attendance Act, 1983)

Elementary education includes nursery school and primary education. Nursery school (not compulsory) is provided for children aged 2,5 to 6. Primary education is provided for children aged 6 to 12. This cycle is finished with an elementary education certificate.

Secondary education is meant for youngsters aged 12 to 18 and consists of 6 years, divided in 3 cycles of 2 years each. Secondary education in Flanders is characterised by a “unified” system (see table 3) where the basic training receives great weight and definite choices are postponed till the 2nd cycles. However, a part of the study package remains equal for all pupils: the collective part. Beside that, pupils can select specific subjects: the optional part. From the 2nd cycle on, the pupil has the choice between certain lines of study:

- general secondary education (ASO): general education offering a foundation for attending higher education;
- technical secondary education (TSO): general and technical/theoretical subjects; possibility to hold an occupation or to continue studying at higher education level;
- artistic secondary education (KSO): general education combined with active arts practice; possibility to hold an occupation or to continue studying at higher education level;
- vocational secondary education (BSO): practical education in which pupils learn a specific occupation.

At the 3rd cycle of secondary education part-time vocational secondary education is possible (DBSO).

In the French Community there exist two types of secondary education. Type I offers 'renewed' education, divided into three cycles of two years each. Pupils have the choice between four lines of study: general education, technical education, professional education and artistic education. This type of secondary education is the most widespread in the French Community. In Type II, the 'traditional' education system, there are 3 sections: general, technical and professional education. Type II is divided into two cycles of three years each.

In both the Flemish and the French Community, pupils in the 3rd cycle can follow a 3rd year in order to prepare themselves for higher education or to specialize.

After finishing full-time secondary education, students receive a secondary education diploma, necessary to start higher education studies.

Special education exists on the level of primary and secondary education. It is meant for children with a mental, physical and/or sensorial handicap, with grave behavioural and/or emotional problems or serious learning difficulties.

Higher education includes education provided by Higher Education Institutes and University.

The organization of Higher Education Institutes in the Flemish Community was established by a Decree passed by the Council of the Flemish Community on July 13th, 1994. With 11 lines of study, it offers basic training programmes of 1 cycle (3 years) or 2 cycles (4 or 5 years). In the 1-cycle higher education, youngsters are provided with practical vocational skills, based on scientifically founded knowledge. At the 2-cycle higher education the level is academic. It is based on scientific knowledge. Besides this kind of education, Higher Education Institutes also offer continuing or postgraduate training programmes, are active in rendering social services and in scientific research, in cooperation with universities.

Since the recent upscaling in higher education, the large number of Higher Education Institutes has been reduced to 29. One Institute of Higher Education comprises several departments. Some of the Higher Education Institutes have a Department for Teacher Education.

University education consists of 18 lines of study and has three grades or cycles:

- candidate's degree obtained after a basic university education of 2 or 3 years;
- licentiate's degree obtained after a (more specialised) study of 2 or 3 years. In some lines of study it is even longer;

- a doctoral degree can only be obtained by defending a doctoral thesis and is required for being appointed as a member of the university staff.

Besides the traditional education levels there is also continuing education, directed mainly to adults (see tables 1 and 2).

II. National Education System in Teacher Education

In Belgium there are five basic types of teacher qualifications:

- a. Qualification for nursery education (3-6 years of age) (kleuteronderwijzer(es); instituteur/institutrice préscolaire).
- b. Qualification for primary education (6-12 years of age) (onderwijzer(es) lager onderwijs; instituteur/institutrice primaire).
- c. Qualification to teach 2 or 3 subjects in secondary education - group 1 (12-16 years of age) (Diploma van geaggregeerde voor het secundair onderwijs - groep 1/Regent; Diplôme d'Agrégé de l'enseignement secondaire inférieur/Régent).
- d. Qualification to teach technical/vocational subjects in secondary education. (12-18 years of age) (Diploma van geaggregeerde voor het technisch onderwijs/Regent; Diplôme d'Agrégé de l'enseignement secondaire (pour les cours techniques)/Régent) or (Getuigschrift pedagogische bekwaamheid; Certificat d'aptitude pédagogiques).
- e. Qualification to teach in secondary education - group 2 (15-18 years of age). (Diploma van geaggregeerde voor het secundair onderwijs - groep 2; Diplôme d'Agrégé de l'enseignement).

Each of these qualifications prepares for a specific level in the education system (see tables 1 and 2). The list above does not contain the qualification to teach in special education (primary and secondary). Teachers who teach in special education need to possess one of the qualifications mentioned above. Moreover they have to follow a special course during 2 (or 3 years) at the Departments for Teacher Education at the Higher Education Institutes (see II.2.2. In-Service Training). The various qualifications and the main characteristics of the education leading to these qualifications are summarized in table 4 (table of the teacher training system in Belgium).

At present, there are three levels or systems of initial teacher education which operate independently of each other and train different categories of teachers:

- 1) at the Departments for Teacher Education at the Higher Education Institutes;
- 2) the Pedagogical Higher Education Institutes for Social Advancement (part-time, especially for teachers of technical and practical subjects);
- 3) at the University.

Organization and contents of these programmes are under the authority of the two Ministers of Education, one for each Community, and differ in the three linguistic sectors.

II.1. General (Academic) Education

II.1.1. Undergraduate Level

In the Department for Teacher Education at the Higher Education Institutes, students are educated in a three years' curriculum (1 cycle) to become teachers at nursery, primary or secondary school (group 1). The curriculum is of the concurrent type.

For some vocational teachers there are the Technical Institutes for Teacher Training. These Technical Institutes correspond to the Departments for Teacher Education within the Higher Education Institutes. They have a structure similar to the programmes and timetables of teacher education for teachers in secondary schools - group 1.

The only prerequisite for admission to teacher education for nursery, primary and lower secondary school - group 1 - is a diploma of (full-time) secondary education.

Initial teacher education consists of two main components: the disciplinary study of one or more general subjects and professional training (see II.2 Professional Training).

It will be clear that the academic level of the subjects to be studied varies strongly depending on whether one prepares to teach in nursery, primary or secondary education.

Due to the three networks in the Belgian education system, it is not possible to give the exact curriculum of each Department for Teacher Education.

Flemish Community:

professional studies: *Nursery level*

- developmental psychology;
- educational sciences/pedagogy (1st year, 2nd year, 3rd year);
- didactics and study of the nursery school curriculum.

Primary level

- educational sciences (developmental psychology, psychology of adolescence, pedagogy, didactics) (1st, 2nd, 3rd);
- agogic skills (2nd, 3rd);
- computer science and media (1st, 2nd).

Lower secondary level

- educational studies (psychology of adolescence, pedagogy, didactics) (1st, 2nd, 3rd)
- media and computer (1st, 2nd, 3rd)

subject studies: *Nursery level*

mother tongue (Dutch or French), mathematics, world orientation
(=integration of biology, geography and history), family education, studies

of expression (music, graphic arts, physical education, manual skills).

Primary level

religion/ethics, mother tongue (Dutch), second language (French), mathematics, world orientation, studies of expression.

Future teachers in primary education study a wide range of subjects, because they are the key teachers who teach all subjects that form part of the curriculum in primary education. Exceptions are (sometimes) made for religion and ethics, physical education and sports.

Lower secondary level

Students have to choose a major and two minors. The future teacher in the first and second degree of secondary education studies respectively three subjects or one subject;

religion/ethics, mother tongue (except if mother tongue is chosen as major), major, minor A, minor B.

Important majors are: mother tongue, second language (French), English, mathematics. Minors are: history, ethics/religion, geography, biology, physics, economics.

In the Technical Institutes for Teacher Training the majors and minors are substituted by technical subject studies: woodwork, electricity, mechanics...

French Community:

Common to all three forms of Higher Pedagogic Education (H.P.E.):

- Philosophy, logic, debate (1st year, 2nd year, 3rd year)
- Oral expression (1st)
- Belgian State institutions (1st)
- Notions of economics and social legislation (2nd, 3rd)
- Approach to cultural life (2nd)
- History of pedagogy (3rd)
- Audio-visual media/computer (2nd)

Different in the three forms of H.P.E.

professional studies: *Nursery/primary/lower secondary*

psychology-methodology, didactics and computer education

subject studies: *Nursery/primary/lower secondary*

French, mathematics, history, geography, science, plastic arts education,

musical education, physical education, sports & psycho-motility.

In the training of teachers for secondary school - group 1 - there are sub-sections:

- education sections: physical education/sports/leisure activities;
- education sections: French combined with history or ethics; Dutch combined with English or German; English - German; mathematics combined with physics or economics or ethics;
- education sections: physics-chemistry-biology; geography-chemistry-biology; geography-history-social science & economics.

At present, there is a problem of diploma recognition for some of these sub-sections.

II.1.1.1. Organization of Studies

All the education is full-time education.

The Departments for Teacher Education within the Higher Education Institutes follow a parallel model, in which study in general subjects and professional studies take place throughout the whole 3-year curriculum. During these three years students have 30hrs/week taken up by courses (28 hrs/week for lower secondary teacher education).

At the Departments of Teacher Education the practice period is spread over the whole course, although the amount of practice strongly increases in the 3rd year.

Each year the students take an examination on the subject studies and the professional studies. There is a continuous evaluation of the teaching practice. Students who have passed the examinations and have received a positive evaluation for teaching practice obtain the teacher certificate for nursery, primary or secondary education - group 1.

II.1.1.2. Impact of Community Cooperation Programmes

In the Departments of Teacher Education there are three ways to deal with an international dimension in teacher education.

- Participation of foreign students/teachers (short periods). Requirements: teachers should have equal qualifications and fluency in Dutch or French (depending on the Community).
- Exchange programmes. Many Higher Education Institutes are involved in exchange programmes such as Erasmus, Lingua, Tempus, Comenius or Busnet. Others have their "private" connections with institutions and higher education institutes abroad.
- European dimension. Many institutions work with specific projects in which the European dimension is central. Or they organize excursions abroad. Further they may work with language assistants from abroad (usually for a short period).

There are still some obstacles concerning exchange programmes (especially Erasmus). First of all, there is the language problem. Dutch is one of the less widely spoken (and less widely taught) languages which makes equal exchange of students far from evident. More students are going out than coming in.

Problems also arise at administrative and curriculum level. Therefore, an overall plea to implement the ECTS structure (European Course Credit Transfer System) was often heard. Today, most of the Higher Education Institutes use credits, in conformity with ECTS.

II.1.2. Post-Graduate Studies

A. Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude

In Belgium we have Pedagogic Higher Education Institutes for Social Advancement, i.e. education on a part-time basis. Teachers giving practical courses and some teachers giving technical courses, for which no 'full-time' education is available, may pursue the teaching profession by attending these 'social advancement courses'.

This consists of 4 "modules":

- module A: mastery of the language, problems of present interest (only for candidates who have not got a full certificate of higher secondary education), agogics, communication skills, media (min. 120 hrs - max. 150 hrs);
- module B: pedagogy, psychology, general didactics, theory of subject teaching methodology, practice of subject teaching methodology (min. 300 hrs - max. 360 hrs);
- module C: pedagogy, psychology, general didactics, theory of subject teaching methodology, practice of subject teaching methodology (min. 180 hrs - max. 270 hrs); (only for students with a certificate of higher education);
- module D: ethics of education, educational law and organization of education (min. 90 hrs - max. 120 hrs).

B. Teacher Training at University

At the university, students have the opportunity to obtain an additional diploma (Geaggregeerde voor het secundair onderwijs - groep 2/Agrégé pour l'Enseignement) by taking the courses of the Academic Initial Teacher Training, either parallel with the degree courses in their respective disciplines (during the licence degree) or after they have finished their university studies.

The curriculum contains theoretical courses in educational studies and an initiation in educational practice. (The different departments for teacher education of the universities have minor differences in their programmes).

An example of professional studies, as organised at the University of Ghent:

- Educational Psychology/General Didactics
- Education and Society (part 1: aspects of organization; part 2: history and sociological aspects; part 3: juridical and deontological aspects)
- Psychology and Sociology of Youth
- Pedagogical Aspects of the Teaching Profession

- Sociological and philosophical reflections on the subject content
- Instructional interaction and communication
- Seminars on the integration of theory and practice
- Teaching Methodology: theoretical component
- Teaching Methodology: practical training
- Teaching Methodology: workshops and seminars.

II.1.2.1. Organization of Studies

A. Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude

Candidates, especially teachers for practical and technical subjects, for whom no full-time educational training programme is available, can take courses in weekend or evening classes preparing them for a test leading to the “Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude”. This certificate is issued by a State jury and entitles the holder to teach technical and practical courses at lower and higher secondary education level.

To enter this training, candidates need a certificate of (lower) (technical) secondary education. Teachers for practical subjects need a minimum of 3 years of experience in a private firm. The minimum age is 21.

It is a part-time curriculum of minimum 2, maximum 4 years and consists of pedagogical and didactical courses and practical training in teaching. There are 4 modular courses (module B and C have similar courses but different hours). The students have to follow 3 modules spread over min. 4, max. 8 semesters. The training contains 10 hrs/week over a period of 20 weeks.

B. Teacher Training at University

The Academic Initial Teacher Training is organized by the Decree on teacher education and continuing education of 16 April, 1996. The university study programme follows either a parallel or a consecutive model. The student graduates as a master in a specific discipline and the professional study takes (partly) place as a post-graduate course of 1 year (34 credits; min. 270 hrs). At the Academic Initial Teacher Training the practice is also spread over the whole programme; the total time spent at school is about 30 hrs.

A diploma of full secondary education suffices as an admission requirement to the university. The decree of 1996 concerning the Academic Initial Teacher Education prescribes that students must hold a university diploma of the second cycle in their discipline before they can get their teaching diploma in that specific discipline. In practice, most students take the course of the teacher education curriculum parallel to their licence (3rd and 4th year).

The students have to take exams for the professional studies. For the teaching methodology (practical training, workshops and seminars) a system of permanent evaluation is in use.

The future teacher in secondary education - group 2 - studies one subject. Exceptions are the students who follow Latin and Greek or modern languages. But it is common practice that general subjects can be taught by each teacher with a teaching qualification.

II.1.2.2. Impact of Community Cooperation Programmes

A. Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude

Different schools and programmes apply for a support of the European social funds. (No further information available.)

B. Teacher Training at University

At the universities there are three ways how to deal with the international dimension in teacher training.

- Participation of foreign students/teachers (short periods). Requirements: teachers should have equal qualifications and fluency in Dutch or French (depending on the Community).
- Exchange programmes. Most universities are involved in exchange programmes such as Erasmus, Lingua, (Socrates), Tempus and Comenius. Others have their “private” connections with institutions and colleges abroad.
- European dimension. This is not so common in teacher training at the universities apart from a few Erasmus networks dealing with the European dimension.

There are still some obstacles concerning exchange programmes (especially Erasmus). Dutch is one of the minority languages, which makes equal exchange of students far from evident. More students are going out than coming in.

Problems also arise at administrative and curriculum level. Therefore, an overall plea to implement the ECTS structure (European Course Credit Transfer System) was often heard. Today, all Belgian universities use credits, in conformity with ECTS.

II.1.3. PhD Level

Not applicable.

II.2. Professional Training

A. Department of Teacher Education at Higher Education Institutes

Flemish Community

School practice under the supervision of the professors of professional studies:

- 1st year: max. 4 weeks + model lessons and group practice sessions.
- 2nd year: max. 8 weeks + model lessons and group practice sessions.
- 3rd year: max. 16 weeks or half of the training time.

In the 3rd year of primary teacher education a sandwich model has been introduced: students have two weeks of classes followed by two weeks of teaching practice.

For teachers in lower secondary education the same model is used in the third year. Here, the main objective is not to train specialists in a specific subject but to give students substantial training in

three or four subjects in order to minimize the number of different teachers for the pupils in the first years of the secondary school.

French Community

For nursery, primary and lower secondary education

- 1st year: +/- 2 weeks;
- 2nd year: +/- 4 weeks;
- 3rd year: +/- 15 weeks.

The main goal of the subject studies is to give students a polyvalent training in the subjects which they will have to teach in primary school. Professional studies aim at developing a minimum of theoretical background for teaching practice.

B. Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude

In this course, only modules B/C concern teaching practice.

C. Teacher Training at University

Students who follow the teacher training programme at the university have 60 hours of practical training in schools and 45 hours of practical seminars. The practical training includes min. 5 observations in a classroom (secondary - group 2 and/or higher education), min. 10 lessons to teach as a try-out and one week of continuous teaching practice. Teaching practice is linked with subject teaching methodology and the practical seminars in which the sandwich model (theory and practice alternate) is applied.

In the Flemish Community, most teachers are qualified to teach one or two specific subjects in upper secondary education. They also possess the adequate teaching qualification to teach other subjects on the curriculum of upper secondary education.

A distinction is made between three types of qualifications: required qualifications, qualifications deemed to be sufficient and 'others'. The list of required qualifications and qualifications deemed to be sufficient has been formulated by the Department of Education of the Flemish Community and laid down by Decree. This situation is similar for the French Community.

The list of required qualifications spells out exactly what teaching qualifications are required to pursue a given activity. The qualifications deemed to be sufficient state what qualifications will be accepted for a specific post in the absence of the required qualifications. The required qualifications and those thought to be sufficient can both lead to a permanent post after a temporary appointment. The third category of qualifications, 'others', may be taken into consideration for an appointment, but solely on an ad hoc and temporary basis.

To teach in higher education no specific provisions are made although possessing the diploma of Academic Initial Teacher Education is highly recommended.

In the French Community the newly adopted Decree of Minister Lebrun will organize a different teacher training for teachers in Higher Education. This training will be organized jointly by universities and the new "Hautes Ecoles".

II.2.1. Professional Activity

A. At the Department for Teacher Education at the Higher Education Institutes

These teachers usually get a job in the education sector: nursery, primary or secondary education - group 1. A minority works in education-linked areas (youth movement; multicultural education; etc.).

B. Certificate of Pedagogic Aptitude

Most of these teachers find a job in vocational and technical secondary education.

C. Teacher Training at University

Most of the students at university study a specific programme to become a specialist in a specific subject area. Teacher training is organised and experienced as an extra. For only a few the teaching profession is a first choice.

The professional activity of these teachers is concentrated at two levels:

- the secondary education - group 2 (see above).
- higher education

II.2.2. In-Service Training (INSET)

The need for in-service training has increased as a result of two elements:

- reforms in (pre-)primary and secondary education: the development and implementation of attainment targets (final a-levels)
- demands from the society: the promotion of inter-cultural pedagogy, drugs prevention, harassment of pupils/teachers, computer training, the introduction of new technology, ...

A well-organized structure is essential to deal with the ever-growing need for comprehensive pedagogical and didactic guidance. There is no legal obligation for teachers to participate in INSET. The participation in training activities does not lead to any advantages with regard to salary or career development.

II.2.2.1. Contents

Flemish Community

The contents of INSET can be anything in the domain of a specific subject knowledge, educational theory, classroom management, school management and administration, etc. The INSET training courses are adapted to the different teaching levels: nursery and primary education, secondary and higher education.

Some teacher training institutions offer courses leading to a certificate. Examples are courses for remedial teaching, for special education, etc.

The Certificate of Aptitude for Special Education (Bekwaamheidsgetuigschrift tot het geven van buitengewoon onderwijs) can be obtained by following a two- or three-year course at a Higher Education Institute. However, it is not compulsory to possess such a certificate to teach at special schools.

French Community

The contents of INSET are to a large extent determined by the demand of teachers and schools. The contents can be anything in the domain of pedagogic content knowledge, educational theory, classroom management, school management and administration, etc. Some teacher training institutions offer courses leading to a certificate, e.g. courses for remedial teaching, for special education etc.

The French Community is gradually setting up continuous and complementary teacher training courses for special education in an experimental form. These training courses were established by a Decree passed by the Council of the French Community (December 14th, 1990). Subsequent measures will establish the required qualifications and functions in special education.

II.2.2.2. Organization

Flemish Community

In-service training is mainly provided by education authorities. At present the in-service training of teachers in the Flemish Community is organized by the Decree on teacher education and continuing education of 16 April, 1996. The Cell Continued Education of the Education Department coordinates a part of the in-service training. Every year they propose several themes on which organizations (like universities, higher education institutes and other centres) can develop an in-service training. These courses are supported by the Flemish Community. The Cell Continued Education also published a repertory for continuous education. This register contains the addresses, goals and services of organisations (private and belonging to the three educational networks) and centres offering in-service training.

Recently, new ideas have been developed, such as new INSET subjects, based on the teacher's need of professional development. Schools today have local autonomy and responsibility in choosing in-service training. Each school receives a budget for its in-service training. So schools have to identify their own needs of in-service training and can deal directly with the in-service training institutions.

No replacement can be provided for teachers who take part in short courses of in-service training. If these activities are organized during class hours, the school administration must take appropriate measures to ensure that the normal timetable can be respected. Very often in-service training is not at all an integral part of the regular teaching service.

Teachers who attend specific long courses, which are subject to a number of conditions, are entitled to an in-service training certificate on the basis of which they are entitled to apply for a higher-level position. In-service training does not result in any financial or career advantages for teachers. Travel expenses and, in some cases, other expenses resulting from participation in in-service programmes can be reimbursed. Most of the teachers volunteer for the in-service courses, there is no obligation for INSET programmes.

French Community

In the French-speaking Community, in-service training is organized independently by three education networks:

- the network in the French-speaking Community (public education directly organized by the Government of the French-speaking Community);
- the network of subsidized public education (education organized by the communes and provinces);
- the network of “free” subsidized education (education organized by private institutions, in most cases by religious bodies).

The in-service training for basic and special education is covered by the Decree of 24 December, 1990; in-service training for secondary education is covered by the Decree of 16 July, 1993.

At primary-education level (nursery and primary) in-service training is organized by the school inspectors (both contents and timing; journées pédagogiques). Teacher participation is compulsory. Teachers can also participate on a voluntary basis up to ten days of in-service training a year (with the permission of their school principal).

At secondary education level, in-service training is organized by the Ministry of Education within the framework of the reform of the first degree of secondary education (automatic promotion between the first and the second year). This in-service training is compulsory (2 days/year). On a voluntary basis, teachers can participate in one or more training programmes offered by the ministry (with the consent of their school principal).

II.2.3. Cross-Country Practical Training at Post-University Level

No information available./Not existing in Belgium.

II.2.4. European Schools

European Schools can be found in Belgium at primary, secondary and higher education level. An important part of the education is dedicated to languages. Some of the schools provide an ‘American and British education’. Certain schools aim at a specific public, e.g. children of diplomats from certain countries (Scandinavian School, British School, Ecole Française, etc.).

Three of these European Schools (organized and paid for by the European Parliament), are already operative in Belgium, and a fourth one will be opened (so on the whole, there are 3 of them in Brussels, and a new one in Mol). Except for E.U. civil servant children, the enrolment fee is very high.

III. New Needs in Teacher Education and Training

Introduction

Many of the needs of teacher education in Belgium will of course correspond with the needs of teacher education in Europe. In Belgium the strong need for a fundamental reorganization of teacher

training at university level resulted in the Decree on teacher education and continuing education of 16 April, 1996.

However, a public debate about the re-organization of teacher training is still going on. This debate is based on two teacher education cultures: in the teacher education departments at the higher education institutes (with a focus on the practice of teaching, less importance of subject-training and research) and in academic teacher training departments (with a focus on the study of the subject discipline and research, less importance of practical training). The discussion focuses on the problem whether teacher education for higher secondary education should be embedded in a university department and how the courses should be structured (concurrent or consecutive; integration of teacher training or creating an annex?).

Universities should train and deliver qualified professionals, competent teachers and experts in education theory and research. Therefore universities should take 'teacher training' seriously (research & theory as well as the practice of teaching). In the recent debate about the reorganization of teacher training there was an urgent plea for co-operation between teacher training faculties (universities) and teacher training departments at the higher education institutes.

Apart from these structural problems there are also some more substantial needs.

III.1. At the Higher Education Institutes and University level

From a subject area perspective

The problem of what should be taught in schools (cultural literacy) and why: What is the nature of the subject-matter to be taught? What kind of knowledge should be taught? How do teachers make choices about teaching content, materials and methods for teaching? How do teachers respond to new, specialized knowledge and new ways of knowing? What kind of knowledge do teachers need? How much up-to-date should the knowledge of the beginning teacher be? How can we organize the continuing education of qualified teachers?

The problem of the relation between what and how; problems concerning the different roles of the teaching profession: the teacher as an expert or as a communicator. Universities stress the importance of training teachers who are knowledgeable in their subject. Higher Education Institutes stress the importance of training teachers who are skillful in their practice.

In teacher training the value of the curriculum should be discussed. This debate deals with the problems of 'subject studies' (the academic study of a subject, studied at a level and depth appropriate to a certain level of education), 'curriculum studies' (comprising the study of why and how to teach a subject in primary and secondary education; subjects in schools are different from the students' subject specialisms) and special attention towards 'subject application' (the study of the application of subject specialism to teaching, assessment and learning in schools). When dealing with the analysis of interaction in teaching, the central question is: how can subject content be turned into pedagogic subject content?

For the last years a debate has been going on in which either the teaching methodology was stressed or the subject content. Towards the end of the sixties and in the seventies, full emphasis was put on the introduction of pupil-centred procedures, as a reaction against traditional teaching methods in which lecturing about content was emphasized. Today, under the impulse of the back-to-basics movement, the principles of traditional education have regained momentum, thus negating important

insights yielded by the reform movement. Education could however derive maximum benefit from a constructive combination of insights coming from both the traditional and the progressive movements.

The whole of the ‘content’ problem is also influenced by an ongoing debate about longitudinal and latitudinal aspects, a multicultural and an interdisciplinary perspective on the teaching of (school) subjects.

From a media perspective

Special attention should be paid to the growing importance of Information and Communication Technology in education (ICT). In what follows we try to describe the way ICT can influence teacher training (we also refer to our report ‘Language Teaching On-Line’ - see Soetaert & De Man, 1998).

Technology to prepare teachers

From a technological perspective there is a growing consensus - based on research - that teacher training is the key institution to successful incorporation of technology into the curriculum. Research also shows us that very often teachers teach the same way they were taught themselves. So, the best moment to introduce (student) teachers to technology is the moment they are being taught to become teachers, the moment they are socialized in their new professional role. There is a difference between preparing teachers to use technology and use technology to prepare teachers (Harrington, 1991).

Role-changing

Today, there is a tendency towards self-directed, autonomous, life-long learning, emphasizing the fact that meaning is constructed individually and socially. As the methodology, the curriculum, the students and the school are changing, so is the role of the teacher.

Teachers no longer control everything that happens in the classroom; their main function is to help the learners develop their autonomy. This is best done by helping them to choose appropriate and adequate learning materials, by explaining learning strategies and techniques. This general constructive turn is also deeply influenced by the introduction of new technology. Teachers will have to be more responsive to the new characteristics of an on-line computer environment. The new teaching methods are complex and labour-intensive. Indeed, the shifting functions pose complex challenges to teachers. A new paradigm creates new roles for teachers. We select four major roles:

(a) Coach, facilitator. The introduction of a more constructive approach often precipitates a fundamental change in the forms of interaction between teachers and students, and between students themselves. There is also a gradual shift in the teacher’s role: from a lecturer and purveyor of information towards a coach/facilitator providing structure, supporting students’ performances and reflection. Some of the theoretical concepts developed from a constructivist perspective appear to follow concepts developed in on-line educational practice and theory (or vice versa). So the role of ‘coach, facilitator’ is also inspired by the new on-line learning spaces.

(b) Team work, collaboration. Team work is one of the major buzzwords in the discourse of employers today. Job advertisements are calling for employees who can manage information, adapt flexibly and creatively to changing requirements, and can work together in a team. The introduction of new technologies may render the standard course lecture obsolete, and force teachers to take up a new role that is less individualistic. Future courses may be designed by a team of educationalists, subject specialists and technology experts. So team work will also be essential for developments in ICT.

But ICT will also influence the communication in a team. Through ICT, 'professional networks' can be created for different reasons: discussing shared problems, asking for advice, job listings ICT can be introduced from two major perspectives: synchronous collaboration (meetings, phone calls, teleconferences, etc.) and asynchronous collaboration (e-mail). In our project, we mainly focused on asynchronous collaboration (between the partners and in teacher training with students). The advantages of this kind of communication are obvious: participants are able to join the team on their own schedule, motivated by their own interests; participants are able to reflect before communication and after receiving communications; there is a record of the proceedings (listserv, database etc.). In general, ICT has the potential to improve communication on certain levels. But we should not deny the drawbacks: extra workload, new power structures and communication rules emerge. Moderating a discussion group and coaching a team in cyberspace are as difficult as in the real world. In a new communication space, new roles and skills emerge.

(c) Reflective practitioner, teacher-as-researcher. The concept of 'reflective practitioner' was developed by Schön (1983, 1987), who recommended to introduce a practice inspired by reflection as an ongoing process of professional development, as part of life-long learning. Other researchers have problematized the distinction between 'learning in practice' and 'learning in an intellectual sense' (see Lave and Wenger, 1991). Indeed, in 'applied' fields there can be no such thing as neutral objectivity. The direct, culturally-unmediated apprehension of reality is impossible. Researchers construct and so interpret reality. These constructions are very often co-constructed, products of negotiation between participants. The distinction between theoreticians and practitioners, researchers and teachers thus becomes rather vague. Practitioners (teachers) also operate from theories about education, society, and language teaching, even if they do not directly refer to those theories. We could call them implicit, small-t theories (compared with explicit capital-T theories), but they are also deeply theoretical.

In this sense, teachers can be compared with anthropologists: "The educator as anthropologist must work to understand which cultural materials are relevant to intellectual development. Then he or she needs to understand which trends are taking place in our culture. Meaningful intervention must take the form of working with these trends" (Papert, 1980: 32).

More and more teachers, encouraged by teacher educators, are reflecting on their practice in a more systematic way. They are invited to become researchers or at least 'readers' of research. As Good (1989: 35) states: "Professionals or teachers who are too busy to read are not professionals." Very often the teacher feels he is just a mere object of research instead of a subject, an agent who takes part in the process of teaching. By introducing the principle of 'teacher-as-researcher' and applying more qualitative research methodologies teachers can be involved in the research process - "by conducting and reporting real educational inquiries in real instructional settings" (Harste, 1992: xii).

By introducing action, teachers and trainee teachers could be involved in the process of data-collecting, interpretation and evaluation of their lessons. Teachers will also be called upon to generate hypotheses and test out suggested improvements: "It was no longer simply a matter of producing materials for teachers to test in classrooms. It was also a matter of fostering the development of teachers' capacities for self-reflection." (Elliott, 1991: 19).

The concept of 'self-reflection' was problematized because 'self' sounds too individualistic, because reflection is also embedded in a social context. Teachers become part of a community and share information, knowledge and resources by participating in a community. A joint practice and reflection play a central role in becoming a teacher. If we stress the essentially social character of learning for pupils, we should introduce the same principle in teacher training. Socially situated theories of

learning, which recognize the way in which knowledge is created and transformed in the intersection of dialogue between people, their collective knowledge and research, will have impact on their teaching.

Another major characteristic of action research is the focus on collaboration among teachers. It is an essential aim of this kind of research to bring teachers together in networks (see also collaboration, team work). The importance of creating networks is essential for creating a joint practice in the complex process of learning to become a teacher. The focus indeed is on communication in networks, and also communication about research. But the problems are not only theoretical, they can be very practical: participants are spread over different time zones and different areas, there are problems with physical contacts (budget, time, space ...).

Information technology can solve only part of these problems. During our project we were confronted with the problems of creating such a community. How will these discourse communities change our understanding of 'becoming a teacher'? Especially if the new networks of teachers-as-researchers will be constructed on-line. Such networks and the concept of teachers-as-researchers are also essential to study the impact of technology: "Little is known about the impact of technology on standards of students' work, on the quality of the learning experience, on the acquisition of core transferable skills or on the changing role of students, teachers and other staff. Such research does not necessarily have to be large-scale and quantitative; small-scale, qualitative action-research projects could guide practice at the local level, thus strengthening claims of educational institutions to be fully learning organization." (Lewis & Metro, 1996). We need joint practice and examples of good practice demonstrating the way in which computers can be integrated into the professional life of newcomers to teaching.

(d) Teacher as designer. Technology today "creates an impetus for major transformations in the institution of schooling, and it also offers new tools for carrying out this transformation in ways not possible before" (OTA 1995: 4). New sites of education resemble the 'workplaces' of the ancient guild system.

There is a growing consensus that teachers should be computer-literate: "The Information Society so highly praised by the EU Delors White Paper must be completed and matched by a Learning Society, if we do not want to fall into an over-informed world and a valueless culture based on "zapping" and "patchwork" superficiality" (Richardson, 1997: 29). This competence is essential as the teacher of the future has to consider what kind of communication serves the teaching-learning process.

What should teachers know about computers? Teacher should be familiar with ICT, utilize and integrate it in their practice. Inevitably, their practice will have to be reoriented and evaluated as an ongoing and ever changing practice. Apart from learning to use the computer, teachers should be thinking about how this computer can be integrated in their subject, their area of expertise as a tool for organizing and delivering course content.

As 'consumers' they should be critical of products and institutions that market themselves as legitimate providers of education. At the same time, teachers should become producers, too; they will be involved in developing material. This is an inevitable process: in the long run textbooks will change. More and more they will be applied to a growing variety of functions and they will be transformed in digital environments. The shift away of textbooks as ink-on-paper products redefines the work of publishers, authors and ... teachers. Design has become a central issue in education, and in design educational aspects have become a central concern.

III.2. At the Professional Level

Teachers

As far as ‘the content’ of teacher training is concerned, the following questions can be raised: What constitutes the professional knowledge of teachers? On what beliefs do teachers ground this knowledge? How are we going to integrate practice and theory? Teacher trainees and qualified teachers find much about educational studies too theoretical, not sufficiently connected to ‘their’ realities of teaching. Very often teacher trainees favour the didactics of a subject (curriculum courses). However, there is a strong need to integrate theory and practice. Therefore, research into educational practice of teachers is essential.

It is not sufficient that teachers’ work should be studied; teachers need to study it themselves. They need a critical understanding of professional knowledge and practices. As professionals they should be actively involved in the process of data-collecting, comprising analysis and evaluation of their lessons. They should also be called upon to generate hypotheses and test out suggested improvements and educational reforms (the teacher as researcher, as reflective practitioner, cf. the importance of action research). Intending teachers and qualified teachers should be aware of the dimensions of their professional concerns, and of their complex nature.

Teacher Trainers

The quality of teacher education depends on the quality of teacher educators. Teacher training in universities should not be ‘an academic arena of secondary significance’ but should become one of primary importance. Teacher educators need to develop research in order to create dependable knowledge that can be used to educate their students and equip them as beginning teachers for work. Therefore, teacher educators need training and qualifications. We need systematic reflection on the issue of training the trainers.

Teacher trainers need to have the possibility to work together with colleagues from other universities and higher education institutes. This co-operation should have an impact on their competence as a teacher trainer.

Theory-Practice

In teacher education we need to address a number of problems. How can we integrate specialist knowledge (educational psychology, sociology, philosophy and history) and the practical needs of teachers?

How can we integrate pedagogics, educational theory, curriculum theory, didactics, the art of teaching as ‘a system of practices’? How can we stimulate the transfer from theory to practice? How can we implement innovations in education and teaching practice?

Quality

In public debate, (newly) qualified teachers are said to be poorly trained and equipped for the task they are supposed to do. This task is very complex because of the changing times with their different social, political, economic, educational needs ... The central question here is: what kind of teacher do we need for what kind of society?

A special problem is how to attract good-quality students into the teaching profession. In Belgium no special requirements are made to start as a student in teacher training. Many students become teachers as a second or even third choice. In addition, the teaching profession suffers from a bad

image: social status is low, the salary is not increasing, the workload is high, the 'burn-out syndrome' has become only too well-known, etc. All this means that the teaching profession is not attracting the best students, which influences the quality of the practice of the teacher and the education system. Lots of teachers also express the lack of career prospects: making a career implies leaving the teaching profession.

Some problems should be on the research agenda:

- The problem of the impact of teacher training compared with the powerful impact of the trainee's own schooling and experience on the job.
- The importance of 'practical knowledge' for teachers: there is a need to ground theory directly on the realities experienced by those whose understanding of their role or whose practical performance is to be improved.
- The 'professional' status of teacher trainers. What constitutes their professional knowledge? How are the trainers trained? How do they see themselves as teacher educators?

The main question remains: How should teacher training and in-service training be (re)organized? Very often students of teacher education institutes need a flexible organization of their training (cf. 'measures'). They also need a flexible training to cope adequately with their changing roles in changing contexts.

Apart from these needs - taken from the teaching profession - we also should stress the fact that education is a varied and complex sector (general, technical, vocational, artistic, adult... education). The skills which are developed in teacher training can also be used in other professions. A new curriculum needs to be oriented towards a broader educational and professional context.

III.3. Regarding Requirements for European Integration

The process of Europeanisation is based on mutual interest of the Member States. This can of course affect education and teacher education.

Teacher education institutes are far from the same in structure, style, curriculum ... across the European Community. There is growing realization of the importance and complexity of the integration of a European dimension in teaching and teacher training. The development of a European dimension should be seen as part of a necessary international perspective in teacher training. Teacher educators are linked by a common professional concern: the making of competent teachers. Special attention should be given to structural problems and 'language problems', especially those of minority languages, minority cultures ...

Some major problems should be taken into consideration from different perspectives:

Subject-Area Perspective:

- national intellectual cultures play their part in what is relevant and how it is taught;
- different curricula;
- different (academic) levels;
- different attainment targets;

- problems of integrating a European perspective in subject training, curriculum ... (special problems for teaching history, literature, art etc.).

