

ENTEPE
THE FIRST TEN YEARS AFTER
BOLOGNA



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Șos. Panduri, 90–92, București – 050663; Telefon/Fax: 021.410.23.84

E-mail: editura_unibuc@yahoo.com

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I. Gassner, Otmar (ed.)

II. Kerger, Lucien (ed.)

III. Schratz, Michael

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INTRODUCTION

The European Network on Teacher Education Policies (ENTEP) was formed on the initiative of the Portuguese Minister of Education in 1999. This book celebrates a decade of intensive debate concerning the critical teacher education policy issues that were brought to light by the Bologna Declaration – which was, by happy coincidence, launched that same year. The book describes some of the milestones of ENTEP's work and discusses some of the major teacher education policy issues that have arisen during the decade.

The first 10 years of ENTEP's life have been marked by two official ENTEP texts. The *General Framework* was written at the outset; the Position Paper redefines the position of the network some 10 years on.

ENTEP has always sought to bring to fruition its vision for a European higher education area (EHEA) and to express its conviction that teacher education must have a special place in this newly- created European landscape. From these two concepts has sprung the idea of a European Teacher education area (ETEA), which ENTEP sees as an area within EHEA that is characterised by particular features and qualities of its own.

The first three chapters in this book give an overview of relevant issues from various perspectives. Otmar Gassner (Austria), a founder member of the network, gives a personal view of teacher education issues. His chapter is informed not only by his long experience but also by his time as coordinator of ENTEP (2004–2007). Paul Holdsworth (European Commission) describes the European Commission initiatives in this field. Romita Iucu (Romania) spans a range of issues that arose from the Bologna process – including its implications for teacher education and its impact on quality development – as well as giving an overview of recent reforms in teacher education in all European member states.

The next two texts were written in 2005 and 2007 respectively and are available in print for the first time in this volume. *The European Teacher* by ENTEP/Schratz (Austria) has had a significant impact and initiated a broad discussion on questions of 'European-ness' and mobility within the profession. The text that follows, which is by ENTEP/ Uzerli and Kerger (Germany/Luxembourg), discusses key issues concerning continuous professional development and the policy-level changes required in the member states if the demands of a knowledge-based society are to be met.

The issues discussed in the third part of the book reflect both the personal interests of the ENTEP contributors and the national significance that these topics have (or once had) in their countries of origin. Research-based teacher education is a concept that is closely associated with Finnish teacher education policy (Armi Mikkola), just as induction is a key topic in Estonia (Eve Eisenschmidt). The text from Cyprus on teacher evaluation (Elena Hajikakou and Athena Michaelidou) grew out of a 2007 ENTEP conference and a national attempt to redefine the relevant issues in this field and prepare a course of action. The same holds true for the text from Slovenia by Cveta Radzdevsek Pucko *on Partnership and Research in Teacher Education for Innovation and Creativity*. Liesbeth Hens (of the Flemish community in Belgium) and Marilyne Rémer (France) take a closer look at how quality assurance systems can contribute to improvements in initial teacher education institutions; in doing so, they make reference to the systems in place in different European countries.

In the last part of the book, two case studies that were presented by the ENTEP members from Luxembourg and the Netherlands have been included to demonstrate policy in action. Michelle Brendel and Denis Scuto from Luxembourg University describe an innovative integrated pre-school and primary school. This inclusive and multicultural school encourages a multidisciplinary approach among staff members and has systematically introduced field research activities, which are undertaken by teachers. Marieke Dresen and Leo Tillmans from the Netherlands show how a ‘laboratory school’ can enhance those learning communities where teacher education institutions and academic schools are able to work in close cooperation.

We wish to thank Michael Day and his team as well as Agnès Prüm for the close look at the language of the contributions and Danielle Wagner for her conscientious work with the layout and the organisation of the texts. We also wish to thank Romita Iucu for his offer to provide funding for this book and get it published at Bucharest University.