Teacher Training/Profession Perspective:

- in some countries teacher training is organized at a different level (university, higher education ...);
- differences in time-tables, structures... of the teacher education programmes;
- differences in curriculum of teacher training (attainment targets, organization of in-service training: special problems concerning the practice of teacher trainees);
- special problems with assessment and grade transfer (ECTS);
- problems of integrating a European perspective in teacher training;
- the recognition of diplomas (see above);
- different national teacher roles and teaching cultures (language problem).

Social-Cultural Perspective:

- different cultural backgrounds, cultural clashes (ethnic minorities);
- special problem: language problem (for teaching, language proficiency is an essential aspect).

IV. New Measures for New Needs

IV.1. At the Academic Training Level/ at Professional Training Level

Perspective of the National Government

Introduction

The professional culture of teachers and their trainers should be improved throughout Europe. In Belgium, teacher education should be reorganized fundamentally: more time and money should be allotted to teacher training.

- At university level more training practice (and professional feedback) and ‘better’ research (focused on problems of teachers and teacher trainers) should be introduced.
- In Higher Education Institutes the quality of ‘practical advice’ should be improved (it should be accompanied by theoretical reflection and empirical research) and the depth of ‘subject studies’ should be appropriate to a certain level of education.

Professional Agenda

Teacher trainers should present their own professional agenda on which theory and practice, research and practical needs etc. should strike a balance. Through theoretical reflection, empirical research, participation in public debate ... teacher trainers and teachers can gain respect (in public opinion, with colleagues, at governmental level). This respect will influence the level of resources which are

essential for the long-term innovations on which improvement depends. Governments should stimulate research and development in topics dealing with the teaching profession and teacher training. Universities should recruit teachers and trainees to doctoral programmes.

Information and Communication Technology (ICT)

As we have pleaded in the previous section (from a media perspective), we want to stress the importance of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) for teacher education. Special measures should be taken to introduce teachers in the functions and effects of ICT for their own teaching. Pre-service training is the ideal moment for such an introduction. It is essential we should practice what we preach in teacher training so we should not only prepare teachers to use technology but also use technology to prepare teachers.

Of course in-service training is also essential to help teachers to overcome their resistance to teaching with technology and to make them more competent. Special attention should be paid to the subject of distance teacher training courses versus face-to-face courses.

We also need research and development projects focusing on practical problems of teachers.

The measures should be inspired by the belief that ICT will support new - for some 'superior' - forms of learning. ICT plays a central role in the plea for constructivist view of learning.

Interdisciplinarity & Co-operation

Although this plea can be read as a plea in favour of teacher training as a self-contained professional field, it should be stressed that precisely teacher training can be described as a border zone in which interdisciplinary teaching and research projects are essential. The strengthening of teacher training in universities depends on the breaking-up of traditional boundaries between faculties, and the co-operation between higher education institutes and universities.

Professional Status

Our society is undergoing a period of profound political, economic and social reconstruction. Education and teacher education is expected to play a crucial role in these changes. To give teachers a professional status implies a re-thinking of the profession. Changes - if they are to be effective - must be directed at the professional culture of teachers and their trainers.

In teacher education, a professional agenda should be set up with the essential core of the work of teacher education, didactics and supervision. As far as teacher training is concerned, it should be stressed that also trainers should be trained. As mentioned above, such an agenda can benefit from the increasing co-operation between different teacher training institutes throughout the community.

The professional status will be reflected in the many ways in which teachers collaborate with professional researchers (reading research is an important component of teachers' professional background). As professionals, teachers should be more than passive implementers of someone else's ideas, curriculum ... They should be reflective practitioners and intellectuals - teachers-as-researchers - who are involved in evaluation and critical application of ideas in the classroom.

In-Service Programmes

New in-service programmes should grow out of experiences and needs of teachers taking part in them. Teacher training institutions should promote flexible study programmes. They should focus on new teaching and learning styles (introduction of a modular course system, open and distance

learning, multimedia applications). In-service training has to deal with subject studies (refurbishing subject matter, dealing with the knowledge explosion), with the theory and practice of teaching.

As mentioned above, we want to stress the importance of the fact that teachers should benefit from their extra 'work load' in terms of e.g. career perspectives. One of the possible options is to include in-service programmes in the teacher's career promotion. For example, the payment of teachers could be based on two principles. The first one is based on experience and the second one based on the participation in in-service teacher training programmes.

IV.2. At a European Union Level

Co-operation between Member States can add value to teaching, teacher training and in-service training. The European experience should create a European framework for trainees, teachers and teacher-trainers.

The introduction of the European dimension should be elaborated on different levels: structural, theoretical, practical ... The European Union should create structures which stimulate the cooperation between training colleges and teachers around subject-areas, competences, projects meeting real needs. The sharing of expertise and action among teacher training institutions should encourage the development of new curricula, the development of joint research, training and educational projects. In such a policy the recruitment of foreign staff for short-term and longer-term exchanges is of course essential. By way of in-service exchange programmes we should introduce post-initial-training/post-graduate modules in teacher training institutes or schools of another Member State. Universities and Higher Education Institutes should create networks which allow specific expertise and competences to find their way into other institutions: a European network of Teacher Training Institutes around which a network of schools is organized. This should be the responsibility of both the Community authorities and the national governments.

The Federal Government - in Belgium: the Flemish and the French Communities - should stimulate the measures mentioned above, by creating appropriate decrees and structures. Flexible legislation and structures are necessary to encourage teachers and students to spend some time teaching and studying abroad. The recognition of qualifications and periods of study abroad is crucial to study and to later work. The ECTS scheme within the ERASMUS programme and the existing inter-university agreements already provide a basis for handling claims for academic as well as for professional recognition. This kind of measures has to be extended.

As far as secondary education is concerned, we suggest the creation of structural possibilities for the mobility of teachers from the Member States so that they can teach the regular curriculum but also bring a surplus value to that curriculum: a European perspective, language skills, cultural background, etc. The European Union should create European schools with content-based language teaching. Such schools would give opportunities to teachers to acquire a real European competence and attitude. They would stimulate the creation of networks between teachers and their schools. The dissemination of the riches of the European diversity would finally be given a chance.

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EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE FLEMISH COMMUNITY (table 1)

Elementary education		Secondary education			Higher education ²			Continuing Education
nursery school	primary education	unified system			1-cycle higher education			part-time adult education
1-2-3	1-2-3-4-5-6	1-2 1 st grade	1-2 2 nd grade	1-2-(3) 3 rd grade	1-2-3			part-time artistic education
					2-cycle higher education			vocational training offered by Flemish Employment and Vocational Training Agency ("VDAB") ³
					1-2 1 st cycle	3-4 2 nd cycle		training for the self-employed offered by the Flemish Institute for the Self-Employed ("VIZO") ³
					1-2 1 st cycle	3-4-(5) 2 nd cycle	(5)-6-7 3 rd cycle	
special nursery school	special primary education	special secondary education ¹						socio-cultural education ³
age								
(2,5)-3-4-5	6-7-8-9-10-11	12-13	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-21	22-23-24	adults

Remarks:

¹ Special secondary education is meant for pupils aged 13-21.

² For some lines of study, the second cycle of 2-cycle higher education takes 3 years, the first cycle of university education takes 3 years and the second cycle of university education takes 3 or 4 years.

³ These training programmes do not come under the Education Department.

EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE FRENCH COMMUNITY (TABLE 2)

ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEURE UNIVERSITAIRE	ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR NON UNIVERSITAIRE	APPRENTISSAGE INDUSTRIEL ¹ CONVENTION EMPLOI/FORMATION		
Specialisation ou perfectionnement ⁱⁱ				19
----- ECOLEES SECONDAIRES ⁱⁱⁱ -----				18
DEGRE III	TYPE II 2ième CYCLE	Enseignement a temps partiel ^v	Apprentissage ^{iv}	17
DEGRE II TYPE I		-----	-----	16
DEGRE I	1er CYCLE			15
				14
				13
DEGRE III				12
				11
DEGRE II ECOLEES PRIMAIRES				10
				9
DEGRE I				8
				7
EDUCATION PRESCOLAIRE				6
				5
				4
				3
				2 ans

----- = Enseignement Obligatoire

¹ L'apprentissage industriel peut durer de 6 mois à 2 ans et il peut se pratiquer successivement dans plusieurs entreprises. La Convention Emploi/Formation est destinée aux jeunes de 18 à 25 ans et dure 256 heures si elle est dispensée par un employeur et 500 heures lorsqu'elle a lieu dans un établissement de formation.

² Année préparatoire à l'enseignement supérieur ou année de spécialisation ou de perfectionnement préparant à l'emploi après 6 années d'enseignement secondaire.

³ Type I ou enseignement "rénové" comprend l'enseignement secondaire inférieur et supérieur, organisé sous quatre formes - enseignement général, technique, professionnel et artistique - et deux filières principales. L'une menant essentiellement à l'enseignement supérieur et l'autre au passage à la vie active. L'enseignement de type I s'est entendu à presque tous les établissements. Type II ou enseignement "traditionnel" comprend l'enseignement secondaire inférieur et supérieur et comprend les sections générale, technique ou professionnelle.

⁴ La formation théorique de l'apprentissage à la même durée (360 heures au cours de la première année et 240 heures au cours des années suivantes) que celle de l'enseignement à temps partiel.

⁵ L'enseignement à temps partiel s'adresse aux jeunes de 15 ou 16 ans et couvre les dernières années de l'enseignement obligatoires. Il dure 360 heures au cours de la première année (enfants après de 15/16 ans) et 240 heures au cours des années suivantes.

**DIAGRAM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE FLEMISH COMMUNITY
(TABLE 3)**

	General	Technical	Artistic	Vocational
4th grade				(3rd year BSO) (2nd year BSO) (1st year BSO)
3rd grade	(3rd year preparing for HE/ specialisation year)	(3rd year preparing for HE/ specialisation year)	(3rd year preparing for HE/ specialisation year)	(3rd year specialisation year)
	2nd year ASO 1st year ASO	2nd year TSO 1st year TSO	2nd year KSO 1st year KSO	2nd year BSO 1st year BSO
2nd grade				(3rd perfection year BSO)
	2nd year ASO 1st year ASO	2nd year TSO 1st year TSO	2nd year KSO 1st year KSO	2nd year BSO 1st year BSO
1st grade	2nd year			BVL
	1st year A			1st year B

ASO: general secondary education – TSO: technical secondary education – KSO: artistic secondary education
BSO: occupational secondary education – BVL: prevocational year – HE: higher education
The years between brackets are optional.

**TEACHER EDUCATION AND ITS EVALUATION IN FRENCH-SPEAKING BELGIUM
(TABLE 4)**

Level	Entrance requirements	Location	Course structure	Qualifications /Titles
Pre-school education/ Nursery (2 ½ to 6 years of age)	Upper secondary school certificate (CESS)	Hogeschool Institut Supérieur Pédagogique*	3 years (1 cycle) concurrent academic/pedagogical/ teaching/ observation practice	Teaching diploma: – Kleuteronderwijzer(es) – Instituteur/ Institutrice pré- scolaire
Primary education (6 to 12 years of age)	same as above	same as above	same as above	Teaching diploma: – Onderwijzer(es) – Instituteur/ Institutrice
Secondary education (group 1: 12 –18 years of age)	same as above	same as above	3 years (1 cycle) professional and pedagogical courses; specified subject study and further optional practice**	Teaching diploma: – Diploma van geaggregeerde voor het secundair onderwijs – groep I (Régent(es)) – Diplôme d'Agrégé de l'Enseignement Secondaire Inférieur (Régent(e))
Secondary education (group 1+2: 12 –18 years of age) (technical & vocational subjects)	same as above or min. 21 years of age	Institute of Technical Education within Higher Education Institute or Pedagogical Higher Education for Social Advancement	3 years (1cycle) professional and pedagogical courses; specified technical subject study or 2 years (min.) professional and pedagogical courses (3 modules)	– Diploma van geaggregeerde voor het secundair onderwijs groep I (Regent(es)) – Diplôme d'Agrégé de l'Enseignement Secondaire Inférieur (Régent(e)) or Getuigschrift Pedagogische Bekwaamheid
Secondary education (group 2: 15 to 18 years of age)	same as above	University	4-5 years academic training **** plus pedagogical training – either during the last two years of their university studies, parallel to the degree courses (or the last year only) – or as a (2 year) part-time course after completion of degree	University degree (Licentie/Licence)**** + Teaching diploma – Diploma van geaggregeerde voor het onderwijs – group 2 – Diplôme d'Agrégé de l'Enseignement Secondaire Supérieur

* Higher Education

** Qualification to teach 2 or 3 subjects.

*** Depending on the discipline, the academic training takes 4, 5, 6 or even seven years.

**** Depending on the discipline, this can also be engineer, veterinarian, pharmacist or physician.

Teacher Education in Flanders - Developments and tendencies

Reforms of Higher Non Academic Education

Higher Education in Flanders follows two tracks. On the one hand there is Academic Education, on the other hand there is Higher Non Academic Education (HNAE). They are two different kinds of education with their own rules and their own financing systems. The HNAE is divided into a two-cycle and a one-cycle system. The first is expected to be of an 'academic' level and takes 4 years. The second is more oriented towards a profession and takes 3 years. Teacher Education Colleges for Nursery Education teachers, Primary Education teachers and teachers for the first four years of Secondary Education belong to the one-cycle system.

In 1994 the Flemish Parliament voted in favour of the decree on HNAE. The key words in this decree are autonomy and deregulation. In Flanders, as in the rest of Western Europe, the Government wants to use these 'magic cures' to decrease the surplus of 'Government' activities and Government expenses, not only or mainly in the field of Education, but in all sectors in which it interferes through regulation. By means of deregulation the Government wants to reduce the state machinery and aims to create a more open market, more dynamism, more profit. The essential counterpart of deregulation is autonomy: If the Government acts in a less regulating manner, the sectors themselves, in this case Higher Education, become responsible for their own regulation. How has the Government tried to achieve this?

The super trick: lump financing

The aim of lump financing is to make government expenditure controllable by providing HNAE with a fixed amount of money ('envelope') to cover both labour and operation costs. Expenditure for HNAE was set at 16 billion Belgian francs, the amount (subject to index correction) the Flemish Government spent on HNAE in 1994. An increase of the HNAE envelope in consequence of the growing number of students, the increase of expenditure on equipment (think of computerization), setting up of new departments etc. is not provided. HNAE has to bear these costs itself or has to demand extra financing from the Government. A rough envelope is awarded in accord with a certain distribution code, in which especially the numbers of students and the nature of education matter. This envelope is divided over all Colleges of Higher Education in Flanders. This way each college has the responsibility for its own envelope.

At the same time the decree imposes a ratio of a maximum of 85% for labour costs and a minimum of 15% for operation costs. This has led, and still leads, especially in one-cycle systems, to a dramatic decrease in personnel. In Teacher Education the expenses for personnel tend to amount to over 90%

of the total cost due to the indispensable, intensive personal counseling of students. The decrease in personnel coincided with a considerable rise in student numbers. One can imagine the kind of disruption this has caused.

As a result of lump financing practically all HNAEs receive less funding now than they did before the decree. For there are many advance payments to be taken from the rough envelope: colleges have to create their own reserves for sick leaves, they have to bear the costs of the attractive early pension scheme the Government offers to older staff members, etc. While all departments within one college used to stand united in their struggle against the Government, they are now in conflict with each other, because they are trying to get as much money as possible from the envelope for themselves.

A deliberate consequence: scaling up

Before the decree Flemish HNAE was strictly divided into several schools, many of which were very small. The Government has not put direct pressure on HNAE to realize an increase in scale by imposing minimum standards. However, in order to survive, schools need to have enough students, since for the greater part their financing depends on student numbers. The Report of the Official Commission, which preceded the HNAE decree and devised the basic ideas of the decree, opted for 'multisectoral' colleges of higher education: colleges that offer different types of education. In practice it happened this way, except in a few cases. This multisectoral aspect, however, leads to a lot of internal tension because of strongly differing traditions, e.g. between one- and two-cycle systems, and because of the differences in financing between different college sectors. Teacher Education Colleges are duped here because they are situated within the higher financed categories.

Autonomy: no undivided bliss

Within certain limits colleges of higher education are responsible for programming and organizing the educational supply themselves. For Teacher Education Colleges in Flanders this has led to a proliferation of new Physical Education Teacher Education Colleges. Where in former times the programmes of the Teacher Education Colleges were dictated centrally, there is now a total lack of uniformity.

From now on statutes and performance regulations of personnel are the responsibility of the Colleges of Higher Education. The Government no longer prescribes what a full-time assignment in HNAE implies. However, the decree determines some specific minimums such as the number of holiday weeks. Because of the imposed decrease in personnel most of the colleges are compelled to raise workload and, consequently, pressure of work. Apart from their actual teaching assignments members of staff have to take on many other tasks. The content of a full-time job and how this should be calculated (hours, percentages?) are the main points of discussion right now. It is a fact that in recent years the position of teachers in Higher Education has been weakened because of the HNAE decree. The decree requires personnel, students and social-cultural pressure groups to participate in college policies. In the free education net (= organized by private persons or private organizations = 75%) this participation usually does not go beyond providing advice. We notice a multiplication of councils and meetings all dealing with the same topics. The increase in echelons entails a huge waste of energy which had better be used for vital responsibilities. As a matter of fact it becomes increasingly difficult to find people who want to participate in these councils and meetings.

Colleges are responsible for internal care for quality. They are supposed to develop procedures for quality control and self assessment. For the time being, the Government provides an external evaluation rendered by commissions which visit and assess the Colleges of Higher Education. In the future the Government will restrict itself to meta-evaluation (evaluation of the evaluation) and colleges will have to take care of both internal and external evaluation themselves.

Teacher Education reform

In 1996 the Flemish Parliament voted the decree on Teacher Education. In September 1997 the new structure was put into practice. Points of departure for this decree were the pursuit of professionalism and greater teacher mobility. The first point was not expressed well in the decree. The second point was translated into introducing a joint basic curriculum combined with extended education.

The original idea of a common first year and the organization of courses with set contents for the education of Nursery Education Teachers, Primary Education Teachers and Secondary Education Teachers was dropped under pressure of the colleges. They did not want to sacrifice a whole year of their already tightly measured three-year professional training to a joint start which - out of sheer necessity - would remain theoretical and general. In the end the decree only prescribes the definition of a 'joint basic curriculum' of 45 credits (out of a total of 180). The Government prescribes what basic skills trainee-teachers have to acquire during their initial training. It is part of the colleges' autonomy to translate these prescriptions into programmes and to choose an adequate organizational form (large groups or not, combining students from different departments for common courses or not).

Extended education supports mobility over different kinds of education and teaching levels. This way Nursery School teachers can get a qualification for Primary Education in 1.5 years. Primary School teachers can get a qualification for Nursery Education or a qualification to teach in Technical and Vocational Secondary Education for 12-13 year olds. Secondary School teachers can get a qualification for Primary Education. There is also an Extended Teacher Education Programme for Special Education. Its financing is based on the number of diplomas delivered by the College. This means that colleges have to advance the funding for this form of education. Extended education has a rather modest success. Both for the institutes and for the students it remains a tough job to offer and to follow a professional education within 1 year, whereas the initial education takes a full 3 years. The organization of extended education is another problem. Does one have to group these students with students in initial education or is it better to separate them? And, since financing only amounts to 1/3 of the finances of the initial education, how do you organize this extended education with one staff?

Finally the explanatory document to the decree pleads in favor of a modular construction of Teacher Education. Modest attempts in that direction have already been made, but how to put this into practice is not really obvious because theory and practice go hand in hand and Teacher Education is dependent on training schools (Primary and Secondary Schools) which are not familiar with modular structures.

The reform target: the Secondary School Teacher

The decree on Teacher Education hardly interfered with the education of Nursery Education teachers and Primary Education teachers. The education of Secondary Education teachers, though, was turned

upside down. There used to be several types of education which had nothing in common: General Courses (e.g. languages, history, mathematics, ...), Physical Education, Music Education, Arts Education and a number of technical training courses for Secondary School teachers, such as Business Education and Technological Education. Within each of these types of education there were a number of set possibilities to combine teaching subjects.

The reforms have broken down the strict divisions between these different types of education, which is very positive. The decree allows colleges to offer combinations within their own possibilities. The only difference that has been retained is between the credits allotted. All General Courses of the past have the same number of credits, even Dutch, mathematics, French and English, which used to have more credits, representing more teaching hours. A student has to intensify the study of one of his teaching subjects during his education. At first the Government intended to reduce the qualification of Secondary Education Teachers from HNAE to the first two years of Secondary Education. At this moment, these teachers are authorized to teach up to the fourth year of Secondary Education and in Technical and Vocational Schools even up to the sixth year. They would keep their qualification to teach in the third and the fourth year, but only for the subjects they had studied more intensively. The decree finally granted Secondary Education teachers from HNAE full qualification provided they study one teaching subject in depth.

For students the extended possibilities of combining teaching subjects is an improvement. Now they have the freedom to create their own packages of teaching subjects. At the start of this renewed education, last academic year, the number of students wanting to become Secondary Education teachers increased. The rise of student numbers in Physical Education Teacher Education was spectacular. All of this had to do with the policies of certain colleges to offer as many combinations as possible in an attempt to attract as many students as possible. So they started creating courses with which they had not the least experience, e.g. Physical Education. This often happened under extremely poor circumstances, without the necessary infrastructure and material, without experienced teachers and at the expense of other types of education. All this at a time when all Teacher Education Colleges had to save on personnel because of the HNAE decree. Furthermore these colleges had to reduce the number of teaching hours in order to fit everything into the existing schedules. While all colleges are struggling with the problem of organizing this diversity, some of them are really going too far.

This much is clear: The combination of both decrees - the HNAE decree and the decree on Teacher Education - has led to a tough competition between the existing Teacher Education Colleges, in which, it seems, not the quality of education but the quantity has become a priority. The principal question no longer seems to be: how do we create competent Secondary Education teachers, but: how do we attract as many students as possible? If this tendency continues, we may expect a devaluation of the Certificate of Secondary Education teacher.

Renewal, improvement?

Taking all this into consideration, it can seriously be doubted if this was the kind of reform Teacher Education in Flanders had been waiting for. Teacher Education had asked to become a four-year education, in which case the general courses would have found a better position as well and more attention could have been given to the fundamental changes that were needed in Teacher Education. Reducing the number of teaching subjects from 3 to 2 would have been another possibility.

It is really sad to realize the Government has not shown more vision concerning the educations of Nursery Education teachers and Primary Education teachers. Of course this has its positive effects

as well, because now we gratefully use this 'freedom' to implement our own standards here. In the end the question remains: What is the use of this decree on Teacher Education? Besides tearing down the partitions between Teacher Education Colleges and the implementation of a few extended types of education, this decree has changed nothing which is fundamental. On the contrary, it leads to lots of extra misery in Teacher Education, which has to struggle through this second reorganization, without having recovered from the aftermath of the HNAE decree.



Teacher education and its evaluation in French-speaking Belgium: evolution since 1995

I. Initial teacher education

1. The last three years were basically characterised by the continuity of different options in teacher education which are not entirely satisfactory: a non-integrated education of the teaching corps an important part of which remains at non-university level and where even the university section clearly has its limits.

Recent legislation clearly reinforced the existing differences between systems of teacher education in Belgium. By decree of 5 August, 1995¹, the Higher Education Institutes of Pedagogy (Instituts d'Education Supérieure Pédagogique - IESP), were integrated into the higher education sector, at the same time maintaining them as a separate educational category, rather than suggesting a different kind of combination within a unified structure of teacher education systems, for example.

The education of all prospective teachers at the level of elementary and lower secondary education (pupils from age 3 to 15-16) continues to be the responsibility of short-cycle full-time programmes at higher education level. It is organised in three-year courses according to a concurrent model (Lasley & Payne, 1991), simultaneously concerned, on the one hand, with the acquisition of general knowledge and scientific theories corresponding to the teaching subjects, and on the other hand, with professional education for the teaching profession.

Only the education of prospective teachers at the level of upper secondary education (and possibly then also of higher education) is organised by Universities providing programmes for graduation (*agrégation*) entitling students to teach at upper secondary schools. This education, specifically centred on the preparation for the teaching task, offers general and disciplinary education in the context of a consecutive model (Lasley & Payne, 1991), although certain courses necessary for graduation (*agrégation*) could be followed before acquiring the last qualifications for licentiate. The strong emphasis on disciplinary education is widely criticised by active school teachers who do not fail to point out the existing gap between academic disciplines and the requirements of professional activity in schools (Université d'été, 1997; J.-L. Dumortier, 1997). For the rest, graduation offers a kind of preparation of a still very much limited use, if we consider the importance of what is at stake. Fundamental attempts at reforming the system (e.g. as proposed by the Comité Permanent des Professeurs de Didactique, Université de Liège, October 1993), among them one carried through at an inter-university level and proposed to the Conseil des Recteurs in November 1994 (CRef, November 1994), have in fact failed; each institution involved restricted reform measures to relative insignificant re-arrangements (Georges & Jonnaert, 1993; Association des Professeurs issus de l'Université Libre de Bruxelles, 1994; Cifen, 1997).

It will be noted, however, that the public authorities so far did not provide the means for graduation courses, have no particular demands concerning graduation and did not fix a specific programme or the number of hours required for graduation. The provisions of the law of 21 May, 1929, have in fact been abrogated by the new decree on academic degrees of 5 September, 1994, which grants more autonomy to the universities in questions pertaining to the organisation of study programmes and the content of programmes. The decree only stipulates in its article 6, para. 3, that studies relating to the pedagogical education of prospective teachers could be terminated by awarding the academic degree of *agrégé* (graduate) for the field of upper secondary education without specifying the qualification. Article 19 explains that the programmes leading up to the degree of *agrégé* for the upper secondary level of education have a duration of one year. The new law on funding university education which was adopted by the parliament of the French-speaking Community of Belgium on 23 September, 1998, contains a provision that the subsidies should be calculated on the basis of students registered for graduation (*agrégation*) but the University still retains the right to internally distribute its resources according to its own plans and priorities.

Apart from these full-time education programmes, there are other programmes catering for the needs of teachers for vocational education practice and of those working in certain technical courses; they are organised at the level of education for social promotion, preparing for participation in an examination leading to the award of a “Certificate of pedagogical competence” being issued by a jury at Community level.

Teachers for their part have in fact proposed a number of reform projects: They are all unanimous about the double necessity of a unified education for all teachers and a higher standard of education. As far as there were disagreements, they referred to the distribution of responsibilities between the existing higher education structures. One of the most formalised projects was that produced by the “Commission scientifique d’études de la formation des enseignants” created at the initiative of the Minister of Education and Scientific Research, Y. Ylieff, in April 1989, and chaired by Professor G. de Landsheere. It presented a report in June 1990, proposing a unified education of teachers from nursery school to upper secondary education, organised by universities (at least for the degree applications - *candidatures*) and working in synergy with the IESP for the licentiate level (*licence*), in particular for organising school practice. Some criticised this proposal as defending a strong position of the universities to be described as being too imperialist.

The Conseil supérieur de l’enseignement pédagogique defended an alternative reform project which suggested the transformation of the IESP into higher education establishments offering long-cycle programmes, that is on a par with universities. In this way they would become the major providers of initial and in-service education for all teachers and would, according to existing needs, establish links for working in synergy with other institutions like the University, the *conservatoires* or other establishments of professional education. The different branches of higher education, which would in part be common for different institutions, would thus in part be wooing the same kind of public leaving secondary schools.

The “proposals for a reform of teacher education” formulated by M. Lebrun, the Minister for Higher Education (16 February, 1993), represent an intermediate position, maintaining the characteristics and responsibilities of both fundamental structures in initial teacher education, without excluding collaborations at this level but putting the emphasis mainly on synergies at the level of in-service education. For teachers this project devised a specific education and the requirement of particular entitlements as well as the necessity of a minimum of active professional practice at the level of schooling for which they are educated. After consultation especially with the Conseil de l’Education et de la Formation this project has given way to new reform proposals under the heading of “Reform in order to better educate” (2 November, 1993) which refer to the entire higher education sector and finally led to the decree establishing the Higher Education Institutes mentioned above.

European experts in charge of the evaluation of the Belgium education system (OECD, 1993) have for their part taken over some of the proposals made so far. They concede a unifying role transcending the networks to the University but they wonder if the obligation to go through two university degree applications (*candidatures*) will not keep away from access to the teaching profession an interesting public, originating from a milieu closer to that of some pupils. They also express doubts about the possibility of the country to carry the financial burden of a transition of all teachers to a pay scale based on the licentiate level (*licence*). They rather plead for a more gradual access to that high level of qualification through an in-service education that would help distribute the financial impact of such a transition over a longer period. A unified polyvalent structure, at the level of a long-cycle higher education programme (in 4 years, remodelled in relation to present-day requirements in education) appears to them as an interesting model.

Maintaining the existing differences in the qualification level of teacher education (short cycle/long cycle) could hardly be justified. It is impossible to accept that persons being responsible for the education of younger children should be educated at a lower level. Such a view puts in danger the unity of the profession and leaves Belgium in a marginal position in relation to a considerable number of other countries (Commission européenne, 1997).

However, a draft project for the reform of teacher education presented to the press in February 1998 (see Bouillon, 1998) and prepared by a working group of the PSC (Parti Social-Chrétien), with the participation of certain members of the cabinet of the Minister for Higher Education, W. Ancion, seeks to maintain the existing different branches of higher education but at the same time intends to improve them all. Efforts in the sense of unifying teacher education and the teaching profession would be concretised by providing a single entitlement for all teachers, namely “graduate entitled to teach at the level of compulsory education” (*agrégé de l’enseignement obligatoire*), adding at the same time for which age group this is valid (nursery school/primary school; primary school/secondary school; master/graduate). They consist particularly in attempts at establishing equivalences between certain parts of teacher education which will be common for all groups: education in the humanities, general education and part of pedagogical education. The scientific and technical education as well as professional activity in the context of school practice will remain specific. A modular organisation is expected to allow the establishing of equivalences between different institutions of education and thus facilitate a greater mobility in the professional career of teachers.

Two separate lines of teacher education will thus be maintained under this proposal:

- line A denotes education in a pedagogical category of the Higher Education Institutes which will be open for those holding a CESS²; the programme requires 4 years of study (4 x 750 h, among them 200 h in school practice teaching in total responsibility and paid in the fourth year), giving direct access to a second cycle in higher education;
- line B includes a group B1 accessible to those holding a degree of the second cycle in higher education, organised at University level and the level of Higher Education Institutes and a group B2 accessible to those holding a professional degree of any level and equipped with professional experience in relation to the required standard of education and the practised specialisation. This education is organised in the context of Social Promotion.

Line B requires a complete year of education with a minimum of 500 h of education in the humanities and in pedagogy, 150 h of school practice, half of it teaching in total responsibility and paid, and participation in empirical research work.

Since this first announcement of this plan, no further development could be seen to take place.

2. The problem of the education of teacher educators remains unsolved.

Generally, the pedagogical education of educators at higher education level, while appearing to be a necessity, is not yet obligatory in Belgium. The CAPAES (Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique à l'enseignement supérieur - certificate of teaching competence at higher education level) which was proposed by the 1970 law on higher education was never made the object of further ministerial orders demanding its application. There is no mention made of it in the decree determining the general organisation of the Higher Education Institutes. The documents required for nominations at the level of the short-cycle programmes in higher education are the graduation entitling to teach in upper secondary schools or, if this is not organised, the CAP (Certificat d'aptitude Pédagogique - certificate of pedagogical competence). Among educators in higher education there is full agreement about the fact that those educating prospective teachers are working under specific conditions justifying a specific and more thorough pedagogical preparation to the extent that it represents the very core of their professionalism. How far is this actually taken into account in practice?

In the different institutions described above two categories of educators are represented: subject-matter specialists and psycho-pedagogues. At University the subject-matter specialists lecturing in courses leading up to the licentiate level (*licence*) are not required to be concerned with didactical matters; such matters are entrusted to a lecturer in the respective discipline charged with offering courses in "special methodology" sometimes also renamed as "didactics of ..."). It is the latter persons who we would put into the category of "didacticians". Undoubtedly resulting from the concurrent model, the same subject-matter specialist plays two different roles in the IESP: educate in the discipline and educate in the field of didactical transposition of subject matter. In the two cases the didacticians are specialists in a particular discipline, are graduates entitled to teach at the level of upper secondary education³ in the same discipline and sometimes have a doctoral degree in the discipline they teach.

If it is indeed indispensable to have a good subject knowledge in order to be able to competently teach in the area of the didactical transposition, one might nevertheless have doubts whether it is enough, for example, to be a good mathematician in order to be a good didactician in mathematics, and that even at all levels of schooling. Certainly one finds among educators some teachers of exceptional abilities who are already recognised in their discipline but are still interested in the improvement of their knowledge and contribute to constructing this knowledge through personal efforts, thus enabling future generations of teachers to profit from this ongoing process of reflection and improvement. But even if there are such particularly positive situations, there is a serious danger of false compromises and inadequate solutions if one does not try hard to regulate a process of the importance of teacher education through more solid guarantees of quality, particularly in relation to the degrees required from candidates and in relation to their education. The reform project submitted by M. Lebrun (16 February, 1993) already demanded such an education. Up to this day there was never a serious attempt to organise it.

The psycho-pedagogical courses are a matter of a licentiate (*licencié*)⁴ or of someone with a doctoral degree in this area. Basically, the situation could appear to be more positive in this field, as a kind of specific education does exist being particularly designed for the professional preparation of these teacher educators. A combined analysis of the historical evolution of this type of education on the one side and of the complexity of the task with which these educators are currently faced on the other cautions us to be more modest in this respect. While historically the Institutes of Pedagogy have been open to a public of elementary school teachers and secondary school teachers with professional experience, this education requirement was gradually replaced, in the context of what became the Faculties of Educational Sciences, by university studies of four and later five years, open like all other institutions to those holding a diploma at the level of upper secondary education,

without any experience of school teaching. Some additional professional education, to be undergone in the course of the teaching career as in-service education, should permit educators to anchor their teaching more firmly in reality due to their actual participation in activities at school level. The proposals of M. Lebrun (16 February, 1993) and of the Conseil de l'Éducation et de la Formation (6 October, 1995) intend to introduce just such an education for teacher educators.

For the two categories of teacher educators in Belgium described above a complementary professional education appears to be a necessity. It could be organised in the form of specific modules depending on the different categories of educators but could also contain elements of common activities, for example the participation in applied research which would have the aim of developing their ability to work in groups and to jointly acquire new knowledge.

Finally we have not dealt here with the category of teachers/mentors for teaching practice which represents nevertheless an essential element of the organisation of teacher education. In their case once again institutional obstacles stand in the way of their being recognised⁵ and consequently of healthy contractual negotiations concerning their role and the education required for their job. This education should also be acquired through in-service training courses.

II. In-service teacher education

1. Recent years have been marked by the allocation of increasingly more funds to in-service education. However, the problem remains of using them in a way that a general improvement of the education system could actually be achieved.

For several years now the in-service education of teachers has undergone significant developments in the French-speaking Community of Belgium, as it is currently subsidised and organised on the basis of two decrees: the decree of 24 December, 1990, which applies to all three networks, organises the continuing education of personnel in the field of elementary education, special needs education and education at the Psycho-Medico-Social Centres; the decree of 16 July, 1993, organises the same education with regard to the field of secondary education.

At the elementary school level, training activities are the responsibility of the networks⁶. The government of the French-speaking Community organises and administers the in-service training courses for its own network. For the two other networks, the government approves the projects of in-service education courses proposed by the organising institutions after having subjected them to review by an inter-network commission.

Training activities involving personnel in the area of secondary education are organised at three levels: through the intermediary of committees establishing agreements for the entire area of the Community (40% of all credits), by corresponding committees operating at the level of zones (40% of all credits) but also being responsible for each network (20% of all credits), each having its own methodological approach in the matter. The allocation of financial means to each of the three networks of education existing in the French-speaking Community is based on precise quantitative criteria (number of lessons taught by teachers in each network). Beyond this legal framework each network of education is free to organise independent in-service training activities with its own financial means. Thus, each network disposes of its own training centres.

Even if the two decrees mentioned above have resulted in promoting practices of in-service education which differ from network to network, they do represent a certain progress in tying in-service training for teachers to a global strategy of development. However, there is still a great effort to be

made in order to establish programme structures that would allow in-service education to be made profitable for attaining fundamental aims of the education system, e.g for orienting it towards the current reforms⁷. Too often the offer of in-service training courses being made available has taken the form of a catalogue of a diversified course offer not adding up to a coherent project.

The present government of the French-speaking Community intends to improve this situation by presenting a new statutory tool planning to unify the aims, the procedures and the means for the totality of different groups involved in in-service teacher education (Mainguet, 1998). At present the providers of in-service education are not specifically prepared and accredited for such a task. Cooperation will have to be intensified between institutions of initial teacher education and the establishments organising in-service education for teachers. The decree organising the restructuring of the higher education sector suggests a widening of their scope of activities beyond initial education, adding activities in the field of continuing education and applied research to the normal framework of services provided by them.

The report by H. Baert and F. Cockx (1997) deplores the absence of a coherent and subsidised policy of universities in the field of continuing education. There are some initiatives here and there but they are not centralised and the lack of evaluation criteria helping to assess the quality of further education in Belgium leaves us with a difficult task.

2. In French-speaking Belgium, the participation in life-long teacher education is so far neither an established right nor an obligation for teachers.

Career-long teacher education is conceived as a service and therefore left to the discretion of teachers⁸. It is therefore possible that in individual cases teachers spend a lifetime in teaching with the experience of initial education providing the only basis for their professional activity. Is this really tolerable at a time when there is a rapid change of the needs of the young that are to be educated as well as the conditions of exercising the profession and the knowledge available to face its challenges? However, the responsible persons and those participating in the field of education (see in this respect especially the communication of the Conseil de l'Enseignement et de la Formation dating from 6 October, 1995) rarely envisage to make the process of in-service education compulsory; instead they prefer to advocate the use of incentives, linking the efforts undertaken by participants in in-service education to a part of salary increases and access to different specialised functions in schools.

Actually, today the participation in continuing teacher education activities entails no specific advantages in terms of salary or career and there is no credit system in French-speaking Belgium from which teachers could draw benefit in this sense. The possibilities of promotion in the teaching career are rather few; the only functions open for selection (obtaining a post at the level of school management or of the inspectorate) obliging teachers to abandon their classroom teaching activities. Numerous documents in recent years (e.g. Lebrun, 16 February, 1993; Conseil de l'Enseignement et de la Formation, 6 October, 1995) have deplored that career profiles for teachers are so very flat. The institutions of teacher education often plead for an acknowledgement of the status of teacher/mentor for teaching practice (*maître de stage*), accompanied either by financial advantages difficult to obtain from the subsidising authorities under present conditions, or by advantages in terms of a reduction of hours, but also accompanied by the obligation of participating in in-service education to be introduced for these important partners in the process of professional education of teachers. These formally educated teachers/mentors for teaching practice could also serve as a multiplier for in-service education in relation to their colleagues at school (see Dumortier, 1997).

At the moment, while not being an obligation, this in-service education does not appear to be an established right of teachers either. Only the right to 10 days of in-service education per year for the teachers of elementary school teaching has been the object of a statutory text. Teachers do not enjoy

the right to a “paid holiday for education purposes”, as do full-time employees in the private sector who may take leave from work in order to enhance their education. For teachers the permission to leave their classroom teaching in order to participate in further education activities must be given by the headmaster; sometimes he would refuse to give it because of the negative effects caused by their absence on the school’s organisation. The replacement for teachers during times of absence is actually not regulated by law, but only decided on a case by case basis⁹. As the vast majority of in-service education activities are of a short duration (1 to 5 days), there is indeed no statutory possibility for dealing with the replacement question. In the interest of reducing times of absence for training purposes during the school year it could be envisaged to promote the organisation of training sessions in certain less critical periods of the school year, e.g. at the end of August and the beginning of September (Mainguet, 1998).

III. Evaluation of teacher education

By tradition it has always been the Inspectors in our country who were given responsibility for looking into the question whether appropriate use was made of public funds in the education sector and for verifying whether the quality level of studies was in line with the objectives of the official programme objectives. However, in contrast with what is general practice in many other countries, this role is paradoxically fulfilled without programmes having been established by a central body depending on the subsidising powers and without the evaluation of achievement being undertaken on a basis being common for all and with diagnostic instruments being applied to everyone.

Up to now the practice of evaluating the education system is not yet firmly anchored in the Belgian education culture (see Beckers, 1998). The first steps were only taken quite recently: In 1990/91 a commission of experts established by the OECD investigated the functioning of the system (see OECD, 1993). This led to a number of important consequences like the definition of general objectives for the entire education system (CEF, 1992), the holding of general assemblies in the education sector in May 1995 and a decree being adopted in July 1997 which defined the priority objectives of the education sector and proposed structures which were thought to be appropriate for attaining them (*décret-mission*).

With this decree substantial progress was made on the side of evaluation (articles 31 and 55) in relation to the complete void previously existing (clearer formulation of a framework defining competences, proposals for the use of instruments in order to evaluate them, creation of pilot commissions for evaluation) but in view of the importance of what is really at stake even this progress appears to be quite insufficient (no systematic measuring of results).

The decree does not apply to the higher education sector and does not introduce any new regulations at this level. University education which always enjoyed a very high degree of freedom was never subjected to inspection from outside. This freedom even increased with the decree of 5 September, 1994, which eliminated the only existing legal provision concerning accreditation of courses (as stipulated in the 1929 law). As to the Higher Education Institutes, the decree establishing them considerably increased their autonomy, aligning their status with that of the Universities. As a result, the teacher education departments of the Higher Education Institutes from now on will have no further visits from inspectors and do not have their programmes to be accredited anymore (article 29 of the decree of 5 August, 1995).

Is it normal that institutions of teacher education should be given complete freedom in defining the professionalism of teachers who they educate? In order to maintain chances of democratic equality, the decree defining general objectives for the education sector (*décret-mission*) stipulates that

autonomy of institutions will go hand in hand with pilot bodies whose tasks lies in supervising schools as to their effectively pursuing the common objectives and in verifying in standardised ways their being actually achieved by schools. Should this rule not also be applied to the University and to Higher Education Institutes?

Mechanisms which intend to guarantee a better quality control in education are beginning to be elaborated at these two levels of higher education. Quite logically they equally refer to the structures of teacher education forming part of the two levels, without particular attention being really given to this aspect. Thus, each Higher Education Institute has to draft a pedagogical, social and cultural action plan which assures internal coherence (coherence between the aims, the organised activities, the partnerships sought to be established and the means allocated to it). Among the chapters that should be part of this plan figures the definition of the modes of implementation of quality assessment within the Higher Education Institute (article 6 of the decree of 5 August, 1995). Furthermore, a Pedagogical Commission of the Community provides a statement to the government as to whether the plan for each Higher Education Institute is in conformity with the general objectives. A Higher Education Institute could be taken to task by the Commission or by an inspector of the French-speaking Community, if the latter believe that the Higher Education Institute does not apply certain measures as planned. Sanctions could go as far as cutting funding (articles 10 and 11). The regulation of study programmes is also in the hands of the the Pedagogical Commission of the Community (article 27) and so is an annual report on the activities of the Commission which is followed by a statement on the matter. Article 37 of the same decree requires the authorities of the Higher Education Institutes to undertake a review of the quality of teaching activities and of other tasks which fall into their domain. This review is executed in accordance with a procedure defined by the government which foresees in particular the recourse to external experts in the review process the majority of whom has to exercise a profession outside the education sector. Since 1 September, 1988, a report on the quality review is sent to the government and to the unit for educational forecasting of the Pedagogical Commission of the Community which elaborates a statement on the matter being then passed on to the government. It is the government which decides on any steps to be taken.

Universities are also increasingly introducing strategies for evaluating the quality of institutions and their operation. Several establishments cooperate in the programme of institutional evaluation of the CRE (Conférence des Recteurs Européens) seeking to make progress at a European level. The CRE offers help in improving the quality of the management process and disseminates examples of good practice in this area. Assessment at the level of examinations like the *agrégation* in which actors representing different faculties are involved further increases difficulties linked to processes of evaluation. However, specific initiatives for dealing with the problem have been taken at certain universities like the Université de Liège.

In response to a request from the Minister Grafé (Minister of Higher Education, Research and International Relations) the CEF (Conseil de l'Enseignement et de la Formation) issued a statement on the evaluation of quality in higher education (April and June, 1996). The measures which it suggests are the traditional ones: self-evaluation involving all relevant actors, an external evaluation conducted as a peer review and involving peers which have a reputation as being impartial specialists, independent from public authorities in their defining procedures and methods, and submitting their report which also contains specific recommendations to the establishment being evaluated. This particular evaluation procedure should have no impact on the level of funding, except in very particular cases, and should not be used for ranking the establishments. The CEF also initiated a process of reflection on quality indicators. This procedure which is fundamentally very different from an inspection, is an essential element of an improvement of quality in higher education. In order to take shape more concretely in practice, it requires corresponding means. Are the public authorities prepared to invest into these regulation mechanisms?

Concerning evaluation of in-service training, no initiative of systematic and global evaluation was taken so far. At each level of in-service training the inspection service is charged with the task of assessing the programme as to its conformity with what was defined previously in the task list. For in-service training of personnel at the level of elementary education which is regulated by the decree of 24 December, 1990, a circular dated 20 April, 1993, stipulates that beyond the tasks of the inspection service a “qualitative and quantitative evaluation should be undertaken by the organising establishments and should be secured by an independent evaluator of teacher educators; it has to provide the basis for permanently improving the organisation of in-service training” (Ministry of Education, Research and Vocational Training, 1993). The Union des Villes et des Communes (the federation of the local authorities being the official subsidised organisers of elementary education) entrusted a university service with the task of external evaluation (Giot, 1998). For the in-service education of personnel at the level of secondary education article 19 of the decree of 1993 stipulates that those benefitting from training programmes are at the same time those evaluating them. For training activities organised at the level of the Community and at the level of regions the teacher educators involved submit a report to the responsible inspection office. The latter evaluates the operation of the training activities and their efficiency.

Summarising these remarks, it could be stated that on the one side no fundamental changes have taken place at the legislative level in the last three years with regard to the area of teacher education in French-speaking Belgium and its evaluation - but on the other side proposals for reform do exist. It is to be hoped that the increasingly important role which our country seems prepared to assign to the evaluation of quality in the higher education sector will stimulate deeper reflection on the education of teachers and their educators and will lead to the introduction of legal and structural provisions which may create conditions for a better way of professionalising teachers.

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Décret du 24 décembre 1990 relatif à la formation continue et à la formation complémentaire des membres du personnel de certains établissements d'enseignement et des centres psycho-médico-sociaux, paru au Moniteur belge du 19 avril 1991.

Décret du 16 juillet 1993 relatif à la formation en cours de carrière des membres du personnel des établissements d'enseignement secondaire ordinaire, paru au Moniteur belge du 22 décembre 1993.

Décret du 5 septembre 1994 relatif au régime des études universitaires et des grades académiques, paru au Moniteur belge du 8 novembre 1994 (arrêté d'exécution du 7 avril 1995).

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Footnotes

¹ Decree of 5 August, 1995, regulating the general organisation of higher education in Higher Education Institutes (*Hautes Ecoles*).

² CESS: Certificat d'Enseignement Supérieur. This diploma which is awarded at the end of secondary schooling in the general and technical branches is necessary for having access to higher education.

³ In the Pedagogical Departments of the Higher Education Institutes the degree required for being teacher of general courses is that of graduate entitled to teach at upper secondary level, completed by two years of relevant experience (Order of the Executive of the French-speaking Community of 22 April, 1969). The decree of 25 July, 1996, relating to the tasks and duties of Higher Education Institutes organised or subsidised by the French-speaking Community replaces the occupational title of teacher by that of *maître assistant* (article 38) for the basic functions at level 1 but does not modify the titles of the higher functions (article 12, § 1/3).

⁴ In order to be allowed to offer courses in the field of psychology, pedagogy and methodology, the degree of licentiate in the field of the Educational Sciences or licentiate in the field of Psycho-pedagogical Sciences, completed by two years of relevant experience, is the degree required by the Order of the Executive of the French-speaking Community of 22 April, 1969, which has already been mentioned.

⁵ The only ones presently benefitting from recognition are the teachers for teaching practice who are responsible for the prospective teachers at the level of elementary education. An Order of the Executive of 3 September, 1991, provides

them for the duration of five years (with a possibility of prolongation) with the qualification of “agent d’encadrement pédagogique” which supplies them with financial advantages in the form of a weekly allowance (Ministère de l’Education et de la Formation, 1996).

⁶ In French-speaking Belgium, education is organised either directly by the French-speaking Community, or by subsidised official organising authorities (the Provinces and the Communes), or by subsidised free organising authorities (mainly religious organisations).

⁷ At the level of in-service education for teachers in the area of elementary schools, a recent circular aims at achieving this particular objective.

⁸ There is one exception to be taken note of: The participation in some pedagogical days organised by the Inspection is compulsory for teachers at the level of official subsidised elementary education (not counting the 10 days of in-service education). The teachers participating in these courses are not replaced and the pupils are sent home for the time of their absence.

⁹ In the circular already mentioned of 20 June, 1996, referring to in-service education in the field of elementary education certain training activities linked to the reform and organised as five-day courses in block form could lead to replacements being organised for them.

Teacher Education in Denmark - Updating the SIGMA Report of 1996

1. The structure of Danish teacher education

Since the enactment of the 1991 Act on Teacher Education there has been continuous criticism raised against particularly the first part of the teacher education programme. The critics point out that students are overburdened by an over-scheduling of class hours, subjects, and examinations, thus leaving the students little time and opportunity to engage in independent study or in a more thorough reflection on the subject matter. The acknowledgement of this problem as well as the enactment of a new act for the primary and lower secondary school (the Folkeskolen) in 1994 have been the main reasons for yet another revision of the Danish teacher education.

The 1991 Act on Teacher Education has been revised, and the accompanying order (i.e. ministerial guidelines on how, more specifically, the act is to be followed) is new and replaces the previous ministerial Order no. 261 of 1992. Seen together, the changes represent a different programme structure and a much more detailed set of curriculum guidelines. However, the tradition of a decentralised system is maintained - it is still the local teacher education colleges that make up the concrete curriculum and study plans. The revised law was enacted August 1st, 1998.

On a general level, the new law brings three substantial changes to teacher education: Firstly, teacher education no longer consists of two parts (of which predominantly the first was criticized); secondly, the students must choose four core subjects (previously it was two) and almost all the minor class teacher subjects, which used to be obligatory in part one, are no longer offered; and thirdly, now the Ministry of Education not only specifies the general educational objectives of education as a whole and of the different subjects, but in addition also specifies, rather concretely, which topics are to be covered in each of the different subjects.

According to the new ministerial order, teacher education now consists of the following course-elements:

1) Christian studies/philosophy of life ("livsoplysning")	0,2 FTE*
2) Core subject 1 (math or Danish)	0,7 FTE
3) Core subject 2, 3 and 4, each of 0,55 FTE	1,65 FTE
4) Thesis (in the field of one of the chosen core subjects)	0,15 FTE
5) Educational theory: "general didactic", "psychology", "educational studies", and "sociology of education"	0,7 FTE
6) Teaching practice (incl. teaching internship)	0,6 FTE

* (units are "full-time equivalents" (FTE) i.e. 1.00 = one year of full time study)

As shown above, the student is now obliged to choose either “Danish” or “Math” as one of the core subjects. Regarding the three other core subjects, the student must choose subjects from within at least two of the different subjects areas: the humanities, the natural sciences or the practical and musical subjects. All core subjects are preparatory for, and bearing the same name as, the teaching subjects in the Folkeskole.

Because of the diversity requirements, new teachers may gain a broad knowledge and acquire teaching abilities in different subjects, and this may be a good basis for carrying out interdisciplinary work with teacher colleagues. Also, the requirements can be seen as an initiative towards solving the difficulties which the Folkeskole experiences in recruiting teachers with teaching qualifications in the natural sciences. A criticism of the new requirements concerning the core subjects may be found in the possibility that students could feel constrained and consequently less interested and engaged in their studies.

Another change in the teacher education program is the omission of those more general subjects in the previous first part which were not directly preparatory for teaching subjects in the Folkeskole (such as “history/societal studies” and “natural science”). It may be that the addition in the new act of the “thesis” and “sociology of education” (“skolen i samfundet”) could imply like opportunities for the students to approach their work from the perspectives of general social and historical conditions and developments. However, the ministerial curriculum guidelines seem to suggest a more narrow and functional subject orientation. For example, in the thesis the student must relate the chosen topic to both the core subject and the educational theory subjects - and possibly also to the “teaching practice”. Also, the thesis is finally evaluated by the teachers of the different subjects. The result is a stronger relation between the educational theory subjects and the teaching oriented subjects.

Compared to the 1991 act, there are now fewer subjects offered in the programme. This change is positive seen from the point of view that the students now have a chance to engage themselves more thoroughly in the subject matter. It is not yet clear if the concentration on a fewer number of chosen subjects can be seen as a departure from the comprehensive teacher education model (Elle 1996) and a move towards an education which focuses on providing students with specific teaching abilities.

In the new program, teaching practice (which covers both teaching internships at the Folkeskole and courses at the college) now totals 24 weeks compared to the previous 20 weeks. Moreover, teaching practice is scheduled in all of the four years of the programme, and it is obligatory for students to get teaching practice in all of their chosen core subjects. An innovation concerning the teaching practice in the latter part of the programme is the introduction of a 7-9 week teaching internship in which the student is responsible for the teaching. The purpose is to give students some training as “real-life” teachers.

2. The contents of the teacher education programme

Like the previous teacher education act, the new act still holds the teaching subjects (i.e. the subjects preparing for the different subjects taught in the Folkeskole) as the central element in the teacher education programme. An important difference concerning the subject definitions and guidelines is a change towards a more detailed and centralised regulation in the new act and the accompanying order. The former ministerial order of 1992 only defined the *objectives* of the different subjects, and the individual colleges would then use these objectives to define the subject matter and study requirements in their local curriculum regulations (“studieordning”). In the teaching milieu, it is

now being discussed if the new detailed ministerial curriculum guidelines are to be considered as recommendations or as mandatory regulations.

In the new ministerial order (1998), the “educational theory” courses are now diminished to make up 0,7 FTE compared to 0,9 FTE in the previous program. Despite the reduction in time, the curriculum guidelines for the educational theory subjects do not accordingly decrease the expectations regarding the scope and contents to be covered in these subjects. Avoiding “academic overload” will thus be an important challenge for the colleges in their work of translating the ministerial guidelines into curriculums. In which respect the ministerial guidelines are of a recommendatory or of a mandatory character is clearly important here.

The detailed ministerial curriculum guidelines imply that the 18 different teacher education colleges in Denmark will have similar conditions for curriculum planning, but as the specific content and the order of the subjects and course in the programme are being planned locally, the different colleges may offer programmes which are structured quite differently, and thus there may be compatibility problems in the case of students who wish to switch from one college to another.

The new act of 1997 and the accompanying ministerial order (1998) seem to bring a higher degree of co-ordination and integration between the three educational elements: (a) teaching oriented subjects, (b) educational theory and (c) teaching practice in Danish teacher education. This was already formulated as an objective in the preparatory text to the act of 1991 (Betænkning nr. 1199 of 1991), but now the objective of co-ordination is written into the legislation proper: “The student shall learn to relate and to practice the academic and educational theories and proficiencies. In order to suit this purpose, a co-operation is established between the teachers of the core, educational theory, and teaching practice subjects and the students” (Bekendtgørelsen 1998, §6). The co-ordination between the different types of elements is also pointed out in regard to the “thesis”, which must take up chosen aspects from within one of the core subjects and be prepared “in relation to educational theory and possibly the teaching practice” (Bekendtgørelsen 1998, §7).

In this way, the regulatory changes are an effort to provide the framework needed for solving some of the problems in Danish teacher education which have been discussed for years. The regulatory changes not only bring a higher degree of co-ordination between the three educational elements - it is also an effort to relate teacher education more closely to the teaching practices in the Folkeskole, as can be seen in the statement that the “interdisciplinary work and project oriented work that are practiced in the Folkeskole” are to be part of teacher education. In this the ministerial order of 1998 relates closely to the ideas in the Act on the Folkeskole of 1993.

Seen as a whole, the revised and new legislation on teacher education in Denmark is another step in the direction of a closer relationship between the three educational elements. In addition, the lesser amount of subjects to be taken in the new programme structure makes it possible for students to engage in more thorough and reflective studies. The actualisation of this possibility is of course not only dependent on there being fewer subjects, but also on how the programme structure and subject content are organised in the local study programmes.

3. Evaluation of teacher education programmes

In Denmark, until now only the higher education programmes are being evaluated systematically. One explanation for the fact that teacher education (located at college level) has not yet faced such evaluation is that changes in the programmes have been planned and foreseen shortly following the enactment of the 1992 Act on Teacher Education.

The Ministry of Education suggests that educational programmes at all levels should be evaluated systematically. According to a new law proposal (Bill of September 1st, 1998), all these evaluations are to be carried out by a new central Evaluation Institute, which probably is to encompass the existing Evaluation Centre.

The bill seems to reflect a general tendency towards a higher degree of centralization within the educational system (Elle 1996). Critics of the bill point out that such a single all encompassing Evaluation Institute probably will have difficulties in possessing the diverse and specific professional expertise to carry out appropriate evaluation activities for a great variety of education processes in many different types of institutions. Such an expertise seems necessary when it comes to establishing evaluation groups and developing evaluation procedures suitable for the different areas of education.

Furthermore, a criticism of the bill is that the Ministry of Education will have increased power to follow up the evaluation outcomes with direct measures. The criticism is not mainly directed towards the idea of evaluation as such, but against the idea that individual educational institutions are to lose control in regard to how evaluation is to be carried out and how (and by whom) the evaluation activities are followed up.

Since the new Act on Teacher Education is to be implemented before any concrete evaluation is initiated, it is not possible to describe the coming evaluation practices for the teacher education. The overall purposes of evaluation are to develop and ensure educational *quality* and to monitor the educational system in relation to the stated educational *objectives*. Some general statements from the Ministry of Education concerning these purposes may provide an idea of the possible directions for future evaluation activities.

If the purpose is to evaluate all educational programmes - including teacher education - then attention will be given to aspects which allow evaluation by central guidelines and parameters, and thus quality evaluation will most likely be based on standardised and unambiguous criteria.

Statements in a recent publication from the Ministry of Education "Visible Quality" ("Kvalitet der kan ses", 1997) support this interpretation:

"In those parts of the education system where ministerial subject objectives are followed (explicated as Orders on the primary and secondary school area and on the upper secondary school), the objectives are stated in very general terms which only in rare cases can be used directly for evaluation purposes.

The subject objectives must be formulated such that they could form the basis of evaluation.

The basis of evaluation in the sense that it is clearly stated what exact competences are to be expected from students at certain levels in a given educational programme."

This aim supports a streamlining of the educational programmes that renders them concrete, operational and evaluative. Seen from a critical perspective, this entails a functional understanding of education that does not allow for variations in learning processes nor a respect for less measurable learning outcomes - or educational qualities and competences. This criticism is recognized in the same publication ("Visible Quality") where it is stated that there are qualities other than concrete subject oriented proficiencies, such as problem-solving, co-operation skills and flexibility. Nevertheless, setting up evaluation criteria for these more general learning qualifications would imply that one chooses to judge, and is satisfied in judging, the quality of these and other qualifications *from the outside* by the use of a few objective measures. In the case of the examples of "problem solving", "cooperative skills" and "flexibility", there is a chance that what inherently is being

measured, and perhaps equally so, is adaptivity in the meaning of ability to conform to the standardized measurable objectives.

The publication "Visible Quality" also suggests that international comparisons might be used as an indicator for evaluating the quality level of Danish educational programmes. However, experiences with these international comparative evaluation activities (IEA) are not convincing. For example, the international evaluation project on the reading abilities of school children has been most criticized. The central problem of such international comparisons is the difficulty in establishing measurement criteria that are truly international - the national and cultural differences seriously challenge the validity of standard measurements. In Denmark, the reading ability studies have received a great deal of political attention. On rather loose grounds, the studies have engendered political interest in making more funds available for research in both reading ability as such and in international comparative studies. But the studies have also had consequences in - and maybe even have been part of the reason for - the establishing of a new teacher education model. It is now mandatory that "in all core subjects, it is to be considered how the subject can contribute to the schoolchildren's oral and written proficiencies, among this the learning processes of and training in reading" (Bekendtgørelse 1998, §9).

In deciding how (and why) teacher education in Denmark is to be evaluated, it is therefore important to note that the Ministry of Education states that it is "the intention that the interested parties relating to a given educational field shall participate in the process of defining the quality criteria, among this the objectives and indicators" ("Visible Quality", 1997).

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Educational scenarios - Denmark as a leading country? On the latest developments in teacher education in Denmark

Based on a comparative study by Hofstede¹, the Danish Ministry of Education in 1997 outlined possible future scenarios of general trends of education in the global society. Not very surprisingly, Denmark was seen in one of these scenarios as a potentially leading country, more or less facing a „golden age“. At the same time Danish teacher education has experienced some new developments which may be seen to be more in line with scenarios influenced or inspired by what Pat Mahony and Ian Hextall have called „new managerialism“². This paper presents a review of the 1997 report from the Danish Ministry of Education, of the latest law on teacher education becoming effective in July 1998 and of some of the very recent initiatives in in-service training as well as in evaluating education in general and in teacher education in particular in Denmark.

1. The Danish tradition of decentralization and „new managerialism“.

Debates on standards, outcomes and assessment in the education of teachers in Denmark have been almost abandoned since the time when Danish teacher education was under the influence of Grundtvig (at the turn of the century). Only very few and very broad guidelines have traditionally been issued by the state or the central government, as Danish teacher education developed from a professional training of people with a background very often in some vocational area into an academic, but still separate and autonomous education in the restructured 18 state colleges of education which were allowed to base their work on their own interpretation of the very general Teacher Education Act of 1991. The four-year courses in teacher education accordingly could be and actually were very different concerning content, by intention to be negotiated between students and teacher educators³. Since the days of Grundtvig, Danish teacher education by tradition particularly stressed the idea of the personal development of teachers and cooperative as well as theoretical competences, all to be put into practice in courses run by the autonomous colleges of education.

In view of this long tradition it was until quite recently not very likely that managerial theory or concepts be considered as relevant, at least not in the field of education. Since 1993 a few steps had been taken in order to evaluate parts of the educational system, especially at the level of upper secondary education. Much of this was introduced as an inspiration from the not very successful attempts at transforming other parts of the welfare state by what may well be called „representing the interests of the customer“⁴. But due to the Danish tradition of decentralization and the priority given to democratic and personal qualities, it seemed very likely from a Danish perspective that the „new managerialism“ was just to be regarded as „a British disease“, as some called it at the TNTEE/ECER symposium chaired by Martin Lawn in Frankfurt in September 1997. This was even more the case when viewing the situation at the organisational level. There was nothing like the British

Teacher Training Agency (TTA) and other bodies assessing educational quality and allocating resources, in spite of the fact that some new bodies in this field had in fact been created in Denmark as well.

2. Decentralization and evaluation.

On the basis of the „decentralizing” Teacher Education Act from 1991 a new development took shape in the colleges of education. A variety of different kinds of courses and projects was introduced as a result of cooperation between teacher educators, teacher students and mentors as well as between students during the time of studies in the colleges. Quite visibly a transformation was taking place, and in some colleges internal evaluation was developed in order to provide the best possible organisation and content of the study programmes. Not only students but also candidates having a job as teachers were included in the surveys and interviews. At the same time experiments and further development of exams were made possible and encouraged by the Ministry of Education. Such developments were then evaluated in some colleges of education.

Much of this work was seen as a kind of action-research concerned with or even regarded as an element of the „self-reflective organisation”⁵ of the new modernity. In fact the 1991 law was seen as promoting the transition of teacher education from tradition to modernity, stressing more than ever the students cooperative and personal development competences that were highly demanded following the new legal basis provided for the „folkeskole” (compulsory comprehensive school) in 1994⁶. From this internal evaluation it could be concluded that the first and more general part of the study programmes had severe problems with the number of exams. This in turn led to a series of experiments with different ways of making the study programmes and the exams more meaningfully integrated, with the aim of enhancing personal development⁷.

Within the general part of the study other elements were evaluated more positively by students and teacher educators, as is shown by the evaluation report made at one of the largest colleges of education, Blaagaard State College of Education. Here the organisation of the study programme was to a high degree project based with the use of team teaching in large study units of students⁸. The basic motive for organizing teacher education in this way was seen in the idea or principle that students actually had to experience different didactical approaches and learning environments which they then had to practise later in the „folkeskole”⁹. But this way of organising courses also had its background in the Teacher Education Act of 1992 that prescribed parts of project organisation and cross subject studies and courses in some parts of the study programme. Evaluation pointed out that many students and teacher educators found it very positive that the courses were organized this way. Especially team teaching, the particular project organisation and the students’ influence were highly viewed by the students. In a later study of the candidates this was stressed even more strongly. But the same evaluation study showed severe problems in the area of teaching practice as part of the study programme which was only vaguely related to the other elements of the programme and organized in an unclear way, leaving the mentors and students in a difficult situation¹⁰.

3. The professional council and the reform of teacher education.

In 1996 the peer „reviewers”¹¹ of teacher education programmes in the colleges were given a new role. Prior to this, each of the study subjects had a professional consultant, appointed by the Ministry with the task of giving advice to teacher educators and to the Ministry. Among the peer reviewers of exams who are appointed each year by the Ministry from a list proposed by the 18 colleges of

education, one person was now, in 1996, elected as chairman for each subject studied. Among the 19 chairs one was then elected as head of chairs of review bodies. This body, or „professional council” for teachers, found itself in a rather confusing situation, taking up its work in 1996/1997. It seemed to many that the variety of programmes, courses and projects was too difficult to assess or to set proper standards for. Accordingly, this professional council made the request for a more standardised framework for teacher education as a whole.

At the same time, in 1996, an international study of the OECD¹² asserted that the Danish schools, compared with other countries, were to blame for very low standards in mother tongue teaching and learning. Nobody really cared to examine the study further, but if anyone had actually done that, one would have been unable to ignore that the Danish pupils in fact did rather well at the level of the secondary school, indeed with the same teachers as in the comprehensive school. In comparison with other countries it is also not possible to use the argument of cuts in educational expenditure as a factor supporting the theory of low achievement. On the contrary, Denmark is one of the countries occupying a top position in international comparisons of teacher expenditure per pupil at the primary and lower secondary level¹³. Irrespective of the weak factual basis of the OECD assertions, the criticism was eagerly taken up by interested groups and persons. To the politicians this meant both a need for and an opportunity to try to raise standards and to „professionalize“ teacher education. To the newly created „professional council” this meant an opportunity to advocate a more centrally governed teacher education system, or at least to limit the extent of decentralisation which had so far characterized the situation of the 18 colleges of education. The Minister of Education, newly appointed, may for his part have seen this as a perfect occasion and possible opportunity for putting his name to a new act of teacher education. He sent out a new statement proclaiming that he intended to very swiftly pass the law through parliament in order to prevent certain organisations from delaying or obstructing the legislative process. In justifying new legislation, the Minister made reference to rapid changes in society, the need for raising standards and the need for raising the competences and status of teachers through more centralized guidelines and „professionalisation“. Apparently the OECD report and the demands of the professional council had left their mark, at least providing a welcome pretext.

In contrast to this, many representatives of the colleges of education who since 1992 had been implementing a new law on teacher education emphasised the need for patience and a chance to work and to make use of experiences and internal evaluation procedures. Not only the older, more traditional generation which had been anxious about imminent changes for some time, but several of the younger teacher educators were indeed deeply worried¹⁴.

4. In-service training in teacher education, some new developments.

In-service education for teachers is offered at all 18 colleges of education and at the Royal Danish School of Education in Copenhagen. Since summer 1997 a new diploma course has been introduced in in-service teacher education. The general aim is to provide an opportunity of building on the teacher education certificate which gives access to all municipal and private schools from 1st to 10th grade (age 7 to 17), expanding into more subjects, studying subjects at a higher, advanced level or acquiring organisational skills useful for administrators at schools¹⁵. This development may be seen in parallel to the Swedish development in teacher education¹⁶. At the same time a new course programme of „Adult Education” has been introduced by the colleges of education by which different groups outside traditional teacher education programmes are given a chance of upgrading and developing their education into fields of adult education.

Both these recent types of education are being organised under the auspices and financial arrangement of the Open University which means that they are financed by the students themselves or by an employer. It is still too early to judge the outcomes of this recent development. The start has been rather modest with only a few courses being offered, but it seems to be a field of possible expansion in the future, since there is a parallel development in the wage systems towards more a more hierachical structure. In order to organize the diploma courses, the colleges have found it necessary to cooperate regionally in such a way that applicants from one college of education where a course is not possible due to a low number of applicants are advised to attend corresponding courses at a cooperating college.

5. Denmark as a “leading country” in the field of education?

In his annual report dating from 1997 the Minister of Education elaborated different scenarios for the future of Danish education in relation to education in other countries in the year 2025, that is one generation ahead of today¹⁷. As this elaboration of scenarios was made prior to or during the process of enacting the new law on teacher education, a brief overview may contribute to understanding some of the underlying conditions and ideologies of the new developments.

Based on a comparative study of Hofstede¹⁸, four scenarios for Denmark were constructed. Hofstede had tried, on the basis of an empirical study, to identify four different educational cultures or groups of cultures and values in the world of today. The idea was that by identifying different positions of countries on the scale, or along a continuum, of individualism/collectivism and equal distribution of power/unequal distribution of power within the educational systems in different societies it would be possible to identify the most important similarities and differences between the national educational systems today.

The Danish Ministry of Education now simplified this structure by distinguishing between two extremes: on the one side a „dragon-type development“, that is a more centralized, less democratically organized educational system, and on the other side the „Danish“, more „democratic” tradition. This distinction was then combined in a matrix distinguishing between possibilities of a diverging and a converging global development at the level of education during the next thirty years:

	Dragon countries in harmony with global development	Danish values in harmony with global development
Educational systems diverging, remaining specific	(A) Danish education being marginalised in relation to dragon countries	(C) „Golden age“ of Danish education
Educational systems converging, harmonisation	(B) Danish education converging with that of dragon countries, moving away from democratic organisation	(D) Denmark as a „leading country“ in the field of education

There could be very little doubt which kind of development, among the four possibilities, the Ministry would regard as desirable and which kind of consequences that could have for future policy

developments of the Danish education system. "Denmark as a leading country" stressed both professionalisation, effectiveness and the need for more reflective, democratic values in education in general. Since the 1991 Act, Danish teacher education consisted of a general two-year part of the study programme in combination with and followed by a more specialized two-year study programme of two subjects. But after examinations all teachers were then qualified to teach all subjects from age 7 to 17 up to the end of lower secondary school.

The Minister now suggests four special subjects to be studied by everyone in order to raise standards and a stronger emphasis on teaching practice and on the relation between subject theory, didactics and teaching practice in order to professionalize teacher education. To make sure that standards were raised generally and made assessable, the Minister also suggested that a set of specific guidelines should be elaborated for each subject studied at the colleges of education. The body to be in charge of this task was decided to be the new „professional council“ for each subject¹⁹.

But the Ministry intends to go much further than this in implementing policies linked to the idea of „Denmark as a leading country“. At this year's „Sorø meeting“ the new Minister of Education had invited two teachers having recently graduated. They both strongly advocated more detailed guidelines and standards in education in Denmark. One suggestion was that in order to reconstruct common values a centrally decided new subject might be introduced in the schools²⁰. At the same meeting the Minister announced that in the near future she intended to propose a law on the establishment of an Evaluation Centre being responsible for all higher education in Denmark in order to improve standards²¹. Just recently, a national committee on quality improvement in the education system has published its report on education from primary school to universities and adult education²². On September 18th the Minister put forward the proposed law on evaluation suggesting that from January 1999 onward 23 million Danish kroner and from the year 2000 onward 43 million kroner (=approximately 4 million pounds) be spent for the activities of a new National Institute of Evaluation. At the same time the first report on the entire field of teacher education has just been evaluated by the Evalueringscenteret (Evaluation Centre). The report suggests that essential parts of Royal School of Education have to be closed down in order to adjust to the policy of the Ministry of Education today²³.

Another development in relation to standards and quality is the question of the size of the 18 colleges of education in Denmark. Just lately the Ministry of Education announced that during the next 3-5 years the colleges of education should develop into considerably larger units, from the present size of ranging from 400-1300 students to that of around 4-5000 students in order to raise standards in fields like research and development which today is of limited though growing importance for these institutions.

The questions remaining to be answered against the background of such developments are simple: To what extent will the values of the traditional democratic Danish teacher education system, with its emphasis on personal development of teachers and cooperative competences in order to meet the demands and challenges of the Danish „folkeskole“, still be important features of the colleges in the future? To what extent will this reform seriously contribute to an educational system where Denmark might be seen as a „leading country“ at a global level? Are we facing developments where Denmark is in the process of giving up parts of the Grundtvig heritage of combining education and democracy? This question is even more relevant in the light of the fact that this heritage has so far been regarded as playing an important role in creating the prosperity of Danish society. The answers are not obvious.

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¹⁰ Bendixen, C. and Willumsen, J. (1995) *Evaluering*, Blaagaard Tidende.

¹¹ In Denmark, it has been a long tradition in all parts of education from the „folkeskole“ to the university to have colleagues function as external evaluators/co-examiners in examinations.

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¹⁷ Undervisningsministeriet (1997) *Uddannelsesredegørelse*, p. 39.

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²¹ Ibid.

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²³ The results are roughly indicated on the website of the Ministry: <http://www.uvm.dk/news>.

Teacher Education in Finland - updating the 1996 SIGMA report

Since teacher education in Finland was described and analysed within the SIGMA pilot project in 1994-1995 and published 1996 (Hansén, Teacher education in Finland: description and analysis, in Sander, Buchberger, Greaves & Kallós, 1996), no major structural changes have been carried out. The process of academisation of teacher education is today more or less completed, in the sense that most categories of teacher education are either totally integrated into universities, or that at least the pedagogical components qualifying teachers are offered by universities. Primary school teacher education, secondary school teacher education, and pre-school teacher education have all been integrated into universities. The corresponding integration of vocational teacher education is under way. This process implies a process of unification of teacher education as a whole. In the legislation from 1995 it was decreed that pedagogical qualification for one form of educational institution automatically gives the pedagogical qualification for different school levels (Bergem, Björkqvist, Hansén, Carlgren, & Hauge, 1997).

The departments of teacher education in Finland are complete university departments. They offer both basic degree programmes (B. Ed. and M. Ed.) and doctoral programmes (D. Ed.). There also exists a licentiate degree between the master's degree and the doctoral degree. This degree can be given different orientations (Kasvatusala kohti tulevaisuutta, 1994; Bergem, Björkqvist, Hansén, Carlgren, & Hauge, 1997).

According to the request to up-date the SIGMA-report, I will here focus on the two aspects that appear to be of importance. The first aspect concerns changes in teacher education since the national report was published (1996) and the second one the recent endeavours being made in order to evaluate teacher education.