Otmar Gassner, Lucien Kerger, Michael Schratz (editors)

GENERAL FRAMEWORK OF THE EUROPEAN NETWORK ON TEACHER EDUCATION POLICIES (ENTEPE)

In recent years, co-operation among European Union Member States in the field on teacher education has been developing with the support of several Community programmes and instruments, in particular the Socrates programme. This co-operation focuses mainly on teacher education providers and the teachers themselves. The establishment of the European Network on Teacher Education Policies aims to reinforce this, and to develop the political dimension involving all relevant agencies.

This initiative derives from a proposal put forward in July 1999 by the Portuguese Minister of Education to his Colleagues in the European Union Member States. This invited them to consider whether they would be interested in the establishment of such a Network, to be launched under the Portuguese Presidency of the Council of the European Union, during the first semester of 2000.

Currently, Ministers of Education of thirteen European Union Member States have joined this initiative (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom) and appointed their representatives to work on establishing the Network. The European Commission guaranteed that adequate follow-up of this Network will be organised

These representatives of the Ministers of Education, who have come together for their first meeting on May 21 in Loulé, Portugal, have agreed on the following:

I. Network membership

Representatives of the Ministers of Education of the European Union Member States and a representative of the European Commission constitute the European Network on Teacher Education Policies (ENTEPE).

II. Network goals

ENTEPE exists to promote co-operation among European Union Member States regarding their teacher education policies in relation to initial, in-service and continuous professional development programmes, in order to:

1. Develop opportunities to learn from each other by analysing and comparing policies and issues, as well as by sharing good practices;
2. Promote the discussion and analysis of teacher education policies initiatives taken at national and European level;
3. Contribute to:
 - a) Raising teacher education quality so as, in turn, to raise the quality of education and training in the European Union in a way which responds to the challenges of lifelong learning in a knowledge-based society;
 - b) Developing a European dimension of education, and other elements which could be common in teacher education programmes;
 - c) Improving the public image of the teaching profession;
 - d) Improving mutual trust in the teaching qualifications awarded by Member States;
 - e) Promoting teacher mobility in the European Union.

III. Network activities

1. To attain its goals, the ministerial representatives will meet regularly and develop several kinds of activities, such as:
 - a) The organisation of conferences/seminars for open discussion and sharing knowledge on the basis of written and oral presentations related to specific challenges and issues on teacher education policies;
 - b) The organisation of exchanges and study visits for teacher education policy-makers;
 - c) The production of reports describing, comparing and analysing the present situation and future trends of teacher education policies, globally or regarding specific aspects;
 - d) The regular and systematic exchange of information, policy documents, consultation proposals, and other materials relevant to the development of teacher education policy (especially unresolved questions where collective discussion would be beneficial);
 - e) The stimulation, development of, and experimentation with innovative forms of networking and information transfer.
2. The Network will endeavour to involve other European countries in its activities.
3. In Annex I are listed some of the issues that may be considered by network activities.

IV. Network organisation

1. During an initial period the network will define its own organisation and functioning and promote its first initiatives.
2. During this initial period the network will be coordinated by Portugal with the support of the Member States holding the Presidency of the Council of the European Union within this period.
3. A meeting of the network will be held at least once a year.