1. Changes in Finnish teacher education

Within the existing structures various measures have been taken in order to further improve the quality of teacher education. Some of the initiatives come from the departments of teacher education themselves, while other changes are derived from the responses made by the departments on generally identified problems and expressed critique. There are many criticised areas, but in this context my intention is not to offer an exhaustive picture of either the ongoing development or the problems and the critique. In the discussion about the methods of evaluation in section 2 (see below) I will touch upon some aspects of the problems, because they form the starting-point for an ongoing preparation for evaluation. Present and future trends, problems, and challenges of Finnish teacher education have been discussed in some detail in a relatively recent study (ed. Tella, 1996). Various

aspects of Finnish teacher education are also analysed in the *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research* (3-4/1997).

The discussion will be limited to comprise two areas which reflect the ongoing changes and discussion about efforts of the internal reconceptualization of teacher education.

The first area deals with the practically oriented preparation, and the apparent relationship to the theoretically oriented preparation of student teachers. Although there is a false dichotomy between the two phases of preparation, they are anyway at least physically partly separated. The theoretically oriented preparation takes place at the departments of teacher education within the Universities. The practically oriented preparation is mainly located in separate training schools, and to some extent also in so called field schools, i.e. regular schools, with their own teaching and guiding staff. The universities aim at contributing to a research-based way of knowing and reasoning, while the teaching staff guide student teachers to act in classrooms inside particular school cultures (Adams & Tulasiewicz, 1995).

Efforts to overcome the incompatibility between the two phases of preparation is an extensive problem in Finnish teacher education. The authorities have noticed the problem, and the Ministry of Education has provided funding during the years 1997-1998 for sixteen projects aiming at developing teaching practice. The projects are distributed among the twelve departments of teacher education at the Finnish universities (Letter from the Ministry of Education 25/3/1998). The intention is to elaborate the practical preparation as an essential part of professional development and its integration with the theoretical preparation. The task is demanding because a number of interrelated factors impinge on the professional development at large, such as student teachers' personal biographies, the influence from each specific classroom situation including supervisors' encouraging or discouraging roles, the influence of institutional factors, such as institutional biographies, as well as the role of critical reflection on action (Kettle & Sellars, 1996).

The need for restructuring parts of the practically oriented preparation is also pragmatically related to the structural change of the comprehensive school and the labour division between class teachers and subject teachers. The administrative demarcation between the lower (grades 1-6) and the upper stages (grades 7-9) will be eliminated. This change means in practice that class teachers can work in the upper stages and the subject teachers in the lower stages under certain conditions of the comprehensive school (Education & research 2000, 1996). The practically oriented preparation has to be adjusted to the new situation.

Finnish teacher education has been charged for not paying enough attention on how to deal in practice with socially related problems. The authorities have thus called for the intensification of developing action models in order to reduce school harassment and to enhance school satisfaction and pupils' self-esteem (Education & research 2000, 1996).

The overall aim of the two phases of preparation is to help student teachers to recognize them as interdependent, and to acknowledge the contribution from the representatives of the universities and the schools involved as a form of partnership. Regular opportunities of reflection required the university courses, together with continuous critical reflection on action, to help student teachers elaborate their practical theories more explicitly (cf. Kettle & Sellars, 1996).

The traditional content of practice, almost exclusively directed to teaching practice, has also been questioned. Studies show (see Gonnée van Amelswoort & Scheerens, 1996) that nearly half of teachers' working time consists of non-teaching activities such as school-based curriculum work, collective planning, cooperation with parents, out-door activities etc. The practical preparation in its dominating form is not considered to provide the ideal way for student teachers' to face the

reality of the school work. An appropriately organized practice offers a broad contact with the totality of the elements constituting school work. This means, not only lesson planning and teaching, but also possibilities of exploring new teaching strategies, participating in the dynamics of collaboration with colleagues within various projects and with different actors and actor groups, like parents, local authorities and tutoring students with special needs and social problems. Student teachers also need to get opportunities for resolving social conflicts. If this aspect of practice is absent, the possibilities to confirm or modify various components of student teachers' practical theory by putting these into practice will be limited. It might be of value to schedule opportunities so that student teachers gain maximum benefit (Kettle & Sellars, 1997).

The other area I want to touch upon relates to the claim stating that the Finnish teacher education is not only scientifically based but also research oriented (Kansanen, 1997). What does this claim stand for? Because the main part of teacher education is connected to a higher university degree, i.e. Master's degree, student teachers get engaged into research while writing their thesis. Today an essential part of the thesis consists of empirical studies on various aspects of the educational field. The development during the very last years has to some extent favoured models that engage teachers in the research process, particularly action research. During pre-service education, this kind of research is a natural way to combine the later phases of practice teaching with work on the master's thesis. At a meta-level, the study of teachers engaged in research and analyses of such activities have become an important field for theoretical research within the educational field (Ojanen, 1996; Bergem, Björkqvist, Hansén, Carlgren, & Hauge, 1997).

Besides the role of providing opportunities for a systematic way of achieving knowledge, the thesis writing also forms a central part of student teachers' process of learning to reflect, and thus prepares them for action guided by a gradually elaborated practical theory.

Since teacher education in Finland is firmly set within an academic framework, it is quite natural that the research interests of that academic community should include, to a large extent, the processes and problems associated with teacher education and teachers. A short look at some identifiable fields of research relating to teachers and teacher education reveals some areas where a more distinct profile has emerged during the last years (cf. Bergem, Björkqvist, Hansén, Carlgren, & Hauge, 1997):

- Research into teachers' thinking, besides being an internationally viable field of research, serves as a base of knowledge for teacher education itself. The concept of a "reflective teacher" includes a focus on pre-service as well as on in-service education. Concerning this field of research, researchers have been accused of neglecting the influence of the context on teacher's thinking.
- Another field of educational research directly relating to teacher education has concerned the concept of professionalism. The current focus of interest is related to two processes: the academisation of teacher education and the decentralisation of educational decision-making. This culture of new professionalism, which particularly values cooperation, interaction and communication as well as active personal learning as a professional tool, differs manifestly from a culture in which professionalism is defined in terms of teachers' individual actions directed mainly to classroom problems and tasks.
- The third field deals with interaction in the classroom and can be seen as a call for more systematic research efforts. The research on teacher behaviour is one of diminishing importance, at least temporarily. This can be seen as a consequence of a paradigmatic shift towards constructivist views of learning, that place the learner in the spotlight. Research on teacher

behaviour tends to focus on the teacher-learner interaction. There exists today a need for research which focuses on classroom interactions from a broad contextual perspective.

- A fourth field of research relates to the periodic renewal of national curricula which plays an important role in any country. This has been the case in Finland, and such research often includes a discussion of the role of the teacher in the implementation of the curriculum (Atjonen, 1993; Syrjäläinen, 1994). The newest Finnish curricula date from 1994. They reflect the clear transition to decentralised educational decision-making, being much less prescriptive than the previous ones. Formally, they give teachers considerable freedom in action, but the lack of even non-statutory guidance leads to the paradox that some teachers turn to traditional ways of teaching rather than make use of the acquired freedom. Teacher education needs to give priority to research related to this area in order to deepen the understanding about the conditions directing teachers' school-based curriculum work, and the translation of the curriculum objectives into practice.

2. Evaluation of Finnish teacher education

The latest evaluation of Finnish teacher education was carried out in 1992-94. In the national reports of the fifteen member states (Hansén, in Sander, Buchberger, Greaves & Kallós, 1996) I have already discussed the outcome of the evaluation. In this context I therefore only touch upon some of the discussed issues as a basis for the discussion about current plans to re-evaluate Finnish teacher education.

The evaluation 1992-94 was ambitious and consisted of four phases: self-evaluation of the departments of teacher education, site visits by the appointed evaluation team to the departments, international evaluation and a national evaluation seminar. The results were published in two reports (Kasvatusala kohti tulevaisuutta, 1994 and Buchberger et al., 1994). The first report emphasizes the importance of preserving and further elaborating a university based teacher education. The report accentuates the need of developing the curriculum, elaborating criteria for the recruitment of student teachers, and further developing the evaluation of teacher education. The international review team focused in its report on a number of problems: for instance, on the need for improving the integration of different elements constituting the content and structure of teacher education, on different problems concerning the relationship between subject studies and educational studies for subject matter student teachers, and on what is considered as a proportionally low share of subjects like psychology and political science in teacher education programmes.

Teacher education has also been paid attention to in the evaluation of the disciplines of the humanities and science. Among other issues, claims have been made to move part of teaching and posts from the departments of teacher education to departments of different disciplines. Another intention mentioned is that of elaborating a more flexible connection between theoretical studies and teacher practice, and to develop in-service training.

Also the Committee of Culture within the Finnish Parliament has expressed the needs of developing teacher education. The Committee has for instance called for the development of more reflective and critical practitioners, and for the improvement of teachers' readiness to cooperate with other teachers outside the classroom, with parents and other actors and actor groups outside the school.

Evaluation is seen as a topic of general importance at Finnish universities at the moment. The Government has stated in its developmental plan that all universities are to be evaluated between the years 1995-2000. The Finnish higher education evaluation council has in 1998 appointed a committee to plan a re-evaluation of Finnish teacher education during the years 1998-99 (Pro

Memoria 10/6/1998). The aim is to evaluate how the results of the previous evaluation (1992-94) have affected the development of teacher education. Subjects mathematics and science will also be included in the evaluation. The focus of the re-evaluation will be put on the programme which includes areas such as teaching, learning, studies, examinations, the recruitment of student teachers, the qualification of teacher educators, and educational structures. The overall aim of the evaluation is directed to the improvement of university evaluation in general. The attention will furthermore be directed towards the position of teacher education within the structure of the university's budgeting by results, and to the inner structures of the university which affect the development of teacher education as a part of the university.

The evaluation will be conducted by a steering group and organized into different phases consisting for instance of 1) document analysis, like previous evaluations, research about teacher education, the legislation, teacher education programmes etc.; 2) departments' internal evaluation; 3) external evaluation carried out through site visits, and finally 4) reporting.

The challenge for this kind of ambitious and large-scale evaluation approach is the question of how to carry out the evaluation in only approximately one year. On the other hand the idea of this kind of evaluation is to get the results in a reasonable time. Another demand is the problem of how to encourage the departments to cooperate, to harmonize and to make different kinds of data comparable. The most demanding challenge, though, is the problem of how to make sense of the results. An evaluation is only a diagnosis which itself does not contribute to the solution of problems within different institutional settings.

3. Concluding remarks

In my up-date to the SIGMA-report, certain aspects of the present state of affairs of Finnish teacher education have been described and analysed. I have concentrated on two issues: changes and evaluation. The current changes discussed are not of a structural character. They are basically content oriented and aimed at further improving the quality of Finnish teacher education and, thus, contributing to teachers' further professional development. As earlier mentioned, a number of important areas have been left out, for instance, the actual debate about the enhancement of in-service education within the conception of life-long learning and various specificities. One is the expanding quest for the small country's need to offer a broad programme of language studies. Today there is a discussion going on about how to qualify teachers for immersion programmes where the target language is the language of instruction.

With the stabilisation of teacher education as an integrated part of the university, the scope of research gradually has become more global. The awareness of international research on teachers and teacher education has spread to large sections of the Finnish academic community, particularly as a result of the great number of master's theses produced each year. The intention here has not been to cover the topic fully but rather to give a subjective illustration of current trends in the development of Finnish teacher education. Beside the presented research areas remains a fair amount of research directed towards different educational areas, for instance, towards the solution of specific problems that might emerge in the developmental process at the local level.

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The French System of Teacher Education and its Evaluation. Changes between 1995 and 1998

Among the changes which have occurred between the time of writing the chapter dealing with the French system of teacher education for the SIGMA publication (1995) and the present situation (1998), there is only one aspect of greater importance to be mentioned - the development of a specific policy concept and related initiatives in the field of evaluating teacher education institutions. This new aspect in French education policy deserves to be dealt with in more detail (cf. part 2).

1. Changes in the period from 1995 to 1998

Between 1995 and 1998, the principles of development for the teacher education system as defined by the reform of 1989 and the official documents dating from 1991 and 1992 have not changed.

However, certain tendencies have emerged more clearly. Particularly, the importance of „*general education*“, and even more so that of the „*education common to all future teachers*“ has continuously declined in favour of giving more weight to subject education.

Beyond that, the wider context of operation of the IUFM has not remained unchanged which has actually affected their modes of functioning. The relevant changes will be dealt with in relation to the different parts of the previous report and the situations which they describe. Finally, the conclusions on new measures taken in order to deal with new needs will be updated (part 1.5).

1.1. Abolition of grants for students and more rigorous selection procedures

As the tendency of development in recruiting students has been reversed by now and as there is no lack of candidates anymore, the two systems of providing specific grants to students dedicated to education have been abolished step by step:

- in 1995-96, the „*grant for the preparatory year*“ offered to students with a university degree (licence) who engaged in participating in two consecutive years in a recruitment competition for an understaffed subject option for the secondary level or a specific academy district being understaffed for the primary level and to apply for immatriculation at the IUFM in the same academy district;

- at the beginning of the academic year 1997, the „*IUFM grant*“ for the first year of studies (in the second year those who have successfully participated in the competition continue to receive some financial support, as in the past). Evidently it was not anticipated that the grantholders would be relatively more successful in the competition than the other candidates.

With the increasing number of candidates, the recruitment competition has turned into a very selective procedure, particularly for the primary level. This tendency became already visible in 1993-94, as could be gathered from the evaluation report on the IUFM de Lyon of 1996.

1.2. Increase in the number of teacher educators/researchers in the field of the Educational Sciences

The yearbook published in 1997 by the AECSE (Association des enseignants chercheurs en sciences de l'éducation, the Association of researchers in the field of the Educational Sciences) underlines the steep increase in the number of professors and lecturers in the field of the Educational Sciences, growing from 182 in 1988 to 355 in 1997.¹ It establishes a list of 28 university institutions being active in the teaching of Educational Sciences (departments or UFR, Unités de Formation et de Recherche, de sciences de l'éducation ou de sciences humaines en université - the Training and Research Units in the field of the Educational Sciences or in the Humanities at university level; the CNAM, Conservatoire national des Arts et Métiers - the National Conservatory of Arts and Technology; the ENS, Écoles normales supérieures - the elite institutions among French universities preparing students for the theoretical parts of competitions for secondary level teachers; the IUFM and other Institutes).

1.3. Redefinition of the future of the INRP

In a press conference on 16 June, 1998, the minister, Claude Allègre, redefined the future of the INRP (Institut national de recherche pédagogique, the National Institute of Pedagogical Research) as that of an institution having „*to develop on several sites*“. The personnel and the research teams being installed in Paris „*will continue their activities on this location but new personnel will be recruited on other locations. The first new location will be opened up in Lyon in the context of establishing the two ENS (Écoles normales supérieures) in this city.*“ In Paris, the INRP would be in position to cooperate with the ENS being located in the same street as itself, the rue d'Ulm. The new director of the INRP, Philippe Meirieu, is a professor of Educational Sciences in Lyon, known for his taking sides in favour of pedagogy and author of a report commissioned by the Ministry recommending changes in secondary schools preparing for academic study (lycées) which point in this direction (1998).

1.4. Recognition of research efforts undertaken at the IUFM

After the refusal of the responsible minister in 1993 to accept that „*the IUFM could be regarded as possible locations for conducting research*“ and after having had to steer through troubled waters following this decision, the situation has now improved for the IUFM. Any IUFM wishing to develop a research policy has been able to do so, and even while the creation of stable research units in the IUFM as in universities has remained an exception, the activities which were begun soon after the establishing of the IUFM have been continued, as was also reflected in the evaluation reports on three IUFM (Caen, Grenoble, Lyon) which were published by the CNE (Comité National d'Évaluation des établissements publics à caractère scientifique, culturel et professionnel, the National Committee for the Evaluation of public institutions of a scientific, cultural and professional nature) in 1996.

1.5. Absence of new measures in relation to new needs

Neither the institutional development plans of the IUFM for the period from 1994 to 1999 nor the evaluation reports published by the CNE provide any information preventing us from concluding that the development of teacher education proceeds steadily along the lines indicated initially by the ARCUFEF (Assemblée des responsables de centres universitaires de formation des enseignants et des formateurs, the Association of the Directors of the University Centres for teacher education and trainers) or by research studies which we cited in the conclusions of the previous report on teacher education in France.

2. Evaluating the French system of teacher education

Since their creation, the IUFM have been the object of reports by the General Inspection, as well as by numerous other institutions in a context of intense polemics, as we have seen (cf. parts 1-2-6 and bibliography in our previous report).

The CNE (Comité National d'Évaluation des établissements publics à caractère scientifique, culturel et professionnel, the National Committee for Evaluation of public institutions of a scientific, cultural and professional nature), created by a law on January 26, 1984, which granted autonomy to universities, was solicited in 1994 by the Conference of Directors of IUFM. After consulting with the Conference and other parties concerned, it was decided in 1995 to evaluate the IUFM, as it was believed that the Committee had sufficiently more perspective than when the request was first made by the Ministry of National Education in 1991 at the creation of the first three institutions.

The approach adopted by the Committee is original in the sense that it chose to first evaluate the establishments (as done with universities and schools) and, only then, to conduct a general reflexion on the IUFM, and more widely on teacher education in France, based on these studies.

In the first experimental phase, it elaborated a methodology in conjunction with concerned partners and proceeded to evaluate the three IUFM whose heads were in agreement. These institutions presented a diversity of situations. The Committee considered it premature to draw conclusions from these first three evaluations. But it did perfect a methodology which then led to a new series of evaluations, the last of which is in process.

2.1. The characteristics of the CNE evaluation approach

The CNE is an independent administrative body which reports directly to the President of the Republic and is thus independent from the Ministry of Higher Education. It is made up of seventeen members appointed by the President of the Republic for a four year term, not to be renewed. Eleven of them come from the academic and scientific communities upon recommendation by the presidents of the sections of the CNU (Conseil National des Universités, the National Council of Universities), as well as by members of the Conseil d'État, the State Council. It has a Secretary General. It works with the experts of its own choosing.

The evaluation, as practised by the CNE, is characterized by the following:

- Establishments are evaluated in fields corresponding to public service missions for higher education: initial and continuing education, research, development (integrating each institution regionally,

nationally and internationally); it also examines the “government” of the establishment, its policies and management;

- The evaluation is both qualitative and quantitative. Although it uses statistical data as the basis of its analyses and comparisons in a national context, the CNE considers that the evaluation of higher education is above all qualitative. It does not believe it possible to resort to a performance index and takes into account the context, specific situations, the evolution, and objectives specific to the institutions being evaluated.

- The evaluation reports provide an appreciation of the way establishments define their projects and fulfill their mission. They serve to inform the general public, users and partners of the establishment, including the State, and through the recommendations made, constitute a strategic instrument for conducting and improving institutional policy.

- The evaluation is a concerted effort. During the experimental phase which lasted two years (1995-1996), the CNE prepared a method in conjunction with the Bureau of the Directors' Conference and made an evaluation of three institutes.

As for universities, it was decided that the evaluation would include an internal phase with the establishment itself preparing an evaluation file, and an external phase with expert appraisal and a report to be made public. The usual approach applied to universities was set in motion.

For the first sample, the CNE selected three IUFM which presented a wide variety of situations (size of the establishment, number of affiliated universities, internal organization, palette of training programmes). These were the IUFM at Caen, at Lyon and at Grenoble.

The IUFM at Grenoble was one of the three pilot IUFM, created in 1990, a year before the other institutes. The IUFM at Caen volunteered to participate in the first evaluations. As for the IUFM at Lyon, it was quite naturally a part of the evaluation programme set up for the establishments of higher education in Lyon by the Committee in 1995 within the framework of its evaluation of the Lyon academy.

For all three, the internal evaluation began immediately after the development of the first institutional project. Indeed, at their conception it was decided that a harmonization would be progressively sought with the procedure of university planning. In the first phase, the Ministry requested that institutes prepare their planned projects according to a predetermined model before submitting them to a committee of experts. These institutional projects cover a period of four years (1995-1999) and include a training programme.

To the extent that developing the institutional plan had mobilized for a period of several months, not only the heads and authorities of the IUFM, but to a large extent the teaching staff, in order to redefine the training programme, it did not seem reasonable to immediately ask for the whole institution to commit itself to a new task. This is why the internal evaluation was conducted by a small number of persons: the director, the board of directors, a few administrative and teaching heads. The establishments had a tendency to confuse the development of the institutional plan with the evaluation; the internal evaluation files sometimes copied the project plan chapters without analysing what existed already.

The external evaluation followed the same procedure as for universities. The missions of appraisal were conducted during the spring of 1996. The commissions tried to compensate for the lack of references by visiting the IUFM in both the Lyon and Grenoble areas, and then basing their work on these experiences to appraise the IUFM in the Caen area. The two groups of experts were made up

of six or seven persons appointed by the president of the CNE according to the usual criteria: evaluation by peers, with a dual opening, internationally and professionally.

The Commission members and experts met with the main heads of establishments (the director and team, administrative heads, teaching heads), teaching staff and personnel, students and trainees. They also interviewed the principal partners of the IUFM in each region: the rector, the university presidents, members of the inspecting bodies, representatives of local communities.

The evaluation reports were prepared on the basis of the confidential reports from experts and the internal evaluation files. As is the Commission's habit, before making the final report which formulates conclusions and recommendations, each institute was invited to react to the planned report. Thus, up to the end, the evaluation procedure consists in numerous "comings and goings" between the CNE and the establishments. The evaluation reports were made public in February 1997, with the director's response as a postface.

2.2. The methodological framework of evaluation

Even if the Commission refused to draw any conclusions from the first three evaluations, as any generalizations seemed premature and contrary to the adopted approach, it did, however, evaluate the method at the end of that first experience, in conjunction with the Conference Bureau and the directors of the three IUFM evaluated. These evaluations brought to light two difficulties: that of the institutes in clearly detailing their goals and presenting their training project, and that of the experts in analyzing the project plan and judging its implementation in the various centers and branches, in partnerships with universities and in the field. It was clearly necessary to refocus the evaluation on the professional objectives of the IUFM and, therefore, to give more attention to the training plan and its implementation. This aspect had been partially obscured by the questions of governing and management.

Moreover, the Commission insisted on presenting its work to the various authorities of the Central Administration, ranging from the General Inspection of Schools to institutional advisors, to obtain their views and observations.

The methodological framework for future evaluations was thus laid down, always with a view to a concerted approach with the Directors' Conference. This was set forth in Bulletin n° 23 of the CNE, *References for Evaluating the IUFM*. This document begins by presenting the IUFM, their mission and the conditions for their functioning (sets of rules, national contexts and specific contexts, intrinsic partnerships with universities and in the field, plans for a training programme, the institutional planned project), as it would seem, even today, that the IUFM are institutions which are not well known within their own academic community. In addition, in order to clearly define ways for evaluation, it was necessary to recall to mind the limits surrounding the IUFM in defining their objectives: on the one hand, they must answer to the State who is the employer and fixes the policy for training teachers in France, and on the other hand, each institute is in a unique situation, derived from the academic and regional context, where it must manage its activities in partnership with related universities and organizations in the field (particularly inspection bodies and teaching establishments).

On this basis, the document on methodology presents the general headings for evaluation, both internal and external:

- I - Institute Activities
 - Initial training and continuing education.
 - Research.
 - Other activities.
- II - The Actors
 - Students and trainees.
 - Teachers, associate trainers and supervisors.
 - Administrative and technical personnel.
- III - The Workings of the Institute
 - Internal organization.
 - Government.
 - Management.
 - Means for supervising the training.

A *Guide for Internal Evaluation* was put together from the first questionnaire and from these *References*. For all these programmes, the Committee is presently striving to provide support for the establishments as they set up a veritable internal evaluation system. Such an undertaking supposes that the institutions do not just provide information, but that they bring an appraisal of their work and activities, clearly setting apart their strengths, weaknesses and goals. It also supposes that the internal evaluation is not conducted just by the heads of the institutions, but that both teaching and non-teaching staffs participate widely, along with students and trainees.

2.3. Pursuing the programme of evaluation

Two new series of evaluations have been launched to be completed respectively in the spring and at the end of 1998. The first concerns five IUFM from the districts of Amiens, Dijon, Lille, Reims and Rouen, in connection with other programmes the Committee has (evaluation of the new universities of Lille in 1996; in the case of Amiens, Rouen and Reims, the second evaluation of the universities of the Greater Parisian area).

The second series also involves five IUFM, from the districts of Paris, Creteil, Versailles, Orleans-Tours and Besancon, along with the ENFA of Toulouse (Ecole Nationale de Formation Agricole) whose central mission is the professional training of all teachers in the public technical agricultural sector. For this school, the evaluation will be conducted in connection with the Department of Teaching and Research of the Ministry of Agriculture.

In pursuing the evaluations of the IUFM, the Committee will take into account two factors: its programme for returning to the universities and the calendar for the IUFM's contract, without seeking to copy one calendar from another.

At the European level, other work is in progress. The CNE has been participating since 1991 in a European pilot project for evaluating the quality of higher education. The method is based on the principles common to four systems of evaluation in use in Europe when the project began (Denmark, France, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom):

- autonomy and independence in evaluation methods and procedures, avoiding influence from political sources as well as from establishments of higher education;
- internal evaluations;
- external evaluations by peers (groups of experts) and visits to the site;
- public reports.

But specific aspects of the French method also appear, especially the importance attributed to research and institutional analysis.

2.4. Possible impact of the evaluation on training and education

The evaluation process set up by the CNE meets some of the initiatives of the „rectorats“, the educational regional authorities, in evaluating schools in France. They might generate reflection on the nature and role of evaluation in the field of education and training, along with strategies encouraging awareness among the actors in the educational system at all levels, teachers, heads, researchers, users and partners, around a conception of the qualitative side of evaluation which has been developed in all the French initiatives and reflects the international trends in thinking.

The present tendency in the administration is to incite Teacher Education Colleges, Departments, Faculties, to improve their collaboration with schools. In the United States, as in the United Kingdom, funding is granted for this type of action. The generalization of the system of IUFM in France after 1991 has been accompanied with the development of research policies encouraging the creation of teams and projects between researchers and teachers in order to better consider the problems of teachers in the practice of their profession (Demailly & Zay, 1993, 1994, 1997).

Numerous researchers, especially in the United States, have turned to setting up “schools for professional development” (Holmes Group, 1990) or “school-university partnerships” (Sirotnik & Goodlad, eds., 1988; Goodlad, 1994; Osguthorpe & al., 1995; Zay, 1995). The titles for the three meetings of the American Educational Research Association prior to 1998 have been focused on these questions (Zay, 1996, 1997). Researchers in Quebec have also come together to treat these issues on the occasion of the reform of teacher training (AQUFOM, 1995). All of them have found a solid theoretical basis in the concept of “reflective practice” by Schön (1983, 1987, 1991; Zay, 1998 and in print).

These tendencies elaborate analyses and evaluations of actions which are based on a participation of all the parties concerned. These concepts also underlie some of the assessments of academic and training institutions launched by regional authorities in France, for example the rectorat of Bordeaux. Their goal is to turn the evaluation process, often perceived by the actors as disparagement for their results, into a restitution of value, a “plus-value” (an increase in value, in profit) and a “plus-valeur” (an increase in worth, quality, merit), leading to a renewal in the process of communication among social categories and a more strict mastery of collective actions (Lecoite, 1997; Lecoite & Rebinguet, 1990, 1994; Lacrosaz, Lecoite & Rebinguet, 1996 a).

The CNE's insistence on a qualitative evaluation based on local realities and on the aims of those who make the system operate, on an approach through participation leading to the actors themselves taking on the process of evaluation along with their social partners and users, could set in motion a dynamic change running through the whole educational system, from the governing bodies in higher education to those bodies which supervise the future citizens who will build the society of tomorrow. The problematic tying together of theory and practice, of linking the process of educating trainers with that of educating youth, would begin with the prospective aims of a permanent evaluation, and not stem from a control after the fact of results which were not thought out from the beginning and, being unexpected, seem to be "a perverse effect".

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Notes

1 - As indicated in the previous report for the SIGMA project, their number was 255 in 1993. Thus, during the last five years numbers have risen even more steeply than before.

Recent Trends in Teacher Education in Germany

We are faced with an interesting phenomenon in Germany: Seen from the inside, i.e. with regard to internal organisation, structures and curricula, teacher education has not been a very dynamic sector for decades. In the post-war period the major event was the almost complete universitisation of teacher education through the integration of the *Pädagogische Hochschulen* (Teacher Education Colleges) into universities in the late 1960s/early 1970s - and even this integration was described by some researchers as having taken place only on paper. However, on the side of social functions, social uses, orientations and effects of teacher education there have been massive upheavals within the relatively short time of three decades.

1. Major phases of change in teacher education since the mid-sixties

Changes were never isolated movements limited to teacher education alone but were always linked to specific changes in the overall functioning of the higher education system, and through processes in higher education to long-term developments in German society, in particular the labour market. In the long run the development of the labour market has been deeply influenced by the long-term decline of growth rates of production and by recurring crises, tending to take on a more and more dramatic character.

Summarising briefly the changes in teacher education in the post-war period, the following phases might be distinguished:

- Before the mid-sixties teacher education was nothing but a minor, rather insignificant subject area forming an appendix to the then still existing Philosophical Faculties (for teachers of the *Gymnasium*) or to the Faculties of Economics and Social Sciences (for teachers in Vocational Education and Training) within the context of university education; large parts of teacher education (teachers for the *Grundschule*, *Hauptschule*, *Realschule*) were still assigned to institutions outside universities, without any real academic status, although formally being located at higher education level. Even within this separate institutional set-up the ideology of preparing future teachers for professional tasks was generally followed, although with different emphases on subject matter and pedagogical aspects respectively. Higher education was based on an elitist model of rigorous selection which, however, basically took place not at the point of entry to higher education but at the level of (lower) secondary education. At this time roughly 5 to 10% of an age group participated in higher education, indicating a slow but steady growth after participation rates had remained at a level of 2 to 4 percent for something like 150 years. Correspondingly, staff members, particularly at universities, very much tended to adhere to an elitist self-concept and similarly elitist modes of education. Practically everyone surviving this kind of education could expect to be offered a teaching post in schools, after having passed through a second phase of training (largely school-

based) and having successfully participated in examinations for the second phase. This situation in teacher education reflected a general state of full employment in the sphere of production and circulation and public services.

- Then, from the mid-sixties onwards, teacher education became the central factor in the expansion of higher education, while simultaneously all teacher education programmes for all types of schools and all levels of teaching (with the exception of pre-school education and a few remaining *Pädagogische Hochschulen*) were transferred to university. It is important to note the particular form in which this was actually done - in fact it has few if any parallels in Europe. Instead of choosing the relatively easy way of establishing Schools of Education, Faculties of Education, University Institutes, Specialisation Schools, Postgraduate Certificate Courses, etc., teacher education was so to say dispersed into the major faculties and departments. It is not difficult to understand that this radically transformed the situation inside university faculties, particularly inside the large Philosophical Faculties representing the classical core of German universities and their peculiar ideology of education. This was the institutional setup in which university studies were gradually transformed into a mass phenomenon, with corresponding turmoil and upheaval inside universities. It is not exaggerated to say that, jointly with upper secondary education, higher education became one of the most important reserve mechanisms of the labour market, in the face of growing unemployment in successive crises and downturns from 1965 to 1967, from 1970 to 1971 and especially in the first very serious crisis of 1974 to 1975.
- Teacher education (and higher education in general, as teacher education had by now become the most important field of studies in quantitative terms) reached a critical point in the mid-seventies, with student numbers having exploded but staff numbers and general facilities not having grown likewise and with departments and subject areas still struggling with the results and problems of a sudden influx of large numbers of teacher students which sometimes represented a vast majority of all students in particular areas like e.g. German Studies and other parts of Language Studies. It was evident that in the face of increasing demands being put on the budget against the background of a growing crisis of production and a growing crisis of the labour market no additional funding would be forthcoming in order to lessen the burden of universities. At political level it was argued that the creation of additional facilities for higher education would not even be reasonable, as it could be expected that resulting from the decline of birth rates student numbers would rapidly begin to fall after 1983 to 1985 - at least this was the prevalent notion based more on hopes than on serious analysis. Thus, an agreement was concluded in 1977 between Ministers of Education and the Conference of West German University Rectors concerning an “overload” to be carried by higher education institutions for the duration of ten years. Within these ten years universities continued to take on more and more students, and participation rates had reached the level of 15 percent in 1977 and climbed to 19.1 percent in 1987. Later official calculations for the period ranging from 1960 to 1985 had the astonishing result that the demand for jobs was permanently reduced by 2.5 million full time units through the expansion of higher education in this period. Such an expansion was in fact needed as labour market problems continued to increase in a minor crisis of 1977 and a very serious crisis from 1979 to 1982. However, teacher education gradually lost its leading position in the expansion movement, as now the intake of newly qualified teachers by the state was reduced step by step so that by the mid-eighties only approximately 10 percent of newly qualified teachers could expect to find employment as a teacher. Student flows were consequently redirected to other areas of study, in particular economics and law, only to create new problems there within relatively short time.
- It did not really come as a surprise, at least not to sober minds, that all predictions of the development of student numbers based on birth rates proved to be completely erroneous in the

mid-eighties and after. Instead of falling numbers of students, universities witnessed another rapid rise of participation rates from the mid-eighties onwards, although there was only another minor crisis of production in 1987. Together with a growing tendency for students to prolong their studies much beyond the standards set by examination regulations this led to another massive increase of overall student numbers and to a rise of the overall participation rate to a level of 25.9 percent in 1992. Quite evidently the regional and federal state authorities pretended not to be aware of all this, and there was not the slightest move to rediscuss the “overload” from their side. In fact what was once the “overload” (university rectors had agreed to an incredible overload of 100 percent!) had somehow become the normal load. By now universities had moved very far from the times of being elitist institutions. Teacher education itself had moved even further from the times where it could be blindly assumed that it served for educating prospective teachers for professional activities, as the number of unemployed teachers continued to grow and employment prospects continued to be bleak. In the end this fact contributed greatly to reducing the number of applicants for teacher education programmes to roughly one third of what it was in the 1970s.

- Up to the beginning of the 1990s it was still possible - in spite of many legitimate doubts concerning the achievement of universities at the level of professionalisation, not only in teacher education but in other major areas of academic study as well - to point to the very substantial achievements of higher education in relieving the labour market from additional demand, perhaps also in supplying a majority of students with appropriate affirmative, conformist ideologies and generally in coping with vastly increased student numbers without receiving anything like adequate funding for this task. However, the extremely deep crisis and recession of 1990 to 1993, followed by another deep crisis and decline from 1995 to 1997, represents the final breakthrough of a new logic of development, which had been slow in coming and the advent of which was actually hastened by unification and the many unsolved problems which German society inherited from it or which have newly arisen as a result of unification. The crisis of production has led to unification being used as a pretext for one of the biggest, if not the biggest, operation of “blood transfusion” from the state budget and a mass of other sources (mainly linked to manoeuvres of “privatisation” in East Germany) to the leading sectors of capital. In fact this operation has ended up in labour market problems increasing drastically in both parts of Germany, and simultaneously budget problems have grown to enormous dimensions. As a result, freezing levels of funding for higher education, if not cuts in spending for the education sector as a whole, have become a necessity. Irrespective of the negative effects this is bound to have, the function of higher education as a reserve mechanism of the labour market is increasingly coming under attack. As I see it, this new outlook of governmental policy, this new logic of development at the level of higher education is legitimated in terms of an ongoing public debate about “quality and quality improvement”, about “professionalism and professionalisation”, about “accountability” and “achievement”, about “evaluation and assessment”, etc. It goes hand in hand with a complete overhaul of study organisation, finally bringing it closer to the most inefficient models in Europe in terms of successful ideological integration.

2. Evaluation of teacher education - some trends in recent years

2.1 The noble (?) historical tradition: Informal mechanisms of evaluation

Evaluation is not really a new phenomenon in teacher education, nor is it in the area of higher education in general. It is by no means superfluous to mention that all higher education institutions, all university faculties and departments always had (sometimes quite elaborate) informal mechanisms of internal assessment. Depending on the degree of these informal mechanisms being operative,

and on the way they were handled, faculties and departments were in a position to develop not only internal standards of quality but also more or less informal procedures of putting group pressure on staff members who were believed not to properly fulfil their duties. Certainly it could not be excluded that under local circumstances standards of research and teaching might be quite idiosyncratic or even absurd. Certainly there was no guarantee that standards resulted from a democratic process of debate and decisions among colleagues, and they might well be based on the autocratic power of individuals or “leading circles” within the larger framework of a faculty or department. However, there could be no doubt about the relevance of these mechanisms within small group situations of university institutions and their (varying) effects on the quality of research and teaching.

It is no less superfluous to point to the traditional role of students in assessing teaching of staff members. For outside observers not being familiar with the classical study organisation in Germany it might not be easy to understand how much the freedom of students to choose among alternatives influences course offer and actual daily course delivery in teacher education and in a few other higher education programmes. The share of compulsory courses is extremely low for teacher students at the level of university studies as the first phase of preparation (this is different in the second phase of school-based training in the *Ausbildungs- und Studienseminare*). Beyond the few compulsory elements students are completely free to choose from the existing offer - although there is now an increasing tendency to destroy this freedom through reforms of the study organisation. Students are completely free to choose specific members of staff in the case of parallel course offers. Students are not obliged to attend a course for the duration of a full semester if they do not like the course or the teacher or both. They do take the liberty to attend from time to time wherever that is possible, if they believe that this is a rational way of dealing with a particular course. There are non-compulsory courses with compulsory attendance for those who want a certificate at the end but again the number of certificates teacher students have to acquire is very low by international standards. Most importantly, students are free to extend their studies beyond the minima set by examination regulations, and actually very many students increasingly have chosen to extend studies for longer and longer periods. Thus, the average duration of teacher education studies lies somewhere between nine and ten years now, including the second phase of education and training which takes 18 to 24 months.

In short, an unpopular or an incompetent or a (sometimes/regularly) not very well prepared staff member would normally very soon be stranded with decreasing numbers of attending students. Quite often students, at least some of them, would not just stay away or change to other courses, if they dislike a particular staff member or the way he/she runs a course, but would not hesitate to complain about it. Except in very large departments and faculties such events would normally not remain hidden from other staff members but would form part of the normal gossip, and it could very well be assumed that the popularity, the efforts and the degree of success of a teacher educator would be quite known to the rest of the department, not to speak of the entire student population which has its own functioning mechanisms of spreading news and rumours. It is on this basis that group pressure again comes into play.

2.2 Formal mechanisms of evaluation - the old administrative system

Turning to formal mechanisms of evaluation, it has to be emphasised once again that neither the assessment of staff members nor the assessment of students are completely new phenomena in teacher education. For a very long time there have been certain standard procedures for evaluating teacher education programmes and courses as well as entire teacher education institutions, and there were also standard procedures of evaluating the overall activities of higher education institutions.

Concerning staff members, specific legislation for public sector employees (except if they are professors) stipulates that their achievements have to be assessed and appraised regularly which so far meant - every five years at the level of higher education. A professor would be charged by the dean of the faculty to write a detailed report about the research and teaching activities of a staff member over the five year period in question, and a negative report would normally not just be taken to the files for a particular person. On the other hand there were no clear rules in the past concerning specific consequences of a positive or a negative report, and thus it could be concluded that this kind of reporting actually formed an integral part of the more informal mechanisms of evaluation prevailing in faculties and departments, in individual cases being translated into specific forms of group pressure wherever deemed necessary.

Assessments of academic achievement and of other types of activities are also made (and have been made for a long time) whenever the promotion of a staff member is being discussed. In former times, up to the end of the 1970s or so, promotion would be more or less a formality for all except to the level of professorship, with faculty being entitled to promotion and higher pay at regular intervals, and thus related assessments were not really taken very serious. However, right now promotion has become the exception in teacher education and there would be rather stiff competition inside a faculty or department if any better post becomes available. Similarly, if new staff is to be hired - which has also become the exception in teacher education - academic merits of applicants would be carefully assessed by a selection committee and a limited number of applicants would then be invited for an interview with the committee. In more recent times there has been some criticism that traditionally selection procedures were focused too narrowly on academic reputation and research activities of applicants but not on teaching competence. Hence there is now a tendency to widen the scope of assessment and even offer regular courses in order to provide younger researchers with more knowledge and competence at the level of course delivery.

Concerning students, the major occasion for assessment of their general academic knowledge and their general level of reflection (not of teaching competence!) in the past were of course final examinations at the end of university studies. At least in the area of educational studies the final examinations had an overriding importance as students were not required to take any other major examination before that. In the subject areas a slightly different situation prevailed, with intermediate examinations after two to three years of study and regular testing at the end of a semester playing a much greater role. Apart from that students could be assessed for written or oral contributions to seminars and other types of university courses but very often certificates would be handed out to students without any particular comment on the nature and level of the achievement. There is no particular catalogue of qualifications which prospective teachers have to acquire during their university studies in order to be admitted to the second phase of training.

Formal mechanisms for the assessment of students were always more elaborate and more intense in the second phase of training. Fundamentally, students are regularly assessed for their activities at the level of teaching practice but also for their contributions in seminars with a theoretical orientation. Examination regulations contain a short and not very much differentiated catalogue of competencies which educators are expected to use in assessing the qualifications of prospective teachers for the teaching job. At this level the emphasis would indeed be on teaching competence, not on academic knowledge. However, the procedure of measuring success or failure of students is completely unclear, and this is left more or less to the individual judgement of teacher educators and mentors at school level.

Concerning teacher education institutions and teacher education programmes, there are mechanisms of evaluation which have been operational for a very long time as well. In the past they have been linked to budget planning vis-à-vis the university administration and indirectly the regional Ministry

of Education as well as the obligatory annual reporting about activities within the context of the usual public administration hierarchies of which teacher education institutions form part. If a department or a faculty had a specific problem or specific needs, then this had to be explained in detail to the Ministry through the university administration, and the Ministry would then decide whether permission would be granted to introduce new measures, or whether additional funding would be forthcoming or not. In taking decisions the Ministry would be in a position to draw at least limited comparisons with other similar institutions under its authority and thus judge on the well-foundedness of claims being made.

2.3 Formal mechanisms of evaluation - a new policy model

For many decades these formal mechanisms of evaluation, completed and supported by traditional informal mechanisms, have worked in more or less satisfactory ways and there have been few complaints about it from any side. It was governments which increasingly demanded in recent years that the old system be replaced by a new one, also introducing a number of important new elements. The new elements include above all

- a much wider range of factors to be considered in evaluation;
- a much more systematic and coherent framework for evaluation;
- a greater density of evaluation activities;
- a new combination of external and internal evaluation; and, still looming on the horizon but most certainly to be introduced in the near future,
- new links between evaluation, accreditation and funding.

Such initiatives are not standing in isolation but form part of a much wider context of higher education reform shifting more and more problems to institutions but reserving the right of decision-making and control in all fundamental aspects for government. The key words in higher education reform are “autonomy”, “global budgets” (lump sums) and “professionalisation” as well as “individual profiles” and “competition” between institutions, and study reforms on the basis of “modules” and “credit points”, allegedly contributing to the “internationalisation” of institutions, or being demanded by it. Although some elements of the old administrative system of evaluation and reporting are retained in this context, reform initiatives clearly reflect the transition to a new policy model intending to reverse developments in higher education in the last decades or, if this proves to be impossible, to drastically reduce costs.

Taking the example of the *Land* Niedersachsen (Lower Saxony) in which the university I am working at is located, the new mechanism of evaluation is not based on a combination of inspection, assessment and corresponding levels of funding, as in other European countries, but on systematic and comprehensive self-evaluation by higher education institutions as well as close monitoring by the Ministry and a new evaluation agency respectively. The Central Evaluation Agency of Higher Education Institutions in Lower Saxony was founded in 1995. It forms part of the philosophy of self-evaluation, as this is not an appendix to the Ministry of Education or any other governmental institution but an independent body being created by higher education institutions themselves in close cooperation with the Ministry. The scientific coordination of activities of the Central Agency is a matter of higher education institutions. The work of the Central Agency is directed by a Steering Committee having five members, among them only one representative of the Ministry, the rest being representatives of higher education institutions. Actually the Central Agency does not undertake

evaluations itself but only organises and coordinates them, and it is responsible for summary reports on the evaluation of specific institutions.

In October 1995 the Central Agency presented a draft version of a „Leitfaden für die Selbstevaluation von Lehre und Studium an den niedersächsischen Hochschulen“ (Guidelines for the self-evaluation of higher education institutions in the area of teaching and studies) which has been widely discussed and which is now used as a basis for evaluation procedures. The guidelines propose a combination of internal and external evaluation (peer group review). Under the heading of internal evaluation two different processes have to be considered. a) Faculties and departments are now obliged to deliver each year what is called a „Lehrbericht“ (report on the situation in the area of teaching), b) Faculties and departments will have to provide a „Bericht zur Selbstevaluation“ (report on self-evaluation) delivered in the context of regular evaluation procedures where “regular” could mean at five-year intervals.

Annex 2 of the guidelines lists in great detail on a total of 14 pages the questions and items to be considered in the self-evaluation report, plus a list of 7 pages of basic data to be provided by the reporting institution. The areas which reporting has to refer to include

- the framework conditions for teaching;
- the course offer including aims and objectives of studies, study programmes, plans for course offer and examinations;
- the management and organisation of teaching including employment of teaching personnel, student counselling, measures for implementing study reforms;
- the teaching and learning process from the perspective of all participants;
- careers of students at university including career options, student choices, concrete behaviour of students in using available opportunities;
- the formation and recruitment of new qualified staff;
- the promotion of women in the institution;
- the labour market situation for university graduates and initial situation of new entrants to professional jobs.

Under the heading of external evaluation, it should be emphasised once again that this refers to peer-group evaluation only. Peers are nominated after names have been discussed with the institution and the subject area/the study programme to be evaluated. Evaluation never refers to a specific subject at a specific institution but always to a specific subject at all higher education institutions in Lower Saxony. Dates for a visit of a peer group evaluation committee are communicated in time to the respective representatives of a higher education institution and the departments/subject areas concerned. External evaluation will result in recommendations for the improvement of the quality of teaching which will be addressed to the responsible departments or faculties. Institutions have the right to respond to the recommendations and make suggestions for the implementation of proposals. Following this general model, teacher education programmes were evaluated two years ago.

If anyone wished to conclude that this new mechanism of evaluation of higher education institutions - including teacher education - looks like a relatively positive, acceptable and painless procedure being under the full control of academic institutions, then this is of course completely wrong for

several reasons. First of all, higher education institutions are doing exactly what governments expect them to do - they provide governments with an endless mass of data and information which governments need in order to improve monitoring and control of higher education. Secondly, against the background of historical developments described in the introduction the collection of information in the context of new evaluation procedures only makes sense in one respect - if funding is made dependent on the "quality" of institutions, as "proved" by the "hard facts" of evaluation data and reports. Wherever governments still proclaim they do not intend to do this, it is hardly advisable to believe every word they say. In fact teacher education could very well be regarded as an exemplary case of how even before the introduction of new formal mechanisms of evaluation the funding of study programmes could be slashed without any consultation, if governments see a necessity for doing so. I would go as far as saying that the fate of teacher education represents the very model for the development of higher education institutions in the near future. From being relatively efficient instruments of labour market policy they will be transformed into objects of nothing but austerity policy. Thirdly, the slashing of funds for higher education will become a very simple matter in the future, as decisions have already been taken and legislation has already been passed for increasing what some euphemistically call the "autonomy" of higher education institutions. In a few years, the regional government of Lower Saxony will no longer provide funds according to the specific needs as expressed in budget proposals and applications of higher education institutions but will start operating on the basis of global budget, i.e. lump sums. Such lump sums have three basic advantages for governments: They could be cut at will. The internal distribution within specific institutions would be a matter of university or department administrations, and if there are any problems this would at best create internal antagonisms (in this context the position of university presidents and deans has been greatly strengthened through recent legislation!). Governments could claim that they are completely innocent, if specific subject areas or study programmes are run down through decreasing funding.

3. Conclusion

The meaning and effects of governmental policy appear to be changing dramatically, or at least elements which so far only played a very subordinate role are now massively coming to the forefront. It is extremely difficult not to interpret governmental policy in the sense of a gradual destruction of present labour market functions of higher education institutions. However, these functions represented a major element of (relative, though decreasing) stability in the overall context of the development of German society, counterbalancing effects which were produced by a relatively high level of productivity and relatively high rates of productivity growth. Instead of traditional efforts of reproducing itself the state appears to be moving more and more towards negating itself, towards destroying some of its major supports. It could be assumed that there are not too many alternatives for governments: The system of production and circulation is spiralling downwards in a long-term perspective, the labour market situation is deteriorating almost continuously in spite of massive countermeasures and demands from the side of big business to increase support mainly through direct transfer of funds are stepped up more and more. There is no end in sight for this development - and it seems relatively easy to draw the corresponding conclusions for the future of teacher education.

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Evaluation of Teacher Education in Greece - a political demand of our time

1. Introductory notes

It is a strong internationally shared belief that educational evaluation, whatever its forms and whatever its pedagogic ideology, is a useful instrument for monitoring education systems and for orienting educational decision or policy making. It concerns the assessment of individual achievements of students as well as the assessment of the quality of educational processes or the function of particular school institutions. Educational evaluation facilitates by its outcomes a multiplicity of purposes: the design and implementation of educational policies, the improvement of educational practices, the raising of students' achievements and the motivation of the teaching staff. School self-evaluation, for example, can become a dynamic instrument to enhance, under certain circumstances, knowledge and co-operation among the actors of the school. Students and teachers are thus motivated in an effort to improve educational practices and promote school development.

Evaluation is considered to be a weak point in the Greek education system. Political criteria - national or local - have always played an important role in educational policy-making and management at all levels. Appointments and promotion were as much based on political criteria as on merit. On the other hand, an inveterate concern for justice and equality has led to a certain automatism in matters of staffing and promotion.

The evaluation strategy developed within a country depends upon the social, cultural and educational context of it. It is also related to the degree of educational variety of a system and thus to the degree of decentralisation and autonomy that characterises it. Teacher education in Greece is not independent of the broader national, social, political and ideological context in which it functions. Despite the efforts which have been made in the past, there are no adequate mechanisms for the evaluation of the educational process as a whole. Teaching competence has been acquired mainly on the job, while the evaluation of teacher education is still a political demand.

The following points concerning the Greek education system should be taken into consideration:

Education is constitutionally a basic mission of the state, provided free at all levels of the system. It serves a highly homogenous society, sustained by its deep-rooted ancient Greek and Byzantine tradition. This education operates within a context of great geographical contrasts and variety with corresponding differences in the distribution of population between urban and rural areas. Since the country's emergence as an independent state, Greece has been involved in more than four wars, a three-year foreign occupation, two long-lasting dictatorships, a devastating civil war, and has accepted large inflows of refugees and immigrants. Such a history, for a small agricultural country as ours, has weighed heavily on national development affecting considerably the education system.

In terms of organisation and operation, the education system of Greece has been for many years centralised and bureaucratic, not easily amenable to change and innovation. Its centralised administration structure has facilitated the rapid and uniform expansion of educational provision. It has also imposed a rather latent uniformity concerning initial and in-service education. This system, being weak in satisfying needs emanating from the industrial and technology development, has to a great extent been oriented to the offer of general education with emphasis mainly on classical studies.

The development of the Greek education system, which reflects the socio-economic development of the country, has unavoidably influenced the type and content of teachers' education. The evaluation of teacher education, being not systematically structured yet, is only achieved through informal mechanisms.

In this paper we are trying to present the development of teacher education highlighting the innovative steps which have been made to improve its quality. We attempt to describe briefly some main issues and problems of teacher education:

- before the 1990s (pre-service teacher education, induction procedure, in-service teacher education),
- in the 1990s (emphasising the recent reform).

2. Greek teacher education before the 1990s. Historical background

2.1 Pre-service teacher education

Most elementary school teachers already in post have been trained at the Pedagogical Academies, public educational institutions which offered for half a century (1933-1983) non-university theoretical and practical education. The studies in the Pedagogical Academies were of short duration and were characterised by methodological weaknesses and inflexibility. For example, there was no distinction between the programme of nursery and elementary teachers, while sociological or psychological subjects were not taught. The inadequacies of the programme of the Pedagogical Academies (unaltered for fifty years) led to the setting up of separate autonomous schools of education located in the Universities. In accordance with Law 1268 of 1982, the primary teacher programmes were brought into the university sector.

Pre-service education for secondary school teachers has been provided by the appropriate University Departments according to specialisation: in classical studies, physics, mathematics or theology. All degrees, however, are equivalent for purposes of secondary teacher appointments.

Pre-service education has been to a great extent determined by the selection procedures of candidates for the University Departments. Due to a numerus clausus policy, for a great number of educators the teaching profession was not the result of their personal choice, but the consequence of their participation in highly competitive state exams (Vamvoukas, 1982).

The methodological weaknesses and the theoretical orientation of the studies were closely associated to the aspect supporting the artistic nature of teaching: teachers are born, not made. In addition, the absence of organised post-graduate studies till 1992 has not helped teachers broaden their horizons.

2.2 Job entry and induction

The policy of teacher recruitment represents a crucial element in the Greek education system. All nursery, primary and secondary school teachers are being recruited and placed on tenure positions according to lists (directory of employment) kept by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs on a yearly basis (*epetirida*) according to priority order by the date of submission of candidacy-applications. The above lists are classified to categories: secondary education teachers, for example, are found in special lists according to the subject of their specialisation. After the acquisition of a University degree all graduates have the right to be appointed, which is automatic for those who have submitted the necessary supporting documents.

The long lapse of time between the date of graduation and the employment of teachers is one of the major problems Greek education is faced with. This time lag varies, ranging from about ten years for nursery and primary school teachers to fourteen-eighteen years for the various posts of secondary education, with the exception of teachers of specialised subjects who are employed almost immediately. The average age of recruitment is over thirty (Kallén, 1996).

It is evident that the negative repercussions of the above mentioned problem are significant for the quality of the education offered. Teachers who remain unemployed for long are distanced from the subject matter of their studies and lose their initial enthusiasm for working at schools. Some of them may have been working during their “waiting time” in a job allowing them to keep up with new developments in their discipline, for example by working for a private cramming course. Some others, however, work in other fields and are subject to a professional socialisation that is far from suitable for their future pedagogical tasks.

All things considered, the directory institution for employment prevents the staffing of education with the fittest candidate teachers and leads to the formation of an ageing corps of teachers, with obvious negative consequences on the function of education.

2.3 In-service teacher education

No teacher education programme can be considered adequate nowadays, if it is not followed by or supplemented with a continuing in-service education element.

The first forms of in-service teacher training in Greece maintained the conservative ideology and the academic character of the Faculty of Letters of Athens University. The education reform of 1976/77 created professional teacher training schools for elementary and secondary teachers, called “SELDE-SELME” which offered in-service training for one year. Their aim was to keep teachers in touch with the new developments of the educational science and school practice, promoting at the same time the administrative and supervisory mechanisms of education.

However, these training schools did not succeed in satisfying educational needs. Most of the teachers remained unfamiliar with the new scientific and pedagogical developments and were absent from any decision making and educational planning. Some of the most outstanding weaknesses of the system are related to the number of trainees involved, the selection procedures, the organisation and quality of the courses:

- Very few teachers were actually involved in these training schools related to the total number of applicants¹.

- Selection procedures were rather unfair. In the first years of operation of these training schools selection was by length of service, while later the lottery system was introduced. Some applicants might have been lucky first time in the lottery, while others might have applied unsuccessfully for several years.
- Graduates of the institutions did gain some career advantage, which was perceived to be an unfair way of promoting career development.
- Theoretical orientation, absence of permanent staff and shortage of necessary infrastructure affected the quality of teacher training. The organisation of the courses which required compulsory attendance and written examinations, the study programmes and the teaching methodology did not seriously differentiate these institutions from the previous ones.

The establishment of SELDE-SELME, which operated for fifteen years, underlines the significance of the state which imposes control, limitation and central administration. The failure of the system to satisfy the needs of teachers resulted in the participation of trainees who were completely indifferent, but chose the courses in order to be away for a year from school (see Papaguéli-Vouliouri, 1996).

An attempt to improve the above teacher training system led to the setting up of a network of regional centres for professional training. The Regional Training Centres (known as PEKs) are self-governed institutes having administrative and economic autonomy, responsible for all training activities with three departments each, under the same roof and administration: for nursery, primary and secondary school teachers. They are allowed to independently develop their study programme which is adjusted to individual teacher need appraisal. The programme of studies is a combination of theory (psycho-educational topics and methodology) and practice (attending school classes, evaluation of teaching). Their establishment was proposed in 1981, enacted in 1985 and implemented in 1992². Operating on a regional basis, they provide a variety of training to permanent and newly appointed teachers and organise a range of short term courses aiming at a continuous renewal and updating of professional training. Thus, newly appointed teachers have the opportunity to attend a compulsory short training course held at the beginning of the school year which aims to inform them about teaching methodology and school life. It is worth noting that the role of introductory training in Greece is particularly significant because new teachers are for a long time away from school reality until they get appointed to vacant state posts³. Attendance is compulsory for those who are going to be appointed to schools soon as well as for those who have been teachers from five to twenty-five years of service.

In general, university trained teachers receive inadequate pedagogical and didactical training during their four years of studies (in AEIs). Those from the Technological Education Institutes (TEIs) may attend after three years of basic studies according to their major an additional six-months on-the-job practical training. They also attend a one-year teacher training course before appointment.

The traditional evaluation system was strongly criticised since the mid '70s. Teacher assessment and control of professional progress were mainly based on the work of inspectors whose role was criticised for being reduced to administrative and disciplinary supervision. In the context of an overall democratisation of Greek society and education, the educational-pedagogical aspect of inspection was undermined and led to the replacement of inspectors by school advisors (1982). The new institution emphasised mainly guidance and support of teachers in their pedagogical and teaching functions, while the establishment of a new evaluation system became the object of public debate, without concrete conclusions, however. Some main points of dispute were: the way in which school advisors would participate in the evaluation process, the evaluation reports, whether teachers' evaluation would be individualised or not.

One of the positions that emerged in the debate of the '80s focused on the promotion of internal evaluation procedures, a concept which was proposed as an alternative to the traditional forms of evaluation. The main direction was towards not only evaluating the participants in the educational process, but also towards restructuring school life in a context of school autonomy and decentralisation. During this period, some measures favouring participation in local decision-making were developed at all levels of the education system. Yet, they failed to be associated with quality improvement and school development (Solomon, 1997).

3. Educational issues in the 1990s. Need for a reform

Despite the great demand for higher education studies, generally speaking, Greek universities fall short of what a people so committed to education has a right to expect (see e.g. Pesmazoglu 1994). Of course, there are differences in quality and performance among universities, as well as between faculties and departments. In practice, however, a major determinant of the university functions as well as the nature of the learning process is the long standing role of the state as the employer of the vast majority of graduates, in terms of organisation of studies and curriculum. University teacher education leads to the production of civil servant-teachers for the entire education system.

As far as university teacher education is concerned, the following points should be noted⁴ :

- students are trained rather than educated depending mainly on set text books and lecture notes written by their professors;
- libraries are inadequate and often poorly stocked;
- assessments tend to be related to what can be found or memorised by set text books, without considering creative thought or initiative;
- grading has no function in monitoring the student performance or in giving feed-back to students' assessment;
- students are allowed to continue with free tuition after failing assessments⁵.

The 1990s have brought to the fore-front issues and problems which constitute a demanding agenda for policy-makers and are either directly or indirectly associated to the efficiency of the teaching staff. There is a great consensus in defining these educational problems:

- under-resourced schools within a general framework of financial constraints in the public sector;
- an over-burdened and often an out-dated curriculum which places emphasis on memorisation rather than critical thinking;
- a general lyceum which does not function as an independent and self-contained school but has been transformed into a preparatory level for access to higher education;
- weaknesses of the university sector;
- an increasing number of students who delay their graduation;
- a high level of unemployment among graduates;

- a teaching staff which is not sufficiently trained and whose promotion is automatic, depending mainly on seniority.

4. Recent Developments and Future Prospects

The Greek education system is currently undergoing a series of changes with the central aim of modernisation and quality improvement⁶. Evaluation lies at the heart of this effort. Recent developments concern:

- wider differentiation in educational paths;
- partial decentralisation in matters of curriculum, finance and administration;
- application of quality development and school evaluation practices.

These developments are specifically reflected in the possibility of students to select among optional subjects, in the greater flexibility in the curriculum which is currently under elaboration, in the decentralisation of budget management for the operation of schools as well as in the decentralisation of in-service training.

The inclusion of Greece in the Second Community Support Framework (Human Resources) and the involvement of the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs along with the Ministry for Employment in the “Education and Initial Vocational Training Programme” aim at financing the updating and introduction of innovations in Greek education and its administration: further developments of the new lyceum, the development of school and university libraries, education links with the labour market, modernisation of the services of the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs.

In this period characterised by the uncertainty of future events, in this period of global structural changes in the production and use of knowledge, the upgrading of the educational system is one of the major challenges our country is faced with. In order to tackle current problems, policy-makers have taken the following initiatives:

- the creation of an Integrated Diversified Lyceum (Eniaeo Lyceio) according to international and European standards. The National Lyceum Leaving Certificate replaces two existing examinations: the school-leaving examination and the one for the entrance into tertiary level institutions. The programme, offered to students of all types of Lycea, combines “common core” subjects with academic and/or vocational electives;
- the abolition of the existing examination system for access to higher education. Conditions are created to increase the number of students who enter higher education institutions and technological educational institutions by the year 2000, so that the places offered may exceed the number of Lyceum graduates desiring to continue their studies in tertiary education;
- the establishment of new flexible Optional Curricula in tertiary education and the Hellenic Open University (from the academic year 1997-98);
- the restructuring and upgrading of existing curricula in tertiary education;
- the extension of postgraduate studies by strengthening the role of research;

- the improvement of technical and vocational training through the establishment of a Professional Qualifications Accreditation Centre and the enhancement of post-secondary education;
- the setting up of a Centre for Educational Research whose president has been nominated and approved by the Parliament. The aim of it is to build up a strategic plan of educational research and take initiatives for its implementation, facilitating thus the evaluation of the school system;
- the gradual abolition of the directory of employment and the introduction of an employment system based on criteria of educational merit. This includes a “Certificate of Pedagogical and Teaching Efficiency”, which is proposed for secondary education teachers, since the degree acquired in pre-school and primary education covers this need⁷;
- the introduction of a contemporary system for the assessment of the educational work and the evaluation of the teachers in which the role of the Principal, Head of Division, Head of Office and School Advisor is upgraded. The evaluation procedure is strengthened with self-evaluation systems under the Operational Project of Education and Initial Vocational Training (called EPEAEK) and with the setting up of an Education Assessment Corps. The EPEAEK has already announced actions for the design of specifications concerning the subject of staff training and the assessment of educational work. It is also designed to support procedures for assessing the educational work of tertiary education institutions as well as that of initial vocational training bodies.

The Ministry of Education has recently formulated a new evaluation policy framework, prescribed in the Act on Upper Secondary Education (Act 2525/1997). The regulations on evaluation include:

- the reform of students’ assessment methods, placing emphasis on diagnostic and formative aspects of assessment and aiming at improved objectivity and reliability;
- the participation of school advisors and headmasters, as well as of regional administrative directors in the evaluating process;
- the preparation of an annual report of internal evaluation by each school;
- the establishment of the “Permanent Evaluators Group” (comprising 400 members), participating in school and teacher evaluation;
- the establishment of thirteen “Regional Support Centres for Educational Planning” aiming at providing assistance in educational planning and school evaluation.

Throughout the 1990s pressures for the development of teacher and school evaluation were intensified, while the dominant request focuses on improving school effectiveness. Consequently, actions and plans are directed to the development of various forms of school evaluation. The Pedagogical Institute, in order to be able to respond to current needs, is being reorganised with the establishment of a separate Department of Evaluation. Its pilot projects refer to:

- the design of evaluation indicators aiming at the overall diagnosis/quality improvement of the education system;
- the development of a network of educational information among schools regarding the school self-evaluation indicators and procedures;
- the preparation of strategic development plans for schools;

- the development of procedures for school self-evaluation.

In this respect, some selected schools of the country are defined as “Schools for the Implementation of Experimental Educational Programmes” (called SEPPE) providing a feedback for the reform effort. Their role is the planning, development and the fulfilment of innovative programmes. This institution is expected to upgrade educational work at schools and also motivate teachers to improve their methodology and competence, use innovations in teaching practice and evaluate their skills⁸.

5. Concluding remarks

Teacher education in Greece is traditionally characterised by a theoretical orientation of studies and methodological weaknesses preparing student teachers for a career in the public sector. All university graduates are appointed automatically according to a directory of employment and become permanent civil servants after a probational period of a two-year experience. In-service education is centralised and designated for a small number of participants at the beginning, it becomes decentralised later through the establishment of the Regional Training Centres. The role of “seniority” is significant in Greek teacher education, since it determines not only professional induction, but also promotion and progression in salaries.

The need to raise quality is evident. Teachers have to be recruited and promoted selectively, trained effectively and given all assistance through in-service training and counselling. The Greek system needs to be capable of producing high quality education, given the strong social and familial commitment to it.

According to the reform which recently took place, access to higher education has become more democratic. University upgrading has been promoted on multiple levels: with the introduction of new curricula, the restructuring of the existing ones, the improvement of infrastructure and the promotion of assessment procedures in terms of educational work. Regarding teacher induction, the abolishment of the directory of employment has led to the establishment of new procedures of selection based on merit. In addition, some positive steps have been taken by policy-makers to activate an evaluation system aiming at the improvement of school effectiveness.

Teacher education programmes in Greece have not been evaluated systematically yet. However, international competition as well as current technological development call for new changes and interventions. Teacher education is under increasing pressure to improve its performance, in order to adapt itself to the demand of the future.

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Notes

¹ The small number of educators involved - mainly those living in urban areas - is opposed to the democratic demand for recurrent training during the professional career of teachers. See Kassotakis, 1988.

² Presidential Decree 250/1992

³ Before the establishment of the PEKs there was no introductory training.

⁴ Some criticisms of academic quality and behaviour are mentioned in OECD (1997) "Reviews of National Policies for Education, Greece", p. 177.

⁵ The presence of non-active students is a way of "parking" the young who would otherwise be unemployed. Universities provide an identity for them.

⁶ Change is never easy to achieve systematically because of the great force of "inertia". The components of a change strategy include the creation of a psychological and cultural climate for it, identifying new aims and objectives, changing structures and procedures.

⁷ This Certificate is conferred to graduates desiring to be employed in secondary education upon successful attendance of a special course on theoretical education and practical training. Future teachers may attend this course either during their studies or after graduation. See Education 2000 (1997) For an Open Horizon Education, Athens.

⁸ According to an information by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs, Pedagogical Institute, Athens, Sept. 1997.

**Developments in Irish education since 1995
with particular reference to the evaluation
of Teacher Education**

Far reaching proposals for developments in Irish education many of which were heralded in „Charting Our Education Future“ (1995) and outlined in O’Brien’s (1995) study are currently being translated into practical measures within governmental policy initiatives and in new legislation. Most of these emerging policy initiatives are evolving from investigations of existing educational practices and provisions. Such investigations are usually undertaken by bodies of experts and representatives of relevant stakeholders. They are set up by Ministerial decree and the ensuing legislation derives to a considerable extent from the recommendations of the bodies in question.

To arrive at an understanding of teacher education in Ireland it is necessary to describe the society which the education system serves and to examine the context within which education, and more particularly teacher education, take place. The Republic of Ireland has a younger population than most other European states with half the population under twenty-five years of age (OECD, 1991). Because of poor employment prospects in Ireland during the 1980’s, emigration to the US, Britain, Australia and more recently to mainland Europe was a necessity for many Irish people. A growth in prosperity in more recent years (a phenomenon which has caused the Irish economy to be described as the Celtic Tiger) has meant that the rate of emigration decreased noticeably. In fact, in certain respects, this trend has reversed and numbers of people who had emigrated previously are now returning to Ireland to take up employment.

The Republic of Ireland, according to the OECD Report of 1991, is overwhelmingly a Roman Catholic country with 90% of the population belonging to the major religious denomination in the state. While Ireland is undergoing many cultural and social changes with the accompanying problems faced by most Western societies, the country has preserved many of the attributes of its distinctive national culture and identity such as the Irish language and a distinctive Celtic identity in literature and the arts. These aspects of Irish life are reflected in the Irish education system and are particularly noticeable in the culture of primary teaching. Nearly all state primary schools are denominational in their intake and management and their location and organisation is parish based. All primary teachers are expected to have achieved a high degree of proficiency in the Irish language which is taught to all children in primary schools.

1. Teacher Education in Ireland

The professional education of teachers takes place, for the most part, in the universities and in the colleges of education. These institutions are State funded through the Higher Education Agency

(HEA). The majority of primary teachers follow a three-year concurrent BEd programme in one of the colleges of education. A small number of first level teachers, including those taking part in Montessori training, receive their education in institutions accredited by the National Council for Education Awards (NCCA). The professional training of most second level teachers follows the consecutive model and a primary degree is a prerequisite to gain admission to the one-year post-graduate course (the Higher Diploma in Education or HDipEd) which takes place in one of the universities. A minority of second level teachers in such areas as physical education, home economics, music education and technology follow a concurrent model of teacher education.

1.1 The education of primary teachers

There are five colleges of education in Ireland each of which offers a BEd degree programme for prospective primary teachers. The professional training programme in these colleges, which usually extends for a three year period, follows the concurrent model of teacher education. Traditionally, all five of these colleges were monotechnic institutions, they were administered as private, denominationally controlled entities and their sole purpose was the education and professional training of primary teachers. Recently however, the role of the two major primary teacher training institutions in the State, St Patrick's College, Drumcondra, and Mary Immaculate College, Limerick, was expanded and these institutions now offer the Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree as well as the BEd programme.

The BEd degree as the qualification for primary teachers in Ireland was inaugurated in 1974 (up to then the course of study for primary teachers had extended for a two year period). At this time the larger teacher education institutions became recognised colleges of the National University of Ireland (NUI), however, more recently the association of these colleges with the NUI colleges was discontinued and St Patrick's College, Dublin, and Mary Immaculate College Limerick, became linked with Dublin City University and the University of Limerick. During the 1970's the smaller colleges in the State became associated with Trinity College, Dublin University, from which their degrees continue to be granted. The BEd degree which emanates from 1973 involves the concurrent study of education in its theoretical, curricular and practical aspects in combination with the study of one academic subject to degree level and includes several teaching practice placement sessions. While this type of programme is the major route into the primary teaching profession in the State, an alternative one year's professional training course for graduates has been put into operation at various times when a shortage of primary teachers has occurred. Prospective primary teachers gain entry to the colleges based on their achievement in the Leaving Certificate examination and their performance at interview. In the past the entry requirements included an interview (to assess suitability for teaching), an oral Irish (Gaelic) examination and a test of musical ability were mandatory for students.

Any discussion of primary teacher education in Ireland must take account of two major cultural influences associated with primary teacher training institutions: the importance accorded to the Irish language and culture and the denominational nature and religious ethos of the colleges themselves. Traditionally, a high standard of achievement in the Irish language was demanded of students seeking to gain entry to teacher education. In former years this necessitated the achievement of honours Irish in the Leaving Certificate examination. In recent years students were required to attain at least a grade C in the higher level Irish course together with a high level of proficiency in oral Irish. The promotion of the Irish language and culture and the use of the Irish language as the spoken language within the institution was a particular feature of the educational experience of primary teachers. Students studying subjects other than Irish as the academic subjects for their BEd

degree were obliged to take supplementary courses each year in the Irish language. On graduating from these colleges students were expected to be sufficiently proficient in the language to teach all of the subjects on the primary school curriculum through the medium of the Irish language.

The religious ethos of the college stemmed from an era when most, if not all, members of the teaching staff in the major institution were members of a religious order (Killeavy, 1998). While this trend had diminished considerably since the 1960's, the religious ethos of the college is still an important factor of college life and the study of Religious Education in which all students are expected to attend a special diploma course is a routine requirement for a teaching position in the vast majority of primary schools, though such a course of study is not required by the universities or the State Department of Education.

1.2 Second level education in Ireland

Second level or post-primary school in Ireland extends over a five or six year cycle and includes five types of school: secondary, vocational, comprehensive, community school and community college (Killeavy, 1998). Secondary schools which comprise about two thirds of all schools at second level are privately owned and managed, usually by religious orders (OECD, 1991). These schools, most of which provide free education, are in receipt of state funding and they belong to the classical grammar school tradition. Vocational schools were established originally to provide technical education but their role has been expanded to cover all areas of the second level curriculum. Comprehensive schools were set up to meet the needs of areas without second level education and they offer a broad curriculum including both academic and technical areas. Community schools which offer the same type of broad curriculum as comprehensive schools were designed to serve as cultural and educational centres in their neighbourhoods. Community colleges arose from the vocational tradition and are similar to community schools but the curriculum they offer is more extensive and they often cater for older students.

Teachers at second level in Ireland are subject specialists rather than class or form-based teachers as is the case at primary level. The majority of these teachers have a primary degree and their professional training most usually takes place in a one year post-graduate diploma course at university. Unlike schools at first level, not all schools at second level are denominationally based. The church's power to influence the curriculum at this level is not enshrined in any rule or regulation laid down by the state with the exception of the rule giving each denomination control of the teaching of its own religion in all schools. Drudy and Lynch (1993) suggest however, that the churches, particularly the Catholic Church because of their strong representation on policy making bodies, can have a considerable influence on curriculum development.

1.3 The third level education sector in Ireland

This sector comprises universities, colleges of education, institutes of technology, regional technical colleges and some non State-aided private third level colleges. The Commission on the Points System reports that recent developments in this system have been based on the differential (or binary) system. The A number of important developments, most notably the Universities Act 1996 and other recent legislation relating to third level educational institutions, have had significant impact on the role and function of universities and other tertiary institutions. The Universities Act, in stressing the social responsibility and accountability of the institutions, stipulates that each college should put in place a quality assurance (QA) initiative. The details and procedures to be followed

are decided by the governing authority of the individual institutions who are charged with the operation of the scheme in conjunction with the Higher Education Authority (HEA). During recent years considerable concern has been expressed by university teachers concerning the nature of the quality assurance to be adopted. Currently, procedures are being developed on the basis of the experience gained from a number of pilot QA schemes.

2. Current developments in teacher education

Perhaps the most significant development in teacher education in Ireland is the proposed review of the area which has recently been announced by the Minister for Education and Science (Government of Ireland, 1998). The terms of reference for the two review bodies for primary and for second level teacher education have been published but their deliberations have not yet begun.

2.1 The review of the BEd programme for primary teachers

The terms of reference for the review of the content and duration of the Bachelor of Education programme for primary teachers require the working group to review and make recommendations on the content (including teaching practice) of the course. The review group are directed to have regard to the need to achieve breadth and balance in the programme content and to take into consideration many of the new developments in education such as early childhood education, pupils with special needs, the problems associated with disadvantage, in-career development for teachers and new developments in communications and information technology. It is of particular interest that the group were asked to consider the relative contribution that might be made to teacher education by the concurrent and consecutive approaches to initial teacher training.