ANNEX I

Some issues for possible consideration under the network

1. New challenges to the professional teacher profile (the ability: to ensure all school pupils, including those from disadvantaged groups, achieve their potential; to deal with the problems arising from the presence of pupils with different cultural backgrounds; to make use of research in teaching; to play a full part in whole school activities and in self-evaluation, in order to facilitate its continuous improvement and development; to be prepared for solving pedagogical problems and for theory-guided teaching; to know how to use information and communication technologies in teaching; and to take account of the European dimension of education in their teaching...).
2. Shortage of teacher education candidates, or of good candidates (attraction of enough good students into teaching; improvement of their recruitment; competition between the teaching profession and other professions for the most talented individuals...).
3. Higher education and school partnerships (the development of working partnerships between teacher education institutions and primary and secondary schools and the encouragement of good schools to participate in these; school research-based teacher education...).
4. Continuous teacher education systems (promotion of the lifelong learning perspective in professional teacher education and development; articulation in a coherent system of initial, induction, in-service and further teacher education; linking continuous teacher professional development with school improvement and quality assurance and with school-based educational research...).
5. Teacher education and teacher career advancement (the promotion of relevant in-service teacher education to help teachers handle the ever-changing teaching problems with which they are confronted, and overcome gaps between learning goals and students achievement; the links between in-service training and specialised functions in schools to aid career progression; the assessment and accreditation of teacher competencies...).
6. Obstacles to teacher mobility caused by teacher education (the obstacles to the mutual recognition of teacher education professional periods of study and diplomas relying on differences in teacher education programmes, on their approval/professional accreditation methods and on the ways qualified teacher status is certified...).
7. Issues concerning equal opportunities, including gender and ethnic differences in teacher education and teachers' work, and the composition of the teaching force.
8. Research and graduate studies related to teacher education and teachers' work

THE ROLE OF ENTEP

as re-defined in 2009

In 1999 the Portuguese Minister of Education put forward a proposal for the establishment of a European network, with the aim of strengthening cooperation among European Union Member States. In this proposal there was a clear focus on developing the political dimension of teacher education and thus involving all relevant players in the field.

In pursuit of this goal, ENTEP dedicated its cooperative engagement to policy development in all phases of teacher education: initial, induction and continuous professional development. This involved considering the policy visions currently held by member countries, discussing new approaches and relevant interventions and developing opportunities to learn from each other. (For more details, *see Role of ENTEP 2000* and *The Framework of ENTEP, 2000*.)

As an independent high-level discussion group of ministers' representatives, ENTEP is a no-budget network directly linked to national teacher education policy-making. The contributions made by ministers' representatives, informed by their different national backgrounds, stimulate discussion.

At European Commission level, ENTEP serves as a sounding board for new policy issues. Member states benefit from the network as an advisory or reference group. In this capacity, it helps them to identify and exchange ideas on crucial issues relating to the present reforms in teacher education. In order to build bridges between the thematic work of ENTEP and the European Commission, a member of the Commission takes part in ENTEP conferences on a regular basis, contributing to specific topics within the overall Education and Training 2010 work programme. The Commission may also ask ENTEP to engage in certain thematic issues. The ENTEP Coordinator is also a member of the 'teachers and trainers' cluster and thus acts as a link between the two groups.

ENTEPE has been involved in a number of different types of activities, including:

- 1 taking an advisory role in national thematic conferences
- 2 holding specific seminars
- 3 contributing diverse national viewpoints on selected issues in member countries
- 4 disseminating outcomes through print and online publications
- 5 conceiving reflection papers

- 6 playing an active role (through a number of ENTEP members) in national groups – with opportunities for dissemination and multiplication of ENTEP working outcomes.

In all these activities, and in many different ways, ENTEP has proved to be effective.

Various member states appreciate ENTEP as a competent partner in the educational discourse that takes place within the context of their nation. Many benefit from the support and recommendations that are offered via analyses of European practice. The focus is on responding to the challenges of lifelong learning and the knowledge-based society; however, the aim is not necessarily to refer to 'best practice'. Instead, ENTEP's way of working is to consider current national and European developments and trends in teacher education policies and to share positive and sometimes negative experiences of the change process. Network members can also make use of ENTEP working outcomes in national contexts: for example, where national players in the sector of teacher education are reluctant to share their vision or to participate in the European debate.

The following features are relevant to the future work of ENTEP:

- 7 ENTEP is an independent group of representatives, responsible to their national ministers only. Ministers can thus make use of information on developments in the field of teacher education in other countries.
- 8 ENTEP takes on board national policy positions and ministers' views and condenses them into policy statements. In addition, however, representatives also contribute their visions as experts in the field and thus add value to the network's themes and working outcomes.
- 9 ENTEP can be invited to engage in specific topics of interest to the Commission (or to other bodies) and may therefore act as a sounding board.
- 10 ENTEP is highly visible as a cooperative body in the European modernisation of teacher education and associated policy development.
- 11 ENTEP policy papers are appreciated in the member states: they are conceived for and received by educators in all European countries and decision-makers as well as policy-makers in the ministries.
- 12 ENTEP is one of the players in the arena of educational policy and does not intend to take a coordinating role.