2.2 The review of second level teacher education

The terms of reference for the review of second level teacher education require the review body to examine and make recommendations on the content, organisation and structure and teaching practice element of these programmes. The review group are directed to achieve breadth and balance in their recommendations and to address current and future issues on pre-service education for second level teachers and the desirability of these teachers continuing to renew their skill throughout their careers.

The review group are directed to carry out a comparative analysis between the consecutive and concurrent models of pre-service teacher education and to take account of curricular changes and new programmes designed to respond to the different and varied needs of a diverse student cohort. The group are also asked to have regard to the particular requirements of children with special needs, the problems of disadvantaged pupils to take into account developments in communications and information technologies.

These factors which are highlighted in the terms of reference from the Minister for Education and Science are in fact the measures upon which existing practice in teacher education is to be judged and further they are indicative of areas of governmental concern in teacher preparation. The ministerial document is also explicit on matters relating to the content of teacher education programmes and while the new body is charged with a review of teacher education the document clearly advocates

what are considered to be essential elements of teacher education programmes. It is suggested that the following important features should underpin the professional preparation of teachers:

“- the maintenance of balance between the personal and professional development of students, as well as between the theoretical and practical aspects of their professional preparation;

- the development of a firm understanding of the foundation disciplines of modern educational theory and practice;

- the development of a good understanding of the educational needs of the Irish language schools in and outside of the Gaeltacht and of schools teaching through a language other than the mother tongue (eg French);

- the acquisition of the knowledge, attitudes and skills to enable student teachers to develop appropriate programmes and methodologies to respond to student needs;

- the development of a good understanding of adolescent development and behaviour and of issues in relation to gender equality, cultural and ethnic diversity;

- the development of the teaching and classroom management skills of student teachers;

- the use of experienced teachers to guide and assist student teachers and to facilitate their subsequent induction into teaching.”

2.3 In-service education for teachers

The necessity for expanded in-service training for teachers in Ireland is highlighted by the recent OECD report „Staying Ahead“ which suggests that ‘In-service training is no longer seen as a luxury in Irish education or regarded as simply an opportunity to pursue a hobby ... Instead it is seen as essential for professional and school development.’ The report goes on to comment that while the voluntary commitment of Irish teachers to in-service training and professional development is very high there is a need to build on that commitment and co-ordinate resources to further both individual and system needs. These needs are the result of the major initiatives being undertaken by the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA). These developments have included the identification of new subject areas and the development of associated curricula and assessment procedures.

Among the most important curriculum changes proposed in terms of the willingness of the state to assume responsibility for an area heretofore regarded as falling solely within the remit of Religious Instruction is the introduction of the subject areas, ‘Social Personal and Health Education’ (SPHE) and ‘Social Environmental and Scientific Education’ (SESE). The first component of SPHE entitled Relationships and Sexuality Education which was developed by the NCCA has been introduced into all primary and secondary schools. This programme deals with questions of morality which heretofore were regarded as falling solely within the jurisdiction of the religious authorities in the state.

The general thrust of the proposals of the NCCA is similar to the new proposals for primary education. This is evident in such proposed new subjects as ‘Civic Social and Political Education’ which are to a considerable extent ‘values driven’ and the new programmes in the sciences which are being designed with an increased emphasis on critical thinking and inquiry. One of the most fundamental changes considered by the NCCA is the introduction of a subject area entitled Religious Education.

Religious Instruction in Irish schools up to the present has been based upon the study of the teachings of a particular denomination as opposed to a comparative study of different religions. These new subject area of Religious Education would conform to the general syllabus structures and which would be examinable in public state examinations for students at second level. It would constitute an attempt to give students a critical appreciation of religious views and beliefs and an understanding of the role of religion in society. Unlike Religious Instruction the emphasis would be on theology rather than the study of doctrine or catechism. It should be noted that these discussions concerning the development of Religious Education as a new subject at second level are at an early stage and definite policy decisions have yet to be taken in this matter. Special legislation will be required to allow for the incorporation of Religious Education as an examinable subject into the time-table of second level schools in Ireland This is currently prohibited by legislation dating from 1878.

2.4 The proposed Teaching Council

During the past year the Steering Committee on a Teaching Council appointed by the Minister for Education and Science has deliberated on matters centring on the professional accreditation of teachers and the induction of beginning teachers into the profession. The Report of the committee was launched early in October 1998 and its recommendations have significant implications for the evaluation of teachers at first and second level and for teacher education particularly at in-service level. It is proposed that the Teaching Council will be an independent statutory body through which teachers can achieve a large degree of autonomy. This new body which will be concerned with teachers at both primary and second level and it will subsume the role of the Secondary Teachers' Registration Council. A major aspect of the role of the Teaching Council will be to protect standards of entry to the career, promote improved induction and probation procedures and to foster better practice in ongoing professional development (ASTIR, 1998, pp. 16-17). While the council will not be directly involved in the evaluation of teaching and teacher education, several of its proposed functions will have a bearing on the matter. This applies particularly to the role of the council in advising the Minister on the standards of attainment required for entry to the profession and the establishment of procedures and criteria for the probation and full professional recognition of beginning teachers. The establishment of the new council marks a significant development in the extent to which teachers will now become a self-regulating profession having a major input into aspects of the evaluation of their professional practice.

The developmental processes and initiatives in Irish education which are outlined are, for the most part, at an early stage. The Commission on the Points System is due to make its recommendations during the coming year, the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment and the Teaching Council are due to become a statutory bodies shortly, major reviews of teacher education at first level and at second level have been initiated and education legislation is anticipated. When these various commissions and review bodies finalise their investigations and put forward recommendations, it seems likely that major improvements and innovations will be set in train in Irish education.

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The Evaluation Dimension in Teacher Education - Report on recent trends in Italy

1. Introduction

1) From 1995 up to today it is possible to recognise a “ferment” of proposals and innovations that brightens up school debate.

The analysis of the Italian situation in the more general European context permits us to identify a first series of very important problems: the tendency in action to renew the whole education system, through a series of general reforms.

This is the overall picture:

- autonomy of institutions: the general principle was already enacted through law but regulations of implementation are still missing;
- evaluation system: the Ministry of Education entrusted an interdepartmental Coordination Committee which will avail itself of the support from C.E.D.E. (European Education Centre) at an operational level, with evaluation of the school system;
- reorganization of school cycles: though the general objective is that of extending compulsory education from 5 to 16 years, in harmony with European tendencies, at political level an agreement for extension by only one year has now been found, thus defining compulsory education as covering young people from 6 to 15 years old;
- new collective governing bodies of schools: some bills have been proposed which are still in the course of being examined and discussed at political level. The objective, wanted by several parts, is that of making the participation of social components in school life more concrete, also in view of the autonomy of single institutions;
- equality between public and private school: the debate in this field is very heated, also because the survival of Italian private schools, representing a small minority of students as compared with public schools, is linked to a positive solution of the problem.

2) The will of Ministry of Education consists in achieving an immediate impact on school reality - which is awaiting basic reforms for thirty years now - through a series of major innovations:

- modification of school leaving examination: a long “experimental” period finishes with the introduction of an examination which assures a better evaluation of the student and of all educational activity at upper secondary school level;

- modification of History programs: having recognized the wider importance of topicality for a better knowledge of the world which surrounds the student, the last year History program of secondary school is, from this school year, exclusively dedicated to the study of the 20th century, thus reducing strongly the foregoing programmes;
- introduction of a system of didactic “credit” and “debt” acquisition, which have to guarantee a greater student autonomy and, at the same time, to avoid failures and lessons to make up for deficits which up to now gave no significant results.

This broad innovative ferment has, however, a limit in the difficulty to overcome the existing difference between the innovative and advanced levels of reform projects and the actual levels of implementation. Therefore, although the entire school and university system is in movement, the real possibilities of qualitative and effective development are not always clear.

2. Indications about evaluation

Now first steps are taken for activating an evaluation system which makes the monitoring of transformations in course possible.

In these last years the evaluation question is high up on the agenda at school and university level for different reasons:

- the harmonization of the system in a European context;
- the rationalization and cost-effective use of resources;
- the realization of an autonomy project, for which, from the beginning, a system of continuous monitoring is foreseen in order to verify, above all, the congruence among general aims, specific objectives and results achieved. Also, in the diversity of positions, the debate has as a common denominator in the awareness that evaluation has to be understood as an instrument for gaining a better knowledge and for the improvement of the education system.

But, up to now, at the level of concrete realization, the new evaluation culture met with not few difficulties, due both to cultural traditions which led some specialists to consider every evaluation attempt as not being very compatible with the education process as such, and to the fact that - up to this moment - in Italy we proceeded on the basis of a one-sided interest in initiatives per se, without a precise engagement in verification and control of results. In this context there is an ongoing conversation about the evaluation of teacher education; in fact this aspect does not yet form part of a system of organic proposals.

Some evaluation experiences regard the F.I.S. (formazione in servizio - in-service training) and have been realized by I.R.R.S.A.E. (Istituti Regionali di Ricerca, Sperimentazione e Aggiornamento Educativo - Regional Institutes of research, experimentation and updating of educational knowledge) of Lombardia, Emilia Romagna, Puglia, Trentino and have been begun also by B.D.P. (Biblioteca di Documentazione Pedagogica - Library of didactic and pedagogical documentation).

The beginning, which the academic year 1998/99, of the degree course in Sciences of Primary Education (for teacher education for nursery and primary school) will be the occasion for starting in real terms and in an organic way the evaluation engagement as regards both university activity and training experiences that have to be realised in schools.

Until now in our country the initiatives taken in the field of evaluation concern

- evaluation of the school system,
- evaluation of scientific and technological research in universities.

2.1 Evaluation of the school system

On 21st May, 1997, the Ministry of Education issued the directive n° 307 with which the National Service for Quality of Teaching (Servizio Nazionale per la Qualità dell'Istruzione - S.N.Q.I.) has been instituted, by entrusting its realization to the European Centre of Education (C.E.D.E.) "This is supposed to be the core of what in a few years should become an independent body for the evaluation of the school-system". (1)

The Ministry of Education contributes to C.E.D.E.'s activity

- by formulating proposals as regards objectives of evaluation activities, by unity of direction;
- by elaborating lines of intervention in different school sectors, and also in those of common interest;
- by examining C.E.D.E.'s operative projects in order to verify the consequences as regards objectives and defined lines of intervention;
- by defining the necessary links with the information system of the Ministry.

In this first part of a gradual beginning of the service it has been necessary to select priority intervention areas in the perspective of an integrated system. Among these we can underline:

- selection and collection of models and instruments for support to self-evaluation;
- identification of variables that have to be pointed out, by considering those in the main international relations;
- definition of a school population model being statistically significative on which it is possible to do sample observations;
- identification of a series of instruments being useful for pointing out competences and abilities acquired by students, and also the variables of background and the possible conditions of didactic intervention;
- the setting-up of a structure for examination tests or for verifications at resumptive character which involve a substantial number of students;
- constitution of evaluation archives for schools and automatized archives for evaluation, considered both as a research and as a service function;
- training of experts concerning evaluation problems.

The institution of A.D.A.S. (Archivi dell'Autosvalutazione delle Scuole - Evaluation Archives for Self-evaluation of Schools), whose main aim is to improve self-evaluation practices in the school, is particularly interesting. It is about projected archives in order to include evaluation material

(questions or items) not systematically organized on the basis of a didactic hypothesis, but loosely organised in order to allow a more free utilization. A.D.A.S. will allow to compare the obtained results in a certain context with other neighbouring or similar groups. The school, through its teachers, may directly use the archives and have a choice which moments of the education process demand an attentive evaluation in order to take the opportune decisions.

The S.N.Q.I. institution has been greeted by different components of the school system, because as a matter of fact it does not establish itself as an external control system only for the observation of data and of their comparison, but as an element of the system, being able to interact with it in order to adapt the education offer to the needs which emerge in Italian society.

It is already possible to note that the evaluation system - in order to be effective - should be enriched by adding further instruments:

- the definition of cultural and education standards for the whole national territory, as a strong justification for the maintenance of the legal value of educational qualifications; this would give sense also to the strategy of education debt and credit within the context of an individualized curriculum;
- the possibility to use specific school evaluation services in order to start an evaluation system of school operators.

Moreover, it has to be underlined that during preparations for the definition of S.N.Q.I., it has been necessary to avoid the risk of a self-referential function of the system by proposing S.N.Q.I., right from the beginning, to be established as an authority outside the Ministry, endowed with the status of full autonomy and with sufficient powers in order to develop its own task. Now, this has not happened yet, but we expect the realization within short time. (2)

2.2 Evaluation at university level

As regards the evaluation of scientific and technological research at the level of university, the M.U.R.S.T. (Ministry of University and Scientific Research) introduced a system of financing for university research based on an independent evaluation mechanism of research proposals of national interest from anonymous reviewers, with the supervision from a Guarantee Committee nominated by the Ministry of Education.

The evaluation of projects has to take into account a series of criteria fixed by the Ministry of Education:

- originality of programme and its contribution to scientific knowledge in the sector;
- national relevance of research programme;
- clearness and verifiability of objectives;
- competence of scientific coordinators;
- competence of proponent groups;
- complementarity of competences and contributions;
- technical-scientific value of proposed methods;

- adequacy of available resources;
- congruousness of research funds.

In our country the evaluation system to be applied at school level and to university research is only at a beginning. It needs to be analysed attentively - also in comparison with other European Countries - in order to check its usefulness.

Footnotes:

(1) B. Vertecchi (Presidente del C.E.D.E.), Una scuola di <autovalutazione>, in "Il SOLE 24 ore", n° 125, maggio 1998, p.14

(2) S. Del Bono, A proposito del Servizio Nazionale per la Qualità dell'Istruzione, in "Scuola e didattica", n° 2, 1997.

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Changes and Recent Trends of Teacher Education Policy in Portugal (1995/1998)

1. Since the previous report for the SIGMA project (Campos, 1996) was written, some important changes occurred in teacher education policy in Portugal concerning (i) initial teacher education, (ii) in-service teacher education and (iii) further teacher education for other educational tasks different from teaching. Besides, we have witnessed the first steps in (iv) the evaluation of higher education programmes, among them some in the field of teacher education and the emergence of (v) a system for the accreditation of initial teacher education programmes.

I. Initial teacher education

2. As far as initial teacher education is concerned, it has been made compulsory for institutions to organize teacher education programmes for preschool and for the first cycle of basic education (first four grades of compulsory education) in a way that students will graduate with a “Licenciatura” (the course having a normal duration of four academic years); this regulation will be effective from 1998 on. Until now, programmes were still accepted which offered the possibility of graduation with a “Bacharelato”, a higher education degree corresponding to three academic years. It has also been made possible for the present teachers holding a “Bacharelato”, the degree previously accepted, to apply for participation in programmes allowing them to improve their qualifications in order to obtain the “Licenciatura” degree. Besides, the Teacher Education Colleges (*Escolas Superiores de Educação* - institutions of non-university higher education that developed out of former Normal Schools) have been given wider competences. They will be entitled to run teacher education programmes for the third cycle of basic education - grade 7 to 9 - i.e. they will have the right to offer courses for the entire range of compulsory education; until now they could only run programmes for preschool teachers and teachers for grades 1 to 6 of compulsory education. The Universities still continue to be authorized to run teacher education programmes covering the full range from preschool education up to the end of secondary education.

3. As from now on all teachers will receive the same academic degree (“Licenciatura”), this first change is aiming at the *gradual abolition of the traditional duality* existing between teacher education for secondary school teachers and teacher education for teachers of the other school levels - a duality which, as we know, is related to the different status and prestige these two groups of teachers enjoy. In a certain way, this represents a move towards achieving the complete *universitarization* of teacher education programmes as this particular academic degree was traditionally awarded by Universities. Nevertheless, even if the programmes supplied by the Teacher Education Colleges become “Licenciatura” programmes it is also true that, thanks to the second measure previously referred to, new opportunities have been created for these non-university higher education institutions

to introduce teacher education programmes for what is internationally termed lower secondary education. In the framework of the necessary building up of a new teacher education model that contributes to improving the professionalisation of teachers and teaching activity, thus departing from inherited principles of the classical teacher education models (the *academic* university model and the normal schools' *apprenticeship* model), this second policy measure constitutes a challenge for the non-university higher education institutions, at least as far as the entire area of compulsory education is concerned.

II. In-service teacher education

4. Looking at the debate mainly in the last fifteen years, one of the most persistent criticisms concerning the changes operated in the field of teacher education policies, aiming at the *professionalisation* of teaching, consists in claims of too little or inadequate attention being paid to in-service education. This appears to be even more intolerable as it is assumed that initial education has only a limited potential in securing the professionalisation of teachers. As mentioned in the preceding report (Campos, 1996), an in-service teacher education system has been created accordingly in Portugal since 1992 aiming to place teacher professionalisation in a perspective of lifelong learning.

5. At the end of 1996, some changes were introduced in this system, which were expected to result in certain improvements deemed to be necessary on the basis of the preceding experience. However, these changes have not yet helped to overcome the existing problems and thus to eliminate the reasons for criticisms already made to this system in the previous report (Campos, 1996), which were again proven to be legitimate by some new research studies carried out in the field in the meantime.

III. Further teacher education for educational sector tasks other than teaching

6. In the context of teachers' professional development, one of the new lines of evolution of teacher education policies in Portugal is related to the creation, of a further education system in 1997 which guarantees teachers access to programmes of professional qualification for other educational tasks such as: schools management, in-service teacher education management, class coordination, curriculum area coordination, coordination of work at the level of a schooling grade, etc. The programmes organized within this system should have a minimum duration of 250 training hours, spread at least over a period of twenty-two weeks, to which experienced teachers with five or more years of teaching service can be admitted. In order to be authorized to run and to certify this kind of qualification, institutions must previously have these programmes accredited by the same committee being also responsible for the accreditation of in-service education programmes. This committee is composed of thirteen personalities appointed by the Minister of Education. However, so far it is not compulsory for teachers to have this formal qualification in order to carry out the tasks mentioned above, e.g. headteacher.

IV. Evaluation of initial teacher education

7. At the end of 1994, a Parliament Act introduced a system for the evaluation of higher education and later on the Government delegated to the Portuguese Universities Foundation (public education)

the competence for the external evaluation of the university programmes; external evaluation of non-university programmes of the public higher education sector and of the private higher education programmes - university and non-university - has not yet begun. Nevertheless, evaluation is expected to be extended to this sector in the near future.

8. By now (July 1998) the first evaluation activities in some areas of the public university programmes, including some concerning teacher education, have been concluded; generally, the evaluation procedure comprises two phases, both based on specific guidelines: self-evaluation and external evaluation by a committee of peers. This committee appraises the internal evaluation, visits the institutions and makes its own report to which institutions may then respond. The external evaluation serves only as an information component that hopefully will influence the quality of higher education provision at a particular institution; however, it has no consequence at all on the permission to run the programmes, or on the financial support being given to the programmes.

V. Accreditation of initial teacher education and of the building up of the teaching professionalism

9. As it was mentioned in the previous report (Campos, 1996), when a new system for in-service teacher education was established, a separate accreditation system for this area was introduced simultaneously. This accreditation system was also extended to the programmes preparing teachers for educational tasks other than teaching. The idea of accreditation of teacher education programmes has settled and, in July 1998, the National Institute for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (*Instituto Nacional de Acreditação da Formação de Professores*) has been created which will from now on be in charge of the accreditation of initial teacher education programmes, without excluding the possibility of its being also put in charge of in-service teacher education accreditation and of the accreditation of further teacher education for other educational tasks in the future. There is at present also a governmental decision project concerning the general framework of the accreditation procedure.

10. Accreditation is a procedure of verifying the quality of initial teacher education programmes and, through checking the adequateness of programmes in view of professional performance, granting institutions the authority of certifying professional teaching qualifications. Any accredited programme must regularly be submitted to an accreditation renewal procedure, and institutions are not allowed to run non accredited programmes or programmes for which accreditation accreditation has been withdrawn.

11. When checking the adequateness of programmes, the officially *intended* teacher education programmes will be analysed, but also the *implemented* ones and the *results* achieved, particularly concerning teachers' performance. For the appraisal of programmes, the following issues will be taken into account (i) the goals and the competences to be developed; (ii) the plan of studies; (iii) the syllabi; (iv) the admission criteria and the methodology of its verification; (v) the teaching methodologies, and the methodologies for student teaching assessment and professional certification as well as for co-ordination and evaluation of the programmes themselves.

12. The framework for analysis will mainly include (i) the curricula that teachers will have to be responsible for, (ii) the expected professional performance profile and (iii) the quality standards of the programmes.

13. The Institute charged with developing the accreditation system will be very much independent from the Government that delegates to it the accreditation competence. A General Council will

have the strategic leadership of this institution, and will be composed of appointed members from four different areas equally represented: (i) the teacher education institutions, (ii) the teachers' associations, (iii) the teachers' employers and (iv) the public interest (parents, students from teacher education institutions, economic associations and departments of the Ministry of Education). The number of representatives of the Ministry of Education is not to exceed 25% of the total of General Council members.

14. With the participation of social partners, this independent institution will be in charge of the definition of the quality standards, as far as the resources programmes ought to be provided with, their teaching procedures and the results to be achieved are concerned. Applications for the accreditation of a specific programme will be dealt with by an Accreditation Committee composed of personalities to be appointed by the General Council selecting them on the basis of their recognized scientific and professional expertise and not in the basis of criteria of social representativeness. The Committee, being responsible for choosing the methods and instruments for collecting information on quality criteria, is independent from the General Council in taking its decision on every single application. In order to fulfill this responsibility, the Committee will consider not only the documentation received from the institution requesting accreditation for a programme, but will also undertake a visit to this institution during which persons will be interviewed who could be of assistance to this procedure of evaluation.

15. The accreditation system aims not only at *verifying* the quality of programmes, but at the same time intends to *promote* it. This will be possible not only through the methodology to be used (for example: a programme will never have its accreditation suddenly cancelled, it will always be previously given a period of time to make the necessary improvements); but also because it will develop activities with this specific purpose, such as trying to stimulate the sharing of ideas and practice, or promoting the public reflection and debate concerning teacher education quality.

16. As it is well known within the profession, the evolution of teacher education in the last decades has gone in the direction of providing an academic education to primary school teachers and of introducing a professionalisation perspective into programmes for secondary school teachers. However, it is widely recognized that proper solutions have not yet been found for teacher education programmes to contribute effectively to the kind of professionalization which teaching activity demands today: the changes having been made so far may have enhanced the professional *status* of specific groups of teachers, but have not so much provided a higher degree of professional *competence* for all teachers (Sander, 1996). Although some tend to have fundamental doubts whether a substantial contribution to the development of professional competence could be expected from initial teacher education at all (Sander, 1997), others consider that obstacles and current problems are due to a mere *juxtaposition* of the *academic* model of teacher education for secondary school teachers to the *apprenticeship* model of teacher education for primary school teachers (Buchberger & Beernaert, 1996) *even within a framework of universitarization*. Consequently, it is urgent to promote the emergence of a *teacher education model centred on the building up of teaching professionalism*.

17. The need for introducing the accreditation system outlined above has arisen from current concerns about the contribution of teacher education programmes to this professionalism, and it is expected that accreditation will promote the previously mentioned new model. In order to effectively obtain such results, priority has to be given to direct activities of *promotion* of a programme's quality over those aiming at its *verification*, even if the latter indirectly may also have a promoting effect. This will only be possible with the participation of teacher education institutions, teacher educators, and the teaching professionals. It is also important that the Institute interprets and forms itself as a learning organization where those who work in it demonstrate their ability to learn from their own performance and from continuous reflection on it.

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Developments in Teacher Education in Spain (1995-1998)

1. Introduction

Teacher education still is one of the main concerns of the institutions of higher education (mainly universities) and of the institutions responsible for this education in the sphere of public administration, be this the M.E.C. (*Ministerio de Educación y Cultura*) at the national level (for the definition of the general framework for programmes) including the autonomous communities to which the responsibility in questions of education has not yet been transferred, or be this the autonomous communities effectively being responsible for the educational policy within their territorial demarcations (Andalusia, Balearic Islands, Canary Islands, Catalonia, Galicia, Navarre, Basque Provinces or Valencia). In past years, and especially since the L.O.G.S.E. (*Ley de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo*, October 1990), new legal provisions abound, just as individual or collective publications (especially those derived from conferences and other scientific meetings) proposing analyses of the Spanish educational system (including teacher education), regularly trying to elaborate the flaws of the system and to propose alternative models supposed to be “more realistic”.

In fact, this concern does not seem to be exclusively shared in Spain: It seems to exist everywhere in the world, and especially in the more developed countries. One would also think that the results of so much research are rather meagre at the moment and do not correspond to the magnitude of the effort involved. The process of drawing conclusions from this research made in questions of education usually takes a long time, and through the nature of this particular object of research itself, the results can only be seen in the long term. The reflection and confrontation of ideas are essential, and from this point of view, we live a very important situation at present in Spain. Let us hope that precisely because of all this analytic activity, we will soon find (or at least perceive the outlines of) the solution to our most urgent educational problems which are in fact shared by many countries of the European Union.

2. Innovations in teacher education

Teacher education for nursery schools and primary teaching not having suffered drastic modifications since the reform imposed by the L.O.G.S.E. in 1990, the most remarkable change consists in the implementation of a new plan for the education of secondary school teachers. Previously, this education was organised and executed by the I.C.E.s (*Institutos de Ciencias de la Educación*) which were part of the universities and were considered as institutes specialised in pedagogical research and education. The teachers at nursery schools and for primary school teaching were traditionally educated in the E.U.M. (*Escuelas Universitarias de Magisterio*, formerly *Escuelas Universitarias*

de Formación del Profesorado de E.G.B. and Escuelas Normales), and the I.C.E.s were, as far as teacher education is concerned, exclusively responsible for the teachers in secondary school teaching or *Bachillerato* (Baccalaureate).

A legal disposition, following the enactment of the *General Law on Education* (June 1971), established that the C.A.P. or *Certificado de Aptitud pedagógica* was required in order to be able to participate in the competitive examination of the secondary school level. It could be acquired by following an education of 300 hours more or less equally divided into theoretical and practical training. The theoretical training included three large subject areas: Principles, aims and problems of education in their psychological, sociological and historical aspects; Technology and models of educational innovation; and specific didactics of each subject. Practical training mainly consisted in the elaboration of a certain number of didactical units and their application during a training course in secondary schools, mainly in State secondary schools.

Since the C.A.P. has often been (even sharply) criticised throughout the time of existence, a renewal of this system of education seemed to be imperative. In fact, this renewal was already proposed by the education reform of 1990 (vid. supra), but was only partly decided in November, 1995, and definitively accomplished the following year (ministerial order of 26th April, 1996). The new disposition recommended the implementation of a new plan for teacher education of secondary school teaching, starting preferably with the school year 1996-97 or 1997-98.

The changes resulting from this new plan are of great importance. It must be adapted to the new structure of the entire non-university education system established by the reform. Compared to the former system, its main characteristics in relation to the subject being dealt with here are as follows:

1. The lowering of the age of the pupils at the end of primary school (a term which actually replaced that of the *Educación general básica* or E.G.B., imposed in 1971) to the age of 12 (formerly the age of 14).
2. A new distribution of the stages of primary school teaching in three cycles of two years, corresponding to the following ages: from the age of 6 to 8, from the age of 8 to 10, and from the age of 10 to 12.
3. The extension of the period of compulsory schooling to the age of 16, whereas it formerly coincided with the end of the “basic schooling” period or E.G.B. (at the age of 14).
4. This extension necessitates the introduction of a new stage in compulsory schooling, henceforth called *Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria* (E.S.O.), more or less equivalent to the French “collège” and divided into two cycles (from the age of 12 to 14 and from the age of 14 to 16).
5. Only after this stage begins the *Enseñanza Secundaria Post-obligatoria*, with its most extended variant being represented by the *Bachillerato* (from the age of 16 to 18), which is crowned by the *Curso de orientación universitaria* (C.O.U. [at the age of 19], equivalent to the final year in France) giving access to higher education.

The introduction of this new structure has effectively produced great difficulties, as already mentioned in our report of 1996. As far as the teaching staff is concerned, the teachers of the primary level were not happy about the fact that the number of school years of the pupils they took care of was to be reduced. The teachers of the secondary level in their turn did not feel at ease as teachers of 12 year-old children: They were simply not used to it. Furthermore, the secondary schools did not have the necessary material capacity to take in so many new pupils. What happened was a perverse effect (in relation to the initial intentions of the project), a connivance between teachers and educational authorities: Most pupils are taught in the primary schools according to the first cycle of their

compulsory secondary schooling (from the age of 12 to 14) (that means that they keep going to the same school as before), and a great number of primary teachers had to adapt to the new programmes of this first cycle of secondary teaching which, in principle, was not forming part of their competence.

This somewhat confusing situation had undesirable consequences regarding the development of teacher education. As repeatedly happened during past years in Spain (and certainly in many other countries as well, according to what can be concluded from the specialised bibliography on this subject), this education reform had to be done hastily. The primary teachers now responsible for the first cycle of secondary teaching received “refresher courses” (“cursos de actualización”) and followed other activities of “up-dating” (“aggiornamento”) which in general turned out to be insufficient according to the opinion of most of them (at the beginning), especially when they had to teach a subject different from their specialisation; but “we got ourselves out of it, as best as we could”, some of them affirm (afterwards). All in all, these are normal problems which often emerge when a change is made in the educational plan.

On the other hand, teacher education for the second cycle of secondary education (from the age of 14 to 16) was planned more carefully with the order (26th April, 1996) mentioned above. Here, an evident contradiction occurred, given that the cycle of 12 to 14 year-old students also is part of the *Secundaria Obligatoria* or E.S.O. In fact, the official disposition globally considers the education of all teachers of the secondary level, by removing the former C.A.P. or *Certificado de Aptitud pedagógica*. The new certificate, the C.C.P. (*Curso de Cualificación pedagógica*) is more demanding, both as far as the number of credits necessary for obtaining it (60 minimum, 750 maximum: at least double the hours required formerly for the C.A.P.) and as far as the pedagogical practice elements and the variety of subjects are concerned (67 credits in the two universities of the Canary Islands, more or less like in the other Spanish universities). They are distributed in the following manner:

1. Compulsory subjects called “general subjects”: 24 credits to be acquired in 8 subjects referring to the psychological, sociological and pedagogical aspects of teaching; the study of the curriculum; the educational guidance; dealing with diversity in the classroom; the organisation of schools; theory and institutions of contemporary education.
2. Compulsory subjects called “specific subjects”: 15 credits referring to specific didactics in each subject.
3. Optional subjects: 6 credits orientated to the deepening of the scientific and technical contents specific to each subject and of its development in the curriculum of the secondary level.
4. The “practicum” or application phase: 22 credits for activities like discussion seminars, the elaboration of didactical units and the period of practical experience in a secondary school.

Certainly, this new plan appears to us to be better than the recently abolished C.A.P., even if it has not satisfied everybody, including the teacher students themselves (according to opinions heard here and there, but for a serious evaluation larger surveys and certainly a longer application would be necessary). We consider the following as being positive characteristics of the new system:

1. For the first time, the responsible persons of the government(s) and the university departments have actually agreed and collaborated in elaborating a plan for teacher education. This collaboration sporadically happened in the past (and even in the present) for in-service training but it is a novelty as far as initial teacher education is concerned.
2. Simultaneously, the teachers of the secondary level have become pedagogical professionals in the full sense of the word (and are no longer simple “advisers”) in an education programme for teachers organised by the universities.

3. In the future, once the I.C.E.s have disappeared or are in the process of disappearing, the entire system of initial teacher education will be offered in one and the same type of university institution, be this in a *Centro Superior de Formación del Profesorado* (as it is the case for the University of Las Palmas, G.C.), a *Centro de Formación de Profesores* or a *Facultad de Educación*. These institutions only occasionally are in charge of in-service training (this still is not their main function: it is the main responsibility of the *Centros de Profesores* or C.E.P.); their structure and their functioning brings them closer to the French I.U.F.M., except that, as far as the education of primary teachers is concerned, they continue to educate students who have accomplished their final year and who consequently are at the very beginning of their university studies: they get a “scientific” education (the contents of the subjects of their specialisation) at the same time as a pedagogical education (including the “practicum”) for a period of three years, which seems an insufficient time for an appropriate preparation for the teaching profession.

In the last years, many critical voices have been heard concerning this situation, requiring at the same time a specific pedagogical education only after having reached a university degree (licentiate), but the authorities (rather political or administrative than academic) never have agreed to this until now.

3. Evaluation of teacher education: ... not yet taking place ...

The evaluation of institutions has been generalised in the past few years in various areas. In 1996, our *Ministerio de Educación y Cultura* has undertaken a comparative evaluation of teaching as it was conceived in the former system of “basic education” or E.G.B. (6th year, i.e. 12 to 13 year-old pupils) and of primary school (first cycle) established after the reform (INCE: *Evaluación de la educación primaria*, 1987). The results are more satisfactory with pupils having followed the new curriculum. In tests in their mother tongue for example, they have reached an average of about 71 % of correct answers (p. 149), opposed to about 64% with pupils of E.G.B. (p. 13). The general impression is that a more active participation is required from the pupils “of the reform”, which favours a better learning. Nevertheless, the teachers “of the reform” seem to feel the need for a more effective pedagogical education: 44% of them expressed their uncertainty and ask for more precise information about the development of the curriculum (elaboration and putting into practice of the didactical units), decision making regarding strategies of assessing pupils, the didactical treatment of themes called “transversal” (in general, those which concern various disciplines and have an ethic and ecological content, among others) or the processes for the evaluation of teaching itself (p. 132).

Very recently, such a report concerning E.S.O. (INCE: *Diagnóstico general del Sistema Educativo. Avance de resultados*, 1998) has provoked a certain alarm. 14 to 16 year-old pupils have obtained not very satisfactory results. Only 25% of the 14 year-old pupils and 33% of the 16 year-old have reached a satisfactory average in these tests. The rate of failure in school that derives from it is effectively higher than that of most European countries for that age level. The report remarks that the participation of the parents is extremely low here, and could that be one of the reasons for such a failure? According to Professor García Garrido, president of the commission that successfully carried through this inquiry, this happens because the parents have great confidence in the school institutions, which is good and bad at the same time, because they then make no effort to inquire directly with the teachers about their children (*Tiempo*, 13th July 1998, p.84). From its side, the Ministry just promised, after a long controversy, an increase of the number of hours dedicated to History, the Mother Tongue, and to Mathematics in the secondary schools (*El País*, 21 July), given the bad results which were revealed by the inquiry. There is also talk (*El País*, 23 July) about lowering the

age at which it becomes obligatory for students at the primary school level to start learning a foreign language: at the age of 6, instead of at the age of 8 (actual age).

We rather suppose that the main reason for this failure is related to the evident lack of a clear identity actually existing among the teachers of this level. The authorities themselves agree: "From the legal point of view, there is nothing like a teacher in *Enseñanza Secundaria obligatoria*, but only a teacher of *Enseñanza Secundaria* who in addition to the compulsory level, is authorised to teach in the post-compulsory stage [*Bachillerato* or *Ciclos formativos*, i.e. the former professional education]" (ICEC: *Diagnóstico de la anticipación del 2º ciclo de la E.S.O. Profesión docente*, 1998). We have here a mix of teachers with very different origins. All hopes are now concentrated on the C.C.P., the new plan for teacher education for secondary school teaching, described above.

We have no official document yet specifically concerning the evaluation of teacher education.

Nevertheless:

- Most reports on the evaluation of teaching in general, the state of the schools, their management and administration or the school's programmes refer to it, but certainly not extensively enough in order to be able to draw valid conclusions.

- The universities have introduced an individual evaluation plan for teaching staff and for the university departments as a whole. What results from it, is a sort of classification of the institutions of higher education according to their "quality", which led to objections from most of these institutions, especially concerning the criteria of evaluation. Anyway, the persons responsible for teacher education represent only a small percentage in the universities.

- There are partial reports worked out by the Ministry or by the persons responsible for certain Autonomous Communities, centred on concrete phases of the school career. The *Ministerio de Educación y Cultura* confided to the INCE (*Instituto Nacional de Calidad y Evaluación*) the coordination of a project, actually in the phase of implementation, which concerns the evaluation of teacher education with the following main items:

- the function of the teacher
- the initial teacher education
- the in-service training: its reality, its needs
- professional promotion and social services for teachers.

This project should be brought to an end in the course of 1998.

4. By way of conclusion

Since, as we said right at the beginning, this problem of teacher education is one of the main concerns of researchers, the titles in the more recent bibliography on that subject, as well as the scientific meetings which try to find solutions, are numerous these days. The latest meeting took place on the 1st, 2nd and 3rd July of this year, and the contributions and communications presented have been collected in a publication. Its title (*La formación del profesorado. Evaluación y calidad*. Las Palmas, Gran Canaria: Universidad, 1998) is promising, but its content still offers a rather nebulous vision of the panorama of research on the evaluation of teacher education. The initial

assertion of García Garrido (“Reformas educativas y formación del profesorado”, pp. 23-25) indicates the most evident cause of this state of affairs: “Nowadays, the main difficulty which the successive reforms of teacher education meet is the state of indeterminacy in which the school finds itself. We witness continuing research efforts concerning its sense and functions in contemporary society and, especially, in future society” (p. 25).

Is this perhaps a generalised situation in Europe as a whole?

Recent Changes in Swedish Teacher Education

1. Introduction

The objectives of this paper are

- to summarise recent changes in Swedish teacher education. The update covers the last few years and thus supplements my earlier description and analysis (cf. Kallós, 1996a).
- to describe how Swedish teacher education has been evaluated and briefly present and discuss salient features of the Swedish policies in regard to evaluation in higher education in general and to teacher education in particular. This part of the paper may at least partly be regarded as a follow up of the presentation by Ahlström & Kallós (1995) that focused on issues of quality in teacher education.
- to describe and analyse current development tendencies in Swedish teacher education.

The changes in the area of teacher education are of course also related to changes in the education sector in the society. These have been described and analysed by me elsewhere (see Carlgren & Kallós, 1997; Kallós & Nilsson, 1995; Kallós & Tallberg Broman, 1997). Focus in this section of the paper will be on two Government reports. The first of these is a report presented by a task force within the Ministry of Education. The report was published in March 1996 (Ds, 1996) and entitled "Läroutbildning i förändring" (Teacher Education in a State of Change). The second is the final report of a Parliamentary Committee, which had the task to review the entire Swedish teacher education programmes and propose changes. The final report was delivered early in 1999 (SOU, 1999) and decisions based on this report will probably be taken late in 2000.

In the last section of the paper I try to identify some of the major issues (problems) and tendencies in current Swedish teacher education.

2. Recent changes in Swedish teacher education: a summary

Teacher education has been discussed widely in Sweden and also been subject to certain changes in the last years.

A special task force appointed by the Ministry of Education and Science in April 1995 delivered its review of Swedish teacher education in March 1996. The task force tried to list the problems confronting Swedish teacher education and to propose guidelines for further development. The report was entitled "Teacher Education in a State of Change" (Ds, 1996).

Almost at the same time Högskoleverket (the National Agency for Higher Education) delivered a report with the title "The Education of Teachers for the Comprehensive School in 1995. An

Evaluation.” (Högskoleverket, 1996). The Ministry of Education and Science had commissioned the study. This evaluation report was in its turn supplemented by another study commissioned by the Swedish Union of Teachers and published late in 1995 (Gran, 1995). A year later Gran published an evaluation of the pre school teacher and recreation instructor programmes (Gran, 1996).

The report by the special task force mentioned above (Ds, 1996) identified several problem areas where further analysis and development of teacher education were needed.

One of those areas concerned the scientific basis of teacher education and research related to teacher education and educational work. Closely related to this, the task force also stressed the importance to increase the number of teacher educators who had carried out doctoral studies.

It is quite clear that the ambition was to strengthen the academic character of teacher education programmes. Such programmes should according to the task force be firmly anchored within a university environment and their relation to research and tested experience should be strengthened. As a tangible result of the work of the task force a three-year programme to increase research related to teacher education was implemented in 1997. The National Agency for Higher Education monitors this programme and its emphasis lies in the areas recognised by the task force.

This programme has contributed to speed up development in these areas at the universities and the university colleges. They have adopted local strategic policy documents concerning the development of teacher education related research. New professorships directly related to teacher education have been created at e.g. the universities/university colleges in Gothenburg, Umeå, Uppsala, Örebro and Dalarna in the last few years. It could be mentioned that one of the new chairs in Umeå is specifically oriented towards gender theory in relation to educational work and teacher education.

This development of research and graduate studies has also contributed to establish and strengthen co-operation between institutions and departments within teacher education across traditional academic borders. This ‘inter-disciplinary’ and/or ‘inter-faculty’ aspect is also emphasised in the national development programme.

In a somewhat wider perspective co-operation within teacher education concerns the issue of how teacher education should be integrated within the university structure and how the ‘universitification’ of teacher education should proceed. These issues are also on the agenda as a part of a general re-organisation of the inner structure of the universities and university colleges taking place at present in Sweden.

Another major problem area identified by the task force concerned the relations between teacher education and the educational sector as such. The need to strengthen the school based parts of teacher education was mentioned and also a necessary broadening of general and didactic competencies (Ds, 1996, pp. 47ff.).

The fourth area discussed stressed necessary co-operation between teacher education institutions and the school and day care sectors within the municipalities. The development of regional centres was mentioned as one possible way to strengthen the relations (Ds, 1966, pp. 53ff). The National Agency for Higher Education together with the National Agency for Education (in Swedish ‘Skolverket’) launched a series of regional conferences in 1997/1998 to promote this development.

What is touched upon here is, of course, also the necessity to develop forms and methods whereby initial teacher education may be linked to induction and in-service teacher education. The links between these three teacher education components is traditionally rather weak in Sweden (and in most other European countries). Pre-service (or initial) teacher education receives much attention in Sweden perhaps primarily because it is the only fully visible and inspected/evaluated part of

teacher education. As I already mentioned in my earlier report (Kallós, 1996a) it seems important to begin to discuss a conscious division of labour between the three parts of teacher education mentioned. In Sweden (as in many other European countries) the control of induction and in-service programmes is local (or regional) and an analysis thus has to tackle the relations between the State, the Universities and the local authorities (in Sweden the Municipalities) concerning the different teacher education components.

It is quite clear that many universities and university colleges have tried to implement various strategies to develop the relations between teacher education and the education sector within the municipalities. An ambitious programme carried out by Linköping university to build school-university partnerships may be mentioned as an example (see Day, 1997). This five year project was commissioned by the Ministry of Education and Science and aimed at exploring strategies for establishing partnerships between researchers and university teachers on the one hand and teachers in the region on the other. The project involved 57 schools in 10 municipalities. 500 teachers and 40 researchers/university teachers were involved in seven sub projects (see also Askling et al, 1997).

The task force also pointed to the importance to increase the use of information and communication technology (ICT) in the schools. As a consequence it was decided to amend the nationally valid degree requirements of all teacher education programmes by the addition of a requirement of ICT-competency. All teacher education students must thus take ICT-courses with the objectives of achieving a basic ICT-competency for personal use and competency in using ICT with pupils in educational settings. It is noteworthy that these demands were introduced as general requirements for degrees in teacher education programmes. Teacher education programmes thus had to be adjusted to these new demands and the universities and university colleges responsible for teacher education had to introduce strategies to increase the ICT-competencies within teacher education itself. Teacher education accordingly may at least partly be regarded as a forerunner in matters pertaining to ICT in Swedish higher education. It should be added that the emphasis on ICT has been coupled to national investments to strengthen ICT-competencies within teacher education and among teacher educators.

In 1999 a large programme to increase use of ICT within schools through development work and through courses for teachers was introduced by the Ministry of Education and Science. The programme is partly to be carried out in co-operation between schools and teacher education and is another example of the increased attention given to ICT within the education sector as such.

In the earlier report (Kallós, 1996a) I noted that the prognoses pointed to a shortage of teachers in the near future. This notion is still valid. The recruitment of teachers in mathematics and sciences for grades 4-9 and for the upper secondary school as well as teachers in foreign languages (with the possible exception of English) is especially problematic. These are also areas where the shortage in the future seems to be most pronounced. On the other hand there are teacher education programmes where the number of students clearly exceed the number of available places (e.g. pre-school teacher education and teachers in the compulsory school in the areas of social sciences and the arts). It is even presumed that the possibilities for work may be problematic in these domains. In this context it should also be mentioned that there is a large shortage of subject head teachers within the upper secondary school. In 1996 the National Agency for Education published a report entitled "Teacher Shortage or Teacher Surplus?" (Skolverket, 1996) and follow ups indicate that a probably increasing drop out rate from teaching and by students in teacher education are other factors to be considered in the assessment of the future need for teachers. Problems associated with assessing the future need are manifold (cf. Brandell, 1998).

The report of the task force as well as the public and parliamentary debates concerning schooling and teacher education was followed by a decision to review all teacher education in Sweden. A Parliamentary Committee was appointed 1997. Interestingly enough the initiative to form the

Commission came directly from the Parliamentary Standing Committee of Education that had taken a particular interest in teacher education and e.g. conducted a public hearing concerning teacher education. The Parliamentary Committee delivered its report early in 1999 (SOU, 1999). Besides teacher education the Committee was also asked to review national school leader education policies.

An important task of the Committee concerned research and graduate studies in relation to teacher education. The Committee should propose a model for financing and governance of research in relation to teacher education and means to increase doctoral studies directly related to teacher education and educational work (cf. also Ahlström & Kallós, 1996; Carlgren, 1996; Murray, 1996). The three-year programme to strengthen research - initiated as a result of the work of the task force and mentioned above - may thus at least partly be regarded as a trial period and it was accordingly presumed that the Committee should be able to build upon the analyses performed. Another main aspect of the work of the Committee has been to suggest changes whereby teacher education programmes may become more integrated within the system of higher education.

On the other hand the appointment of the Committee meant that changes already planned by universities and university colleges in respect to teacher education – at least to some extent - were put on hold. Teacher education institutions waited for the conclusions and suggestions from the Committee and the decisions to be taken by Parliament as a result of those. At a general level it may be stated that Swedish teacher education thus has been and is in a state of transition where major changes are expected but actual changes are awaiting decisions within the Ministry and by the Parliament. It is presumed that new teacher education programmes will be fully implemented in 2001-2002 or even later. The proposals of the Committee are summarised in Section 4 of this paper.

3. Evaluation of teacher education

The universities and university colleges of Sweden have the responsibility to evaluate their programmes and to take measures to secure and increase the quality of their teaching. The debate over these issues was rather heated in Sweden a couple of years ago when the conservative coalition government (1991-1994) discussed competition, quality and choice as elements in a changed education policy which accordingly also concerned teacher education and schooling (see Ahlström & Kallós, 1995).

At a national level the National Agency for Higher Education has the responsibility to supervise the quality of higher education in Sweden. All universities and university colleges in Sweden are thus regularly evaluated. These evaluations cover all the programmes and other activities of the university/university college in question and thus also teacher education. The agency furthermore has the obligation to recall examination rights in a given field of studies (programme) for any university and/or university college that does not meet nationally defined requirements and objectives. Specific programmes and/or specific problem areas within the higher education sector may of course also be subject to specific evaluations.

In general terms it may be actually stated that teacher education as a field within the higher education system has been rather extensively evaluated in Sweden. Indeed, few if any other programmes of higher education have received comparable national and local attention. I agree with Lindberg (1999, p. 2) when he states that there possibly is no other field in higher education that has been so extensively analysed, inspected, evaluated and reformed as teacher education.

Two recent major national evaluations have thus been focussed on the nationally valid teacher education programmes for the compulsory school that were introduced in 1988/89.

The first of these two national evaluations was carried out by the then existing National Swedish Board for Universities and Colleges and presented in 1992. As an important part of that evaluation the Board had sponsored local evaluation projects/studies. In 1995 the Ministry of Education asked for a new evaluation and it was carried out by the National Agency for Higher Education which at that time had 'replaced' the National Board. The Agency commissioned a group of educational researchers to carry out the evaluation which was reported early in 1996 (Högskoleverket, 1996). A third study focussed on the practical application by institutions of higher education of degree objectives within teacher education (Högskoleverket, 1997).

It may also be mentioned that some recent doctoral dissertations have focussed on various aspects of teacher education (e.g. Andersson, 1995; Beach, 1995; Stukat, 1998) within what broadly may be conceived as an evaluative perspective.

It has repeatedly been stated that teacher education is one of the few remaining areas through which national and/or State governance of the school system is possible in the decentralised Swedish society (cf. Kallós, 1996b). This may partly explain the exaggerated interest from the 'centre' in teacher education. Another reason has to do with criticism levelled at schools and teacher education. Since such criticism to a large degree has concerned the compulsory school this is at least one reason why teacher education for the upper secondary school and the child care sector have been evaluated to a far lesser degree.

Who is to blame for the perennial problems of schools and teaching? Is teacher education too academic? Too theoretical? Too much detached from the everyday reality of the school? Are issues like bullying, reading difficulties, gender, information technology treated in teacher education to a sufficient degree? The demands on teacher education are indeed extensive and in all probability also often quite un-realistic. In my opinion it is quite obvious that evaluation criteria as well as the aims of evaluation of teacher education need to be much more thoroughly discussed.

The Swedish evaluations of teacher education have had different aims. The first of the evaluation studies mentioned here (UHÄ-rapport, 1992) focussed on the implementation of the reform decisions and at identifying problems and areas in need of change. In a European perspective it should perhaps be noted that international and intercultural aspects were particularly observed in that study and also separately reported (Batelaan et al, 1992). The second study (Högskoleverket, 1996) was a follow up which especially discussed gender issues and the problem of a didactical orientation of teacher education programmes. In broad terms both evaluations focussed on the relation between reform objectives and their realisation at a national level. Both studies may, however, be characterised as implementation studies.

The third study mentioned above had somewhat different objectives. Nationally valid degree objectives have been formulated within higher education in Sweden. The degree objectives within teacher education were singled out as targets for an evaluation (Högskoleverket, 1997). Questions asked concerned how the objectives were put into practice, to what extent practices differed between institutions and what measures should be taken. The Agency "*ascertains that there is a variability with respects to the practical application and concretization of degree objectives, as well as knowledge of them*" (ibid., p. 8). The report also addresses the issue of governance/management by objectives and "*advises against the addition of too many new objectives*" and points to the importance to "*find satisfactory forms for a 'dialogue' about degree objectives with the purpose of creating support and follow-up for them, as well as bringing the results back into the discussion*" (ibid., p. 8). The relations between the degree objectives and the needs of the school are also discussed.

In my opinion this last issue is, however, not problematised sufficiently. What is the nature of the relations between the curricular objectives of the school and the contents of teacher education? Is it

simply a matter of correspondence? The report, however, at least poses the question if “*everything contained in curricula and other policy guidance documents for schools is also to be regarded as providing indirect objectives for teacher training*” (ibid., p. 8)? The degree objectives concern pre-service teacher education but the relations between these objectives and induction as well as in-service teacher education are not discussed.

It should also be noted that examination frequencies, number of drop-outs etc. are continuously registered and made available annually by ‘Statistiska Centralbyrån’ (‘Statistics Sweden’).

Finally, it should be noted that there have been marked tendencies to try to professionalise teacher work and accordingly discuss teacher education programmes as part of the professional programmes within higher education and compare teacher education with that of doctors, lawyers etc. The question of professional certification (registration) of teachers has been raised but no decisions have been taken. The Swedish school law, however, states that the municipalities only may permanently hire teachers that have a degree, i.e. have passed an official teacher education programme. Recent statistics show that more than 80% of all teachers working in the schools meet the requirements for permanent positions.

In summary it may be concluded that teacher education in Sweden is evaluated following the same principles and guidelines that concern higher education in general. For a number of reasons teacher education programmes have been evaluated more often than other higher education programmes.

4. A brief summary of some of the changes proposed by the 1997 Parliamentary Committee on Teacher Education

The Parliamentary Committee on Teacher Education started its work in April 1997 and after two years it delivered its 475 pages final report “To teach and to govern. Teacher education for co-operation and development” (SOU, 1999). The Committee notes that the conditions of teacher work had undergone profound changes, that the system of governance had developed towards an increased emphasis on goals and results, that the education sector had been decentralised and that new nationally valid curricula had been introduced. Changes concerning the relations between the State and the universities and university colleges have also been introduced. According to the Committee these and other factors make a change in teacher education. It is also noted that the criticism levelled at teacher education in several evaluations provides another reason for reform (SOU, 1999, p. 9).

The Committee states that teacher education should continue to be a part of the higher education system and thus regulated by the Higher Education Act and the Higher Education Ordinance. Teacher education should furthermore to be regarded as a professional program and as one of the means by which the State governs the school system and the education sector in the society (ibid., p. 109). It is stated that teacher education accordingly must be characterised

It is common to identify four major components in teacher education programmes all over the world viz. subject studies, methods, pedagogy and practice. The Committee suggests a new structure, which deliberately moves away from this traditional categorisation. It is proposed that a new structure consisting of three well-integrated domains or areas should be implemented, viz. general educational domain (‘allmänt utbildningsområde’), orientation (‘inriktning’) domain and specialisation (‘specialisering’).

On the one hand the general domain encompasses common central areas of knowledge like socialisation, learning, the national values underlying teaching as well as the societal foundations of teacher work. On the other hand this domain also contains interdisciplinary subject studies. The general domain should take up 60 credits in each teacher education programme and at least 10 of those credits should be studied in an educational work setting (school, pre-school, recreation centre etc.). The general domain is a part of all teacher education programmes “*and should provide the students with an opportunity to address issues of importance to all teachers with a starting-point in different experiences and perspectives*” (ibid., p. 18). Through the general domain “*pedagogues in different school forms already in pre-service teacher education are prepared to meet one another and to co-operate in future work*” and “*be prepared to face all pupils*” (ibid., p 18).

The orientation domain corresponds to the subjects or subject areas chosen by the student. These studies may correspond to school subjects, inter-disciplinary or thematic studies etc. Each orientation should encompass at least 40 credits and at least 10 of those should be studied in an educational work setting (school, pre-school, recreation centre etc.).

The specialisation domain is related to earlier studies (advanced course, in depth courses, supplementary courses etc.). A specialisation consists of at least 20 credits (20 or 10+10 credits).

It is proposed that it should be the obligation of each university/university college to structure the programmes within the general framework given. They have to decide how the different domains should be integrated with one another and distributed over time. It is specifically stressed that the general domain should not be regarded as a single course. It should rather be distributed throughout the entire programme. With the programme the student should also carry out a degree project (‘examensarbete’) corresponding to at least 10 credits and carried out as a part of the orientation or specialisation domains.

The Committee proposes that there should be a common (or general) diploma for teaching and other pedagogical work in pre-schools, schools, day-centres for school-age children, adult education and career counselling. It is furthermore proposed that two special diploma requirements should be introduced for Special Education and for Headteachers. Within the general diploma specific requirements are mentioned for various categories. In the present system there are two identified main teacher categories within the compulsory school, viz. teachers in grade 1-7 and teachers in grades 4-9. In the new proposal these categories no longer are mentioned (cf. Kallós, 1996, p. 344).

An important part of the proposal concerns research and graduate studies in relation to teacher education and pedagogical work. The Committee strongly emphasises that all teacher education students must be able to choose between different research orientations and/or doctoral programmes after having received their Diploma. The Committee emphasises that all departments that take part in teacher education have the obligation to carry out research and doctoral studies related to teacher education and pedagogical work. This means that the Committee advocates a broadening of the research base of teacher education and pedagogical work. The Committee furthermore proposes that measures are to be taken that guarantee financing of research and doctoral studies in the same manner as used in other academic fields. The proposals of the Committee in this respect are far-reaching and bold. If the proposals are accepted it means that the character of teacher education would change rather dramatically towards becoming a professional study programme similar to that of e.g. medicine.

5. Final comments

The brief description given here of recent and proposed changes in Swedish teacher education hopefully provides at least a framework for discussion and comparison.

In my opinion teacher education in Sweden has received a very high degree of attention. There is no simple answer to why this is the case. Indeed, one might ask what problems that specifically concern teacher education? And, to what extent are the problems of teacher education specific?

It is rather obvious that the implementation and subsequent integration of a professional teacher education programme within the university structure is and has been problematic. The 'non-academic' tradition of several teacher education programmes emphasises these problems.

On the one hand traditional and university based subject studies have only to a slight degree been adjusted to the specific requirements of teacher work if indeed such specific requirements really can be advocated? This is still a partly unresolved issue in teacher education in Sweden as well as in other countries. The pedagogical parts of teacher education on the other hand are still not receiving full academic recognition.

Discussions concerning teacher education has also raised important questions related to gender issues. The fact that pre-school teachers, primary and lower secondary school teachers are predominantly women and the different situation in this respect among teachers at the upper secondary and university levels have been but one of the issues that have come to the fore. The Parliamentary Committee has been justly criticised for not having fully analysed these issues.

Research and graduate programmes (doctoral studies) are still lagging behind. Teacher education is still not fully recognised within the university structure. In Sweden, as mentioned above, the issues of research and doctoral studies related teacher education and pedagogical work are at present very high up on the agenda. These issues are still very controversial. All, however, seem to agree that it is necessary to strengthen and expand these aspects of teacher education. When and if the measures proposed seem threaten existing hierarchies and imply changed power relations matters become controversial. Should teacher education research and doctoral studies be funded mainly through re-allocation of existing resources or should the State contribution increase? It is regarded that these issues have to be resolved in the very near future. In any case it is quite evident that research issues are regarded as key elements in a changed teacher education.

Closely linked to questions concerning doctoral studies and research is the issue of the teacher as a professional. The professionalisation of pedagogical work and the 'universitification' of teacher education are among 'trends' very much in focus in the current debate in Sweden and in other countries (e.g. *Lärarprofessionalism*, 1994 and Simola & Popkewitz, 1996).

I have briefly mentioned relations between pre-service, induction and in-service teacher education. Comparisons between teacher education and e.g. medical education could provide useful insights. To many documents concerning teacher education in Sweden still mainly (or even exclusively) concern pre-service (initial) teacher education. In my opinion the proposals by the 1997 Committee in this respect are not far-reaching enough.

In a European perspective it could be noted that the relatively strong boundaries between the Erasmus and Comenius programmes at present makes it difficult to develop initiatives that cover all three phases of teacher education and teacher work.

Finally, the shortage of subject teachers (particularly in modern languages and mathematics and natural sciences) is serious. Some national initiatives have been taken to remedy the situation. It is, however, quite clear that this issue rapidly will become of extremely high importance.

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Recent Changes in the Context, Content and Processes of Initial Teacher Education in England and Wales

1. Introduction: Raising Standards of Education in England and Wales

1.1 Context

Education has been high on the agenda of all the major political parties in the UK for more than a decade and continues to be so. Like its Conservative Party predecessors, the Labour government elected in May 1997 under the leadership of Tony Blair has declared its intention to 'raise standards' in education right across the board. But of course there are funding implications which have to be considered. The government has therefore awaited with interest the findings of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (NCIHE), chaired by Sir Ron Dearing, which was originally set up by the then Secretary of State for Education and Employment, Gillian Shephard (representing the Conservative Party), on 19th February 1996. The report, which covers all aspects of higher education including initial teacher education, was published in July 1997 and made recommendations for new funding and organizational initiatives. The various proposals made in relation to the idea that students should pay fees and take out loans to fund their courses, either partially or entirely, have met with considerable opposition both within and beyond student circles. Many people are concerned that intending students from less affluent backgrounds will be deterred from entering higher education despite the fact that the government has said that it will attempt to ensure equal access to higher education. Therefore the debates on these issues continue to run and details have yet to be finalized.

At school level, concerted efforts are being made to raise children's achievements in literacy and mathematics, bringing in their wake new centralized policies regarding pre-school education, the way literacy and numeracy are taught and assessed in primary and secondary schools, and the manner in which student teachers are trained to teach these subjects. Much is at stake at both the political and educational levels. On the one hand, political credibility will ride high on demonstrable progress in the different education domains. On the other hand, the raising of morale in the teaching sector and the enhancement of opportunities for Britain's young people are seen by many educationalists as crucial for meeting the country's needs and for withstanding scrutiny on the international comparative stage.

1.2 Overview of the complete system of teacher education

The details given by Greaves (1996) concerning the teacher education system for England and Wales are still valid and helpful in that they are set within a broad historical context. The intervening

two years have seen no major structural changes. There continue to be two traditional paths towards entrance to the profession at both primary and secondary level. The first is via a four-year undergraduate course which gives both a first degree and Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). (For a while there was some interest in promoting three-year courses and indeed a few such courses were set up. However, relatively speaking, these have not proved very popular.)

The second is via a one-year postgraduate course (allowing students to acquire a Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE)). The PGCE course consists almost entirely of professional preparation and is undertaken when a student has spent three or four years at university acquiring a degree in a chosen subject/discipline. At least 18 weeks of the postgraduate course are spent on school-based work.

Entry to the undergraduate route is normally at 18+ years after the Advanced Level examinations in which candidates must obtain a pass in at least two subjects. From September 1998, all candidates born in or after 1979 must also have a grade C in English Language, Mathematics and Science at General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) level (or the recognized equivalent). There continue to be a few shortened concurrent degree courses by which mature students may enter the profession. (For details, see EURYDICE document *In-service Training of Teachers in the European Union and the EFTA/EEA Countries*, p. 164.)

Undergraduate primary and secondary trainee teachers study their main subject for approximately half of their course and follow a professional course for the remainder. At least 32 weeks of the course must now be spent in school. On the undergraduate and postgraduate courses, students preparing for the primary sector cover as much National Curriculum-related subject knowledge as possible relating to English, Mathematics, Science, History, Geography, Design and Technology, Physical Education, Music, Information and Communications Technology (ICT) and Religious Education. All candidates must be interviewed by the teacher-education institution, since their suitability for the profession relies not only on their academic abilities, but on personal qualities, too. It is also usual to be expected to attend a medical examination.

During the last two years, top graduates have tended to avoid teaching as a career - ostensibly because of poor salary and conditions as well as low morale in the profession. One impact of this according to some is that candidates are being accepted on initial teacher education courses these days with lower Advanced Level grade requirements, since fewer people wish to be recruited to the profession. Trainee recruitment is down with 5,000 fewer graduates applying for secondary initial teacher education courses than the government had hoped for. Good honours graduates are voting with their feet and seeking other jobs where the salaries, benefits and overall conditions of employment are more attractive. Maths, sciences, design and technology and modern foreign languages have suffered the biggest falls in applications compared with 1997. However, interest in primary teacher training is healthier with applications almost 1,400 above target. It should be noted, however, that the target does not take into account the government's recently announced intention to ensure that the maximum number of five to seven year olds in a class is 30, beginning in September 1998. This knock-on effect of this situation is that hundreds of schools are facing a staffing crisis. London remains the worst affected area: out of 110 headships advertised in the past year (1997-98), 47 remain unfilled. Nationally, one quarter of headship vacancies are unfilled.

1.3 Initial teacher education

1.3.1 Changes relating to schools

- *OFSTED inspections*

A well publicized feature of the endeavour to raise standards has been a system of inspection by representatives of the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), a non-ministerial government department established under the Education (Schools) Act 1992 to take responsibility for the inspection of educational provision. Its staff include Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMIs). The inspection teams vary in size from a minimum of three up to about eight. Each team is led by a Registered Inspector and would normally have one lay member who has no paid experience of teaching or managing a school. Only people with appropriate experience who have successfully completed OFSTED's training and assessment can participate in inspection. The allocation of schools to inspection teams is done by competitive tender, with OFSTED awarding contracts on a value-for-money basis. When an inspection is completed, the Registered Inspector writes a full report and a summary which are sent to the school, Local Education Authority and OFSTED. The school must send the summary to the parents of every pupil. The school should also send full copies of the report to local media and to local libraries. In addition, a copy of the report must be available in the school.

Much debate has ensued concerning the criteria which govern the OFSTED inspectors' methods of working and the inspection process itself which must conform to a rigid published national framework. In particular, questions have been raised as to whether inspections serve political or educational interests following allegations that some inspections were flawed and the fact that several re-inspections have been called for or taken place. (See, for example, 'The High Price of Polemic' in *The Times Educational Supplement* dated 19th June, 1998, p. 17.) The practice of 'naming and shaming' failing schools and of publishing 'school league tables' relating to test scores achieved by pupils working on standard assessment tasks at 7, 11, 14 and 16 years of age is also highly contested.

Now that the first cycle of inspection of all state-maintained schools has been completed, an independent inspection adjudicator is to be appointed by OFSTED to reflect the government's commitment to keep its systems and standards of inspection under review. Moreover, the government intends to include 'value-added' measures in published school performance tables by the year 2000 for secondary schools and 2002 for primary schools. It is argued that value-added analyses attempt to strip away factors associated with performance that are not related to institutional quality. These include pupils' prior attainment, gender, ethnic group, date of birth, level of special need and social disadvantage. However, the point has been made that any numerical data incorporate a degree of 'statistical uncertainty', and that analyses of performance data - because they are necessarily retrospective - can easily be misleading about current and future performance. In addition, it is difficult to acquire a complete picture of what is going on because different outcome measures highlight different things. For example, a school which shows a high proportion of pupils gaining five or more GCSE A-C grades may be letting down less able pupils. None the less, it seems to be the case that the issue of pursuing value-added data has helped to raise awareness of the complexity of compiling and 'using' performance data. Certainly, value-added analyses are only as good as the data they are based on. Moreover, they do not identify the causes of effectiveness or ineffectiveness and should perhaps be seen as merely one instrument of evaluation to be set alongside more subjective data. For these reasons, it has been suggested that guidelines are needed to help school managers and others to understand what they can and cannot legitimately infer from the different performance analyses.

At the practical level, what trends are indicated by the national inspections? *Secondary Education: A Review of Secondary Schools in England 1993-1997* was published in June 1998. Based on the inspection of more than half a million lessons, this report suggests that the quality of education in secondary schools in England has improved over the four-year period, but that there is a widening gap between standards in the most and least successful schools.

Two out of five secondary schools were considered to be consistently good, but one in ten has significant weaknesses. More pupils are leaving school with better qualifications than four years previously and grades at GCSE level and Advanced Level have risen steadily. However, one pupil out of fourteen leaves school without a formal qualification after eleven years of statutory education.

Concerning primary education, OFSTED has published a set of leaflets, *Standards in the Primary Curriculum* (1997), which summarize the 1996-1997 primary school inspection findings for all national curriculum subjects and religious education. These show that provision and standards in primary school subjects are very variable across the entire subject range.

Inspections since September 1997 also suggest that some three percent of primary schools in England and four percent of secondary schools are being judged by inspectors to be providing an unacceptable standard of education to their pupils. This compares with about two percent in both primary and secondary over the first four years of the school inspection programme in England which started in September 1993.

So what happens to the schools which fail to meet government standards? From September 1998, schools which fail an OFSTED inspection will have just two years in which to meet the required standards with the help of the Local Education Authority. Where this is not the case, the school may be closed, or new senior staff appointed by the government to manage the school.

In addition to formal inspection by OFSTED, schools are being encouraged to undertake self-assessment by using a specially designed Performance And Assessment pack (known as a PANDA). Each school receives a comprehensive set of data which draws on inspection evidence, test and examination performance and teacher assessment results relating to the school's socio-economic environment. This allows schools to compare their performance with that of schools with similar characteristics as well as with national averages. It also helps them to set targets for the future.

- *Teacher appraisal*

The government strategies for raising standards form the backdrop for the new arrangements for teacher appraisal announced in January 1998 by Estelle Morris (Schools Minister) to be implemented from September 1999. Key elements of the new plans are: an annual appraisal cycle with both head teachers and teachers having at least one target linked to the achievement of the school's targets for pupil performance; the involvement of the Local Education Authority and the school's governing body in headteacher appraisal; the involvement of line-managers in the appraisal of teachers.

- *National Awards for Teaching*

The government also aims to give high status to quality classroom practice. For this purpose it has announced that from September 1998 National Teaching Awards (run and awarded by a charitable trust) will be offered to highlight the contribution made by teachers to improving standards. There will be fifteen categories of achievement. According to the *Times Educational Supplement* dated 19th June 1998, "The aim is to raise teacher morale at a time when the profession is in the throes of a recruitment crisis." The extent to which this approach will achieve this aim will only be known in time.

- *Setting up 'Beacon Schools'*

Again with the aim of building up classroom success, the government has decided to establish what will be known as 'Beacon Schools' which will share the secrets of their achievements with other schools as a guiding light to follow. Additional funding will be given to these Beacon Schools to cover the extra work arising from their new status - which will last for an initial three years. It is intended that some of them will become laboratory schools, linking with teacher training establishments in order to provide excellent teaching practice opportunities for trainee teachers. A similar approach has been tried in other European countries such as France, of course, and much might be learned from cross-cultural comparison in the future.

- *Setting up specialist schools*

In June 1998, the government announced reforms which arguably constitute a radical shake-up of the secondary comprehensive school system. It was decided that the number of 'specialist schools' should be increased, bringing the total to more than 330. These schools are designed to nurture pupil talents in specific subjects and the government hopes to make one in seven schools 'specialist' by the next general election in 2002. Schools which cater for children with special education needs can also apply for specialist school status. In addition, there are plans to launch ten pilot schemes in specialist schools where 'master-classes' would be offered to talented 8-14 year olds - beginning in September 1998. These classes will focus on the arts, sport, languages and maths. It is proposed that schools raise £100,000 in private sponsorship before receiving a matching sum from the state. Although allegations have been made such proposals pander to middle-class demands and constitute a back door to selective education, the government denies these with the response that some of the schools are in the most economically-disadvantaged areas. But questions remain. What is the best way to choose pupils for specialist schools? Can it really be said that the existence of such schools is not divisive? Certainly, for some people, the setting up of specialist schools constitutes a paradoxical element in a government policy which states that there should be no selection to schools by examination or interview.

- *Schools within 'Education Action Zones'*

The debate about equality in provision has also been fuelled by the government's plan to set up what have been called 'Education Action Zones' (EAZs). The zones will be in what the Department for Education and Employment calls 'areas of relative disadvantage' where educational performance is well below average. In any given region, they may comprise clusters of up to 40 schools. Their purpose is to raise school standards through establishing local partnerships which include local education authorities, educational institutions, local businesses, training and enterprise councils and other organizations such as churches, football clubs and health authorities. The partnerships have to show that they have audited the strengths and weaknesses of the schools and have set out a strategy for improving performance. The first twenty-five, zones, designated in June 1998, are located in a mix of urban and rural areas. The nation will watch the zones' progress with interest because the partnerships will be able to do things that state schools cannot. All the zones will have business partners which will provide funding, business consultancy, technology, quality work experience and mentoring. Will these things really make a difference? The zone partnerships will also be able to work outside the National Curriculum in order to engage in substantial curriculum innovation (for example, to make education more vocational). In addition, they will be able to vary the pay and conditions of teachers so as to attract the teachers and headteachers they want. Other experimental approaches to be tried in the EAZs include greater and more imaginative use of information technology, greater use of breakfast clubs and after-school clubs, changing the length of the school day, and altering the number of school terms.

Twelve EAZs will commence in September 1998 and a further 13 in January 1999. Each will receive up to £750,000 from the government and are expected to raise £250,000 a year from business in cash or kind, which could mean the loan of staff and the provision of equipment. Each zone will run for between three and five years. During that time it will have 'priority access' to cash from other government sources. As noted above, there will be help to establish specialist schools in these zones. There will also be additional funding to provide literacy schemes, homework clubs, information and communication technology as well as other extras. The government hopes that these EAZ partnerships will raise standards, tackle disadvantage and increase pupils' self-esteem.

However a cautionary note must be sounded, for in most of the 12 EAZs due to start in September, business involvement is going to be measured in kind rather than in money and some partnerships freely admit they have not yet raised the £250,000 private sector money required of them. There is, then, some scepticism about just how many businesses will really want to become financially involved in such endeavours. Contrary views abound. For example, some more overt critics who believe that education is the responsibility of the state are asking why businesses are being asked to help foot the bill. On the other hand, there are those who suggest that public/state sector links are, in fact, too limited and that this has resulted in a host of well-intentioned, but mouse-sized programmes launched to tackle elephant-sized problems. Certainly, it seems unlikely at the moment that Education Action Zones will benefit more than a few of the 5000 schools in disadvantaged communities.

Closer links with the business world are also being forged through the development of work-related learning opportunities for 14-16 year olds in order to promote quality work experience opportunities. These will be complemented by what have been called 'New Start' programmes, involving technical education colleges and Local Education Authorities, which are designed to help at-risk youth aged 14-17 years. Further education colleges will benefit from new funding to expand provision, and especially to widen access to underachievers.

- *The appointment of 'Advanced Skills Teachers' in schools*

The government also hopes to boost teacher morale and to reward excellent classroom teaching by appointing the country's first 'Advanced Skills Teachers' (ASTs) by September 1998. Up to a hundred ASTs will be appointed in specialist schools and Education Action Zones, following a concerted but unpublicized demand for this by the Department for Education and Employment (DFEE). The aim is to enhance the status of teaching, to encourage gifted staff to stay in the classroom and to spread good practice.

The DFEE invited all technology and other specialist schools to bid for the new posts, offering additional salary payments, supply cover for the teachers so that they can visit other schools, and funds for setting up the scheme. Applicants for AST status are interviewed and observed in the classroom by Westminster Education Consultants, a London-based school inspection firm under contract to the DFEE. Vetting is done against strict criteria laid down by the Department. Teachers are required to prove that they excel in: getting results; subject knowledge; lesson and syllabus planning; motivating pupils; maintaining discipline; supporting and advising colleagues. However, research undertaken by Chichester Institute of Higher Education has found nearly two-thirds of teachers are opposed to AST status because they deem it divisive and demoralizing for those excluded from this category. Interestingly, it is reported that opposition was strongest among head teachers. Teaching unions are also largely opposed to the scheme for similar reasons.

- *Base-line assessment of four and five year olds*

Changes to the provision of schooling also affect the very youngest pupils. On 22nd May 1997, the government reported that it would replace the nursery education voucher scheme with new

arrangements based on institutional partnership and cooperation. Therefore, in March 1998, the government announced that all four year olds will be offered free early education places within maintained schools, playgroups or with private providers from September 1998. To support early years education, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority has issued a curriculum statement for under-fives called *Nursery Education: Desirable Outcomes for Children's Learning*, which specifies six areas of learning for this age group: personal and social development; language and literacy, mathematics; knowledge and understanding of the world; physical development; creative development. In order to measure a child's progress more effectively the government has called for statutory baseline assessment to be carried out from September 1998, using a scheme accredited by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). The aim is to provide a clear picture of each child's knowledge, understanding, attitudes and skills and a reference point for the measurement of future school performance. (QCA came into being on 1st October 1997, bringing together the work of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) and the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA).)

- *The school curriculum*

The changes noted above as well as those proposed for the near future need to be seen within the context of the government's desire to prepare a revised National Curriculum for the year 2000. This is to be achieved by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority which has spent almost three years monitoring how the National Curriculum has been implemented in the classroom. Providing a broad, balanced education for all pupils and ensuring that children have a firm grounding in Reading, Writing and Numeracy will be the hallmarks of the revised National Curriculum.