Frankfurt, March 2009

ENTEPE AND EUROPEAN TEACHER EDUCATION: POLICY ISSUES SINCE 2000

OTMAR GASSNER

This article looks at trends in teacher education and at major teacher education policy issues identified by the European Network on Teacher Education Policies (ENTEPE) since its foundation in May 2000. The work done helps to draw conclusions and to map out an agenda for the future. However, the views expressed in this paper are those of the author, who has also decided on its scope and on the weight given to different elements.

ENTEPE: the beginning – aims and visions

The origins of ENTEPE date from a proposal put forward in July 1999 by the Portuguese Minister of Education. In this proposal, he invited colleagues in the European Union member states to jointly establish a network that, involving all relevant players, would help to develop the political dimension of teacher education in Europe. ENTEPE was formally launched at an international conference under the Portuguese Presidency, held in Loulé (Algarve) in May 2000.

The main aims of ENTEPE are developing, discussing and reflecting on teacher education policy issues in initial teacher education and in continuous professional development. As a no-budget network of ministers' representatives that organises its own meetings and agenda, ENTEPE is an independent body providing a forum for high-level discussions. ENTEPE representatives are a mixed group with a variety of backgrounds. There are university professors and researchers, educational executives and senior civil servants. This mixture makes for different perspectives and for a varied focus, providing more or less direct links to the national ministers of education; there is also a link to the European Commission. ENTEPE is neither a decision-making group nor an expert group. It is an advisory or reference group for individual member states and also acts as a sounding board for the European Commission.

The goals of the network are best described by a quotation from the original source, the general framework document from 2000.

ENTEPE exists to promote co-operation among European Union Member States regarding their teacher education policies in relation to initial, in-service and continuous professional development programmes, in order to:

- *Develop opportunities to learn from each other by analysing and comparing policies and issues, as well as by sharing good practices*
 - *Promote the discussion and analysis of teacher education policy initiatives taken at national and European level*
 - *Contribute to:*
 - *raising teacher education quality so as, in turn, to raise the quality of education and training in the European Union in a way which responds to the challenges of lifelong learning in a knowledge-based society*
 - *developing a European dimension of education, and other elements which could be common in teacher education programmes*
 - *improving the public image of the teaching profession*
 - *improving mutual trust in the teaching qualifications awarded by Member States*
 - *promoting teacher mobility in the European Union.*
- (ENTEPE, 2000)

The key points of this statement clearly are the willingness, if not eagerness, of those involved to learn from each other and trust each other, the importance of the European dimension and the desire to raise the quality of teacher education.

However, education needs more than a catalogue of aims and objectives: it needs vision. In 2001, Graham Holley worked with the ENTEPE group to formulate a vision statement for the Network. The following three paragraphs from this vision statement serve as a starting point for the present discussion.

It is the year 2007. Europe has a leading role in education worldwide. The teaching profession is attractive and highly valued, including by young people. All of the diverse training routes are attuned to the needs both of schools and trainees/students. A constructive dialogue between the two takes place. Schools, teachers, students and other stakeholders add immense value both to the quality of life and to the life chances of future citizens. Teachers and parents take a leadership and collaborative role in creating schools and classrooms as learning organisations in which students are educated to the highest standards. Students are helped to become socially adjusted, well-educated, adaptable citizens of Europe who value lifelong learning [...].

All teachers are 'learning professionals'. Many remain closely connected with higher education institutions and may be engaged with research. They all routinely spend time reflecting on their experiences and updating their knowledge, skills and competences. They are entitled to sabbaticals designed to extend their research or personal development. All are experts in teaching and in creating highly effective learning environments in their classrooms and schools. Many