Alterations to the school curriculum have implications, of course, for the way student-teachers are prepared for the profession. Therefore, it is not surprising that changes made to the primary curriculum during the last two years have had an impact on initial teacher education. Under the 1997 Education Act, schools are required to set annual performance targets in literacy and numeracy. At the same time, however, agreements are being made between government and local education authorities about such targets, although it is often unclear as to how the targets of individual schools do or can be made to match up to these. Specifically, the government has strongly recommended (note: it is not statutory), that every primary school spend at least one-hour a day on literacy (the Literacy Hour) and one hour a day on numeracy (the Numeracy Hour). Very precise recommendations for conducting the Literacy Hour are ready for implementation in schools from September 1998 and those for the Numeracy Hour are expected to be in place for September 1999. Considerable efforts have been put into training programmes for serving teachers and those undergoing initial teacher education to support these programmes.

The notion of spending an hour a day on these two subjects is not new for many schools. Indeed, it can be said to go back decades, if not more than a century. What is new is the approach to the subjects within the allotted time frame. A few brief illustrations may serve to give some flavour of this. On the one hand, for example, the Numeracy plans place greater emphasis on mental arithmetic and knowledge of multiplication tables. They also recommend that calculators be used for certain specific purposes only with children under the age of 8 years. On the other hand, a central feature of the Literacy programme is the intention to engage children in more word and sentence level activities than has previously been the case in the last two decades. In both cases, more emphasis is being placed on whole class teaching and careful teacher interaction with pupils while they are engaged in tasks in order to pursue carefully identified learning outcomes.

It is envisaged that these two programmes will help Ministers to fulfil their promise that by 2002 three-quarters of all 11 year olds will be able to achieve level 4 in the national curriculum Mathematics

tests (the average level for that age) and bring reality to the hope that by 2007 all pupils will be able to meet this target.

As a result of the emphasis on literacy and numeracy fears have been expressed about primary schools' capacity to maintain a broad and balanced curriculum. Concerns have been aired about the place of Music, Physical Education, History and Geography in particular. To some extent these worries were fuelled further when, in the early part of 1998, the government decided that English, Mathematics and Science, together with Information/Communications Technology (ICT) and Religious Education (aimed at *teaching about* aspects of all the major faith traditions rather than attempting to indoctrinate pupils from any particular view point) should be considered 'priority' subjects.

At the same time, it was agreed to relax the requirement to cover all aspects of the other National Curriculum subjects at Key Stages One and Two (for children aged 4-7 years and 8-11 years respectively). The requirements have been set out in the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority's document, *Maintaining Breadth and Balance at Key Stages 1 and 2*, published in the summer of 1998. This apparently two-tier curriculum has been fiercely contested, not least by people representing the second tier who, by and large, have subsequently thought it necessary to show how their subject area contributes to the development of literacy (defined as reading, writing, speaking and listening) and numeracy skills.

Readers will note that there is still no formal provision for teaching modern languages to children aged 4-11 years in state-maintained schools. However, in some schools there are informal possibilities via after school clubs and these might be further enhanced by materials taken from the Internet.

Following the launch of the prototype in January 1998, the National Grid for Learning is being developed - although not without teething troubles. The government sees this as a major new resource aimed at improving Internet access for all pupils and lifelong learners and at offering teachers a wide range of Internet-based classroom and professional development resources. It is planned to upgrade the Virtual Teacher Centre which will bring in material from public service TV providers such as the BBC and Channel 4 as well as the private sector. The government hopes that The Standards and Effectiveness Database on the Grid will play a useful role in disseminating good practice, including guidance on setting targets, developing programmes of study, evaluation and assessment. The Grid can be accessed on: <http://www.open.gov.uk/dfee/best.htm> The National Grid for Learning prototype Virtual Teacher Centre and The Standards and Effectiveness Database can be accessed via <http://www.ngfl.gov.uk> Responsibility for managing the Grid rests with the British Educational Communications and Technology Agency whose Web address is: <http://www.becta.org.uk>

Standing in sharp contrast to these developments in ICT are the government's plans to strengthen moral education in schools. To this end, (perhaps following the example of countries such as France which has had civic education programmes in school for many years) Professor Bernard Crick (Emeritus Professor of Politics, Birkbeck College, University of London) was asked to set up an Advisory Group on Education for Citizenship in November 1997 and to make proposals for a programme of study to span the full age range of statutory schooling. This development has to be seen in the light of years of debate about whether or not citizenship should be taught in schools - frequently stemming from disagreements about whose values should be put forward in the classroom and the extent to which any such teaching might be considered indoctrinatory. It has also fuelled the ongoing debate about the place of Religious Education in the curriculum which is still considered by many to make a unique and indispensable contribution to the development of 'the whole child'.

For the time being it is not envisaged that education for citizenship will replace Religious Education, History or Personal, Social and Health education in the curriculum. Rather, it is generally thought that the Citizenship programme will be complementary to them and have its own specific as well as cross-curricular profile in the reshaped National Curriculum of the year 2000. As to the programme's content, it was suggested by some that the focus should be on human rights and international relationships. However, others disagreed, calling for active participation and involvement in civil society, together with an understanding of and willingness to contribute to representative democracy to be highlighted. In the event, the Advisory Group's initial report presented in March 1998 identified three key strands for education for citizenship: social and moral responsibility; community involvement; political literacy. The final report is due to be published in July 1998 in time to inform the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority's review of the National Curriculum.

The extent to which Citizenship education may be dovetailed with the requirement to include a European dimension in the curriculum across the full age range is not clear. Although there are possibilities for combining these two elements, these have not yet been thoroughly explored. The current situation is, therefore, that the European dimension in education continues to provide excellent experiences for young people in places where it is engaged seriously. Overall, however, it seems fair to say that provision is very patchy in quality and in some places it is simply non-existent.

- *Homework*

The momentum for fostering specific 'basic skills' and accelerating pupil progress has flowed over from the school to the home domain. Heavily influenced by a National Federation for Educational Research project (completed in 1995) which showed that almost half of all pupils in their last year of primary schools were not given regular homework, and in the wake of an OFSTED report published that same year which showed that many pupils and their parents believe that work done at home is valuable, the setting and completion of homework are now being given much greater attention in both primary and secondary schools. In April 1998, for example, guidelines for homework were launched for consultation alongside a new framework for study support. The guidelines are intended to offer practical advice for parents and teachers/trainee teachers about how much time children at different ages and stages should spend, on average, reading with their families and doing other homework. Homework clubs are envisaged as part of a wide range of new study support centres that are being set up throughout the country. Summer literacy schools for pupils with special educational needs are also envisaged, beginning with 15 pilot projects to be financed by government and other sources in the summer of 1998. It may be that new technology will play an important part here.

- *Management of pupil behaviour*

In March 1998, the DFEE placed new statutory duties on Local Education Authorities to prepare by December 1998 carefully constructed Behaviour Support Plans to assist schools in improving pupil behaviour and to minimize the number of pupil exclusions and cases of truancy (which continue to rise in many regions). It is envisaged that this should be a coordinated multi-agency approach, involving schools, social services departments, health authorities, the police and parents. LEAs will also be required to make arrangements for tracking the educational progress of pupils being taught out of school so that, where possible, they may return to mainstream learning.

1.3.2 Changes in Initial Teacher Education

- *National curricula for initial teacher education*

The national curriculum in schools may be entering a new state of flux with the launch of its millennial review. But no such uncertainties face students preparing to enter the teaching profession. For the Teacher Training Agency has presented several statutory national curricula for teacher training courses at both secondary and primary level. (See DFEE *Circular Number 4/98: Teaching: High Status, High Standards.*) These curricula cover English, Mathematics, Science, and Information and Communications Technology and are seen as a minimum requirement for initial teacher education (- that is, institutions may include in their courses other aspects of a subject not specified in a given curriculum document). The primary curricula in English and Mathematics and the curriculum for ICT come into force for all initial teacher education courses from September 1998. The requirements for primary Science, and secondary English, Mathematics and Science will be introduced from September 1999, although initial teacher education providers have the option of a voluntary phasing in from September 1998.

Reaction from teacher education institutions ranges from overall approval to indignation. For example, the Universities' Council for the Education of Teachers has indicated concern at the erosion of professional autonomy, academic freedom and the precedent of Government regulation in higher education. There are fears that tight prescriptions could stifle innovation and limit opportunities for change and development. There is certainly the possibility that teacher education, like the school curriculum, could become very narrow such that important areas become totally marginalized. However, the TTA's accreditation of initial teacher education providers depends on courses meeting the relevant criteria. Any provider running a course which does not comply with the relevant criteria risks having its accreditation removed.

One of the practical effects of this is that initial teacher education institutions are required to audit students' subject knowledge in Maths, English, Science, and ICT. Where gaps in trainees' subject knowledge are identified, arrangements must be made to ensure that trainees gain that knowledge so that, by the end of the course, they are competent to use it in their teaching. Exactly how this is to be achieved through Post-Graduate Certificate in Education courses, where students are expected to spend about half of their time teaching in the classroom, is a current subject of debate.

The following summary may serve to provide an overall impression of what is required.

PRIMARY SCIENCE:

Teacher trainees should be taught to help pupils understand that science is important because:

- it helps them make sense of natural phenomena and technology;
- it develops investigative skills;
- it is intellectually stimulating;
- it is an important part of contemporary culture;

Pupils' progress depends on teaching which:

- establishes a framework of basic knowledge;
- requires them to look for scientific explanations in interpreting phenomena;
- develops pupils' scientific skills explicitly.

Trainees should understand that :

- pupils often bring their own incorrect ideas to lessons;
- some scientific ideas seem contrary to everyday experience;
- some ideas are confusingly similar (e.g. melting and dissolving);
- there are sometimes links between apparently different scientific ideas or areas of science and pupils must be taught that ideas which apply in one context may also apply to different areas of life (e.g. that the same principle lies behind the evaporation of water from puddles, drying clothes or paint and the phenomenon of the water cycle);
- models, analogies and illustrations are useful for teaching complex scientific principles, but all have their limitations.

Trainees must be taught that:

- science activities must be designed to lay the foundations for understanding major scientific ideas at a later stage;
- practical science activities can make a major contribution to securing pupils' interest and progress in science, but pupils' scientific knowledge and understanding cannot be developed solely through practical activities.
- it is important to make explicit the scientific knowledge and understanding implicit in science activities and their outcomes;
- it is important to teach the appropriate scientific language;
- pupils must be helped to develop an interest in and enthusiasm for science.

For effective teaching and assessment, trainees must be taught how to:

- select and use the right teaching strategies to take pupils forward, including how to frame skilfully both open and closed questions, how to provide effective exposition, how to use experimental and practical work, how to develop pupils' literacy and numeracy through science work, how to help children communicate their findings and how to handle controversial issues.

The exact knowledge which teacher trainees are expected to have is set out over nine pages of A4 text.

The ICT curriculum deals with the use of technology in teaching all subjects - not the teaching of ICT as a subject. It covers the full range of technology now available, including computers, the Internet, CD-ROM and other software, television and radio, video and cameras. Trainees are required to understand how to use ICT effectively. They should understand:

- the speed and automatic functions of ICT;
- the capacity and range of ICT;
- the interactive capacity of ICT.

These developments in initial teacher education may also be seen within the context of the announcement made in June 1998 by David Blunkett, Education and Employment Secretary, to the effect that 120 new centres of excellence for ICT and high technology will be created to boost local skills training throughout the country.

- *Assessment of student teachers*

Before being awarded Qualified Teacher Status, trainees must demonstrate that they can meet the required national standards. Class teachers, head teachers, mentors and the trainee teachers themselves are involved in the assessment process. The cooperation needed for this to be achieved effectively is being developed in response to new national requirements for partnership between providers of initial teacher education and schools - including quality assurance arrangements. The assessment criteria of individual institutions are based upon the national requirements set out in *Circular 4/98* and are usually developed with input from teacher representatives from schools and other domains of the profession.

The introduction of the new curricula also underpin the 'Career Entry Profiles' (CEPs) which all newly qualified teachers now have to take with them into their first jobs. These set out the standards for qualified teacher status, the training received to meet the required standards and the students' strengths and weaknesses. They also set targets for professional development during the first year of employment in schools.

- *OFSTED inspection*

Providers of Initial teacher education are also subject to inspection. Logged against a rigorous set of criteria, inspection findings are made public and league tables will be published for the first time towards the end of 1998. These steps have been introduced in pursuit of the government's stated intentions to give greater information to students and to encourage providers to raise their standards still further.

It is very important for a provider to be well placed in the league tables since higher levels of funding are given to institutions which are considered to be performing well against the statutory criteria. Therefore, as is the case with schools, inspections of initial teacher education are characterized by debates about criteria, methods and procedures. Some institutions which have failed to meet the criteria have seen departments closed down or reduced in size. Others which have been successful have been re-inspected fairly quickly in order to confirm the initial findings. In both instances, questions have been raised about whether political or educational objectives are being pursued.

1.4 Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

As mentioned above, from September 1998, newly qualified teachers (NQTs) will be expected to take a 'Career Entry Profile' document into their first teaching post. This may then be used by their employer as a basis for determining what strengths an individual may have to share and what support and professional development may be required by that person. In April 1998, plans were announced for the induction year for newly qualified teachers to be re-introduced from September 1999. The intention is that an NQT will teach no more than 90% of the average hours taught by other teachers in the school and will receive a structured programme of support during that first year of employment. Within this period the NQT will be assessed systematically by the head teacher/senior management staff to ensure that (s)he really is able to meet the national criteria for classroom practice. In the event that the NQT does not fulfil the requirements, (s)he will be asked to leave the profession. If the individual still wishes to pursue a career in teaching (s)he will be required to re-enter a teacher education institution and to begin training again.

During the last two years, many schools have had limited funds to spend on in-service training (INSET) and such courses as have been chosen by/for staff to attend have frequently been intended to fulfil either the school's development plan and/or to meet changing government requirements. An individual's personal fulfilment is often secondary to this. In particular, primary schools have experienced difficulties in the face of demands to enhance English, Mathematics, Science and ICT teaching. The subsequent effect has been that in many cases foundation subjects (e.g. Music, Art, Physical Education, History, Geography) and Religious Education have been marginalized. This problem has been accentuated by the fact that advertisements for teaching vacancies tend to specify subject discipline requirements and therefore teachers who want to move on know that if they have attended courses in particular subjects they will have a better chance of being promoted or appointed to a new institution. Where INSET courses are being run in the marginalized subject areas, this has often resulted in an undeniable trend towards showing how those subjects can be used as a springboard for promoting literacy, numeracy and ICT work rather than the wider possibilities of those subject areas *per se*. Whether or not a balance can be achieved in the longer term, following the introduction of the revised National Curriculum in the year 2000 remains to be seen.

Certainly in the short term there have been a number of changes made to INSET in pursuit of the development of market forces in the primary and secondary education sectors. Value for money and quality assurance have become central features of INSET provision as one might expect in such circumstances and there have been some casualties. For example, in some regions, teachers have been faced with travelling hundreds of miles to in-service courses following a controversial new funding regime announced in the early part of 1998 by the Teacher Training Agency which abandoned many established courses and left yawning gaps in regional provision. Particular difficulties were caused for those with heavy family responsibilities who therefore found it difficult to find the time to travel long distances in order to attend a particular course. However, in June 1988, the TTA announced that from September 1999 there will be a better spread of colleges and universities offering professional development and this has certainly been welcomed by many.

Another possible boost for continuing professional development may be the government's intention to set up Individual Learning Accounts (ILAs) as announced by Baroness Tessa Blackstone when addressing the conference of the Association of Teachers and Lecturers in April 1998. It is envisaged that ILAs will allow teachers and lecturers to take better control of their professional development and will parallel the Individual Learning Accounts which will be made available for other sectors in education as part of a programme designed to promote life-long learning for the public as a whole. The aim for the teaching profession is to provide financial support for the first million accounts with individuals being asked to invest a minimum amount of their own money. The plan is that

ILAs will offer additional opportunities beyond the in-service training which the government supports through the Standards Fund and beyond the already established Literacy and ICT skills training programmes. Details have been set out in the *Individual Learning Accounts Development Guide*, published by the Department for Education and Employment.

Another element aimed at improving standards in schools has been developed by the Teacher Training Agency which has put forward: a) a leadership and management programme (HEADLAMP) for newly-appointed headteachers, b) a National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) for those aspiring to headship, and c) a Leadership Programme for serving head teachers. It is envisaged that, within the next few years, all head teachers will gain national professional qualifications designed to enhance their effective management of schools. It is expected that the leadership programme for serving head teachers will begin in Autumn 1998 with funding made available through the Standards Fund. The emphasis on the role of the head teacher in a school contrasts sharply with the findings of representatives of a cross-party education select committee in the canton of Zurich, Switzerland, reported in *Times Educational Supplement* dated 26th June, 1998, p. 4. In this Swiss location, many schools have no specially appointed head teachers - the tasks normally assigned to the head teacher being shared amongst the classroom teaching staff.

The possibilities for enhanced professional development as described above might seem encouraging at first sight. However, as has been argued by Horton (1994), there is no solid tradition of teachers being granted substantial periods of release from classroom teaching and it is not easy for any teacher to undertake sustained professional development except on a part-time basis. What is required is a revised concept of what it means to be a teacher which includes regular breaks from classroom work, so that teachers can pursue longer-term studies which will help them to fulfil the government's demands for significant professional development in pursuit of higher standards in education. The introduction of Career Entry Profiles and the notion of every teacher having the right and responsibility to pursue professional development may have some impact on the demands for and provision of inservice training. Whether or not this might include enhanced opportunities to participate in international teacher exchange programmes is unclear. Certainly a number of teachers have benefited from such schemes but it seems fair to say that on the whole they constitute a fairly small minority. This is undoubtedly a waste in terms of what can be learned across borders and it would seem highly worthwhile to explore further the possibilities for extending the European Credit Transfer System to embrace all forms of inservice education no matter in which country it takes place.

1.5 Postgraduate and PhD Levels

In theory, teachers continue to have a wide range of opportunities to upgrade their qualifications in education. However, the costs involved and the time required are often prohibitive. Part-time study may be achieved through university departments of education and the Open University, but tremendous efforts are required from candidates if they are to sustain their studies as well as earn a living or shoulder other kinds of responsibilities. Taught masters and doctoral degrees offered through modularized programmes of study are becoming more widespread and, gradually, more popular. Masters degrees by research continue to require candidates to complete a thesis of between 60,000 - 80,000 words, while doctoral theses are usually of 80,000 - 100,000 words. There is no recognition in the teachers' pay award system itself for any higher degree work.

1.6 Role of research in teacher education

There has been a general re-kindling of interest in making educational research less esoteric and more closely linked to specific classroom issues and problems. The ideal here would probably be for teachers to be equipped with research skills such that they may conduct classroom-based action research and feed the findings directly back into their planning for teaching and learning. One possibility would be for teachers to have more non-contact time with pupils in order to take such steps on their own or with colleagues. Another possibility would be for professional researchers to engage in joint, participative classroom research such that the findings could be utilized or disseminated in a number of ways.

Several national funding bodies are awarding grants to research projects which are specifically in line with promoting the government's objectives for education and involve teacher/professional researcher partnerships. This may be seen within the context of a wider move to assess the research output of British universities in terms of its overall potential to convey practical impacts and outcomes. Here it has to be acknowledged that opinions are divided. Some people argue that such trends limit academic freedom and stifle possibilities for meeting people's needs in innovative ways in the future. Others say that, if current resources are limited, then it is only sensible to give priority to meeting people's needs here and now. The next Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), through which the research contributions of individual university departments will be monitored, is due to take place in 2001. Opinions continue to be divided concerning the ways in which the provision of initial teacher education can or should be placed alongside the pursuit of university level research programmes. Both place heavy demands on time such that balancing the two often constitutes a delicate task.

1.7 Other measures

Transnational cooperation in the field of initial teacher education is developing, but it seems fair to say that progress is slow. Exchanges made through SOCRATES and ERASMUS programmes are becoming more common, but a very great deal needs to be done before it can be said that all trainee teachers are offered elements in their courses which incorporate a European dimension. At university level, grants are being awarded for teacher trainer mobility and some very worthwhile experiences have been recorded. However, the number of participants is relatively limited.

2 New needs in teacher education

Firstly, the prime intention of successive governments seems to be trying to produce measurable advances in educational provision and achievement. The key word here is 'measurable'; hence the emphasis on teacher competencies, levels of pupil achievement in standardized tests and league tables. However, there is a growing call for the need to pay attention to pupils' progress, not just their attainment. The introduction of baseline assessment for four and five year olds and together with the requirement to evaluate systematically and to record pupils' progress from year to year may be said to reflect this. Nevertheless, it has to be recognized, of course, that such data *per se* do not tell us what factors either promote or impede progress/ attainment.

More effort needs to be put into developing home/school relationships, community/school links and finding out about pupils' personal experiences of school. Pupil truancy and exclusions from school have increased during the last few years which suggests that the development of personal

relationships between teachers and pupils might be important - a topic which does not figure prominently in government criteria for what constitutes a successful teacher. Similarly, many other issues are frequently ignored, for example: meeting the needs of gifted pupils and those with different kinds of learning difficulties; facilitating the education of children who use English as a second language and have cross-national ties; helping to assist pupils who are physically disabled. While the validity of promoting pupils' 'basic skills' and enhancing their achievements in different subject domains is certainly worthy of attention on teacher education courses, space needs to be found in the teacher education curriculum and/or in the programmes for continuing professional development to address these other matters more consistently.

Secondly, teaching about other cultures from the earliest years continues to require re-examination if Britain is really to take its place in Europe and the wider world at all levels. Much more could also be done to learn from different aspects of Britain as a multi-cultural society and such learning could be shared with people in other countries who find themselves in similar circumstances. Helping people to use the full range of ICT effectively could be of great benefit here.

There is also a continuing need for intending student teachers to be given better opportunities to develop foreign language skills if they so wish - and since language context is quite as important as the content of language teaching - it seems logical to develop language competence through periods of study abroad or within different ethnic community groups in Britain. This will require representatives of all ethnic/national groups to recognize that although what other people have to offer in terms of educational experience may be very different from what one is used to, none the less it may be fully valid in terms of acquiring wider perspectives on human understanding and development.

3. New measures for new needs

In order to respond to the first point made in the previous section, there could be a much better identification and prioritizing of what is really required *and feasible* at the level of initial teacher education and how a wider spectrum of issues could be addressed through inservice education.

Similarly, trainee teachers could be systematically helped throughout their initial teacher education courses to develop basic research skills so that they are able to engage in action research either individually or as part of a team in school classrooms. By this means they could pursue educational questions and issues which interest them and feed the findings back into their planning procedures. In addition, they could be introduced to the various means by which they could disseminate their findings to a wider public.

In response to the second point made above, many people in different countries are wary of the European Credit Transfer System. It would seem vital to keep it simple, to involve a wide range of people in developing it, and to encourage those who have taken part in studies abroad to talk to others about their experiences - good and bad, so that those who follow may be better empowered to gain more from their endeavours.

Evaluation of Teacher Education in England and Wales

It should be stressed that evaluation of the courses for Initial Teacher Training in England and Wales is complex and varied and includes internal and external methods, including self assessment (course evaluation, student evaluation, peer evaluation, external examiners systems etc.), some of which are also given weight by OFSTED in reaching their judgements. Our system of external scrutiny by External Examiners, who are practising faculty from other institutions or senior people from schools etc. with relevant expertise, works well. They are appointed to a subject on a course, or with a general remit for pedagogy etc. on the course, for a period of 3 or 4 years. They visit, moderate written work, interview students and, for relevant examiners, visit students in schools. Their yearly reports are taken very seriously.

In addition to this outside scrutiny there is also the involvement of fellow university-level peers within the funding council for university-level education as a whole, who make periodic visits and audits of every faculty/institution. The internal checks are both peer and top-down and bottom-up, in the sense that students have an important and influential say in the evaluation and subsequent conduct of each individual section of their courses. There is also classroom observation of tutors and the normal other strategies as part of annual or bi-annual staff appraisal. However, I assume the area which will most interest those in the rest of Europe, will be that which focuses on what is, in practice, the evaluation of the teacher-training providers, through the performance of student-teachers and newly qualified teachers (NQTs) as seen by OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education) in their inspection of HEIs (Higher Education Institutions) {I call them this but include University departments and independent colleges and training schools [SCITTs]}, Section 10 Inspections of Schools where there are NQTs in post, and scrutiny of data the trainers are obliged to provide. I will therefore concentrate on this.

1. Framework for evaluation

To understand the system, the situation must be set in context. The facts are: all providers of ITT and INSET in England and Wales must be accredited, by the Secretary of State for Education and Employment through the TTA (Teacher Training Agency). To be accredited they must fulfil certain requirements which change over time. A principal one of these is that all courses must conform to the former DFE/DfEE 'circulars' (9/92;14/93; 10/97) now superseded by Circular 4/98, which have all laid out what and how long courses should be and also covered such things as entry requirements, assessment, resourcing, etc. Circular 10/97 introduced the first national curriculum for ITT, in a limited number of subjects, Circular 4/98 incorporates that and takes it a lot further, including:

- Standards for the Award of QTS

- Initial Teacher Training Curriculum for the use of Information and Communications Technology in subject teaching
- ITT curriculum for Primary English
- ITT curriculum for Primary Maths
- ITT curriculum for Primary Science
- ITT curriculum for Secondary English
- ITT curriculum for Secondary mathematics
- ITT curriculum for Secondary Science
- Requirements for all courses of ITT

These are to be brought in over a period between September 1998 and 2000.

Institutions can and do have their accreditation withdrawn. This generally follows an inspection by OFSTED and can be immediate or after a period allowed for 'improvement' and re-inspection which confirms the required changes have not been made.

Intake into teacher-training courses is strictly controlled centrally; there are penalties for breaking allocation quota.

The quality of all these areas will be evaluated through:

- OFSTED inspection
- Institutional Returns (including details of intake).

All training establishments will be rated and on this rating, allocation of the number of students they are allowed to take in a year, and payment for the tuition of these students made. TTA have made it known that for the next allocation round (1999-2000) allocations will be made solely in terms of OFSTED inspection grades.

Qualifying students for the teaching profession in England and Wales for all types of schools and age groups in the state sector, must now have a record of their learning and performance to date, on the completion of their course. This, the so-called Career Entry Profile (1), follows them into their school career and lays down guidelines for their needs during the induction year in their first post (the 'probationary year' was scrapped a few years ago. This induction year replaces it, giving the NQT, responsibilities and rights to further professional development, and will over the next few years be developed into a Continuous Professional Development (CPD) profile for all teachers throughout their career. A start has been made on this for headteachers and those seeking promotion, but it is progressing more slowly than intended. The former 'Competences' have now been replaced by 'Standards' as spelt out in Circular 4/98 and contained in the Framework for the Assessment of Quality and Standards in ITT.

2. Evidence used for 'Quality'

Inspection

It is on the progress to these standards, made by the individual student-teacher or NQT, that the quality of an institution's course is judged, and its rating decided. To date this has followed the series of inspections carried out by OFSTED on behalf of the TTA, the 'Framework for the Assessment of Quality and Standards in ITT'. There are different inspections for primary and secondary courses, but they follow a roughly similar pattern.

All primary providers were inspected in the 'Primary Sweep' over the years 1994-6, preceding the 'Framework for the Assessment of Quality and Standards in ITT', and grades were given. This was followed up (from 1997) by the 'Primary Follow-Up Survey' (PFUS) looking specifically at reading and number. This was generally carried out by scrutiny of the 1-year PGCE course unless an institution had only undergraduate courses. All institutions will have been rated by this second survey in time to make decisions about allocation categories for 1999/2000 (the next 'round', to which these tables will apply).

The secondary position is a little different in that not all secondary special subject courses had, and have not yet, been completed. Therefore providers were invited to submit 'self-grades' for these courses. The criteria for self-grading were of course provided. Where courses were subsequently inspected and self-grades were at variance with the inspectors' grading, then adjustments were made. There is considerable debate over whether and what kind of penalties should be imposed for inaccurate 'self-grading'.

Inspection is carried out through so called 'cells'; in primary PFUS these were:

- ST1 the trainees' subject knowledge and understanding;
- ST2 the trainees' planning, teaching and classroom management;
- ST3 the trainees' monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability;
- T1 the quality of the overall design and content of the training;
- T2 the quality of the training process in developing knowledge, understanding and skills set out in the standards for the award of QTS [Qualified Teacher Status];
- T3 the quality of the trainees' response to training and their progress towards achieving standards for the award of QTS; and
- T4 the accuracy and consistency of the assessment of trainees against the standards for the award of QTS.

In secondary:

- ST1 the trainees' subject knowledge for teaching in the relevant age-range;
- ST2 the trainees' planning, teaching and classroom management;
- ST3 the trainees' assessment, recording and reporting of pupils' progress;
- T2 the quality of the training process in developing knowledge, understanding and skills set out in the standards for the award of QTS;

T4 the accuracy and consistency of the assessment of trainees against the standards for the award of QTS.

S1 the quality of the admissions policy and the selection procedures.

(please note the initials defining categories have changed: 'STs' were formerly 'Cs').

Judgements were made on a scale of 1-4 and grades* given as follows:

For primary:

Allocation Category PFUS Inspection grades for reading and number in Cells ST1, ST2, ST3, T2 and T4

A Grade 1 in at least four standard cells, at least two of which are in number and two in reading, and no lower than grade 2s in the others

B No lower than grade 2s across the board

C At least two grade 2s and no lower than grade 3s in the others

Borderline No lower than grade 3 in any cell

Unsatisfactory One or more grade 4s

* A total of 14 grades (seven for reading and seven for number) are to be reported for each provider from the primary follow-up survey.

For secondary:

Allocation Category OFSTED ITT Inspection Grades in Cells ST1, ST2, ST3, T2 and T4

A Grade 1s in all three teaching standards cells, and no lower than grade 2s in the others

B No lower than grade 2's across the board

C At least one grade 2 and no lower than grade 3s in the others

Borderline No lower than grade 3 in any cell

Unsatisfactory One or more grade 4s

The standard cells for category A are weighted. This reflects the Framework for the Assessment of Quality and Standards conviction that 'the key indicator of effectiveness in initial teacher training is how well trainees perform as teachers at the end of their course.'

It may be noted that cell S1 was not taken into account when calculating grades. There has been much discussion on this point, but after consultation the TTA decided against its inclusion since this would increase the likelihood of a provider gaining a single grade 3, (therefore not graded above C) and for a comparatively lowly-rated cell in the Quality Assessment Framework. This would not be desirable.

3. How the inspections are carried out

A Primary example - the follow-up survey

Inspection team personnel:

HMIs (Her Majesty’s Inspectors) and Additional Inspectors (AIs): these will usually be or will have been heads or senior teachers, school OFSTED inspectors or staff of HEIs. All AIs have experience and expertise in the teaching of reading or number. Each team is led by a reporting inspector (RI) who is an HMI. All AIs are trained prior to the inspection (3 days) and 1 day’s training with a subject specialist HMI, in the scrutiny of the providers documentation (including a list placing the students in the cohort in grades*). In addition to this they will have the advice and training given by the RI during joint observation, interviewing of staff and students and on completing inspection schedules. RIs act as mentors, moderators and monitors throughout the inspection cycle.

* CATEGORY	NAME OF STUDENT
GRADE 1	Very good
GRADE 2	Good, with no significant weaknesses.
GRADE 3	Adequate, but requiring improvement. Among the weakest but still expected to pass.
GRADE 4	Poor Likely to fail Not to be seen by OFSTED

A sample of students across the range is selected to be visited during their School Experience.

As part of the evaluation of the quality of the provider, a process known as ‘moderated self-assessment’ is used in which the ranked student cohort grading is compared with the gradings of the students observed, on each competence cell, with those of the HEIs. Where there is significant difference between them, the RI will moderate the self-assessment before reaching the final grade for each cell. Through this process six competence grades for reading and number (C1 -C3 (now ST1 etc., since the change from ‘competences’ to ‘standards’) are given to the HEIs.

Time scale:

Normally four visits of 1; 3; 3; and 5 days spread across Autumn, Spring and Summer of an academic year. The first visit is for planning (RI), the second (RI, AI reading, AI number) and third (AI reading, AI number) focus on the training of the students and the fourth (as second) on the teaching competences of the students.

In Visit One the RI will collect documentation*, have meetings with the staff of the provider, arrange the time for Visit Two and gather timetable information in order to arrange Visit Three. Both these visits are essentially to inspect training both in HEIs and schools. Documentation and notes will then be sent to the AIs and any necessary training done.

*see Annex A for a complete list

Visits Two and Three focus on observation of training sessions and meetings with HEI staff and students and looking at other evidence such as written work completed by the students. Also during the Spring Term anonymous questionnaires are distributed by the HEI on behalf of the RI, to each of the students on the course being inspected and for all ex-students who are now NQTs. One of

these covers reading the other number. They focus on the students' experiences of teaching reading and number; their perceptions of their training to teach reading and number; and their confidence and perceived strengths or weaknesses in the teaching of reading and number. The information gained from these will be used in the same way as any other information obtained from students. NQT returns are used to inform cell T2.

RI and AI meet after Visits Two and Three have taken place to moderate judgements and to discuss issues likely to arise for Visit Four.

During the fourth Visit, which is programmed well in advance, Inspectors concentrate on the students' teaching competence in reading and number. These take place during a period of School Experience. The inspectors not only observe students, but also interview them and their class teacher or mentor and scrutinise their Teaching Practice File and Profile.

Time allocation for a day's inspection is approximately as follows:

student	Lesson observation Interview with class teacher	Students' TP File and Profile	Interview with
Student 1	45 - 60 minutes	45 minutes	60 minutes 15 minutes
Student 2	45 - 60 minutes	45 minutes	60 minutes 15 minutes

After moderation visits by the RI, the AI will then place each of the students in a grade.

RI hold a team meeting late on day four or early on day five to finalise and agree grades for reading and number and to organise the final feedback which is formal and usually given in a joint meeting of RI, AIs and senior staff and tutors responsible for reading and number.

The indicative proportions to be used for Inspectors' grading of Cells C1, C2, C3 (now ST1 etc.) are given in the table below:

GRADE 1	A majority of students are Grade 1 and almost all of the others are Grade 2
GRADE 2	Most students (75%) are grade 1 or 2; no more than 25% are Grade 3
GRADE 3	All students are graded 1, 2, or 3 or can clearly be expected to reach at least grade 3 before the award of QTS
GRADE 4	At least one student who is graded 3 or above by the provider is graded 4 by an inspector and in the inspector's judgement will not acquire an adequate level of competence before the end of the course

N.B.

Students graded 4 by the provider are not seen by inspectors but are counted in with grade 3 students when percentages are being calculated. Having previously identified grade 4 students does not prevent any level of grade being given.

OFSTED publishes a written report on each inspection. These are available to the TTA, DFEE, providers, press and public.

Section 10 Inspection

When a school is inspected under Section 10, grades are awarded to lessons taught by NQTs and more experienced teachers. Since 1998 OFSTED has recorded the name of the trainer for all NQTs seen. When the evidence database is deemed to be sufficient at some point in the future, then this evidence will also be used to award allocation categories to providers.

Data collected under the Framework

For making decisions about allocations in 1989/99 a further battery of data-return was gathered in. In practice little use was made of these data, in differentiating between providers in the same allocation category, none in primary, some marginal use in secondary, it seems likely it will be used in future particularly where it supports TTA policy objectives (the TTA is likely to use the information relating to the number of NQTs getting a teaching job in London, to inform decisions for the next intake allocation).

The following were taken into consideration:

- entry qualification;
- the recruitment of men onto primary courses;
- the recruitment of trainees from ethnic minority groups;
- job success rates; and
- job success rates in areas of teacher shortage.

Further data were collected to judge the 'distinctiveness' of providers within the same allocation category; the data collected will be self-evident:

Criteria for Judging Distinctiveness:

- 1 Primary providers which receive a grade 1 for cell S1 (the quality of the admissions policy and selection procedures)
- 2 Providers whose undergraduate intake has an average A/AS[*] level point score of 20 or more
- 3 Providers for which 60% or more of the postgraduate intake have initial degree class of upper second or better
- 4 Primary providers whose intake of men is 20% and above
- 5 Providers whose intake from ethnic minorities is 10% and above
- 6 Providers for whom 90% or more of the NQTs secure teaching posts
- 7 Providers for whom 90% or more of the NQTs secure teaching posts, the majority of which are in areas of teacher shortage

* the national higher-level examinations, traditionally taken at the end of schooling at age 18.

Final grading

All of this evidence, or its equivalent for secondary courses, is then used to determine the grading of the institution for allocation categories.

Note:

(1) Career Entry profile: It is completed by the student under the direction and guidance of the University. It has details of their course, distinctive features of the programme, TTA levels reached in each subject. The heart of the document is that they are asked to identify four strengths and four weaknesses in their professional 'toolbox'.

Annex A

List of documentation required from providers

For all inspectors:

ITT prospectus for PGCE course (except where providers have no primary PGCE and therefore undergraduate courses are inspected);

Overall course diagram;

Course hours;

Statements on coverage of reading and number;

Programme/timetables of training sessions in reading and number which take place in late Autumn or Spring terms;

Staff contact list;

Site plan;

CVs of staff who teach number or reading on the PGCE course;

A list of the names and schools of ex-students who are NQTs.

For reading inspectors:

English external examiners' reports;

Student evaluation of English course;

Course reviews of PGCE English course (or general reviews which refer to English);

English course structure and contents showing where/how reading is covered (including handbooks, handouts, bibliographies, resource lists, any other teaching materials);

Material on assignments/directed tasks on reading;

Notes of guidance for school-based staff on how they should support/train students in the teaching of reading.

For number inspectors:

Mathematics external examiners' reports;

Student evaluation of mathematics course;

Course reviews of PGCE mathematics course (or general reviews which refer to mathematics);

Mathematics Course structure and content showing where/how number is covered (including handbooks, bibliographies, resource lists, any other teaching materials);

Material on assignments/directed tasks on number;

Notes of guidance for school-based staff on how they should support/train students in the teaching of number.

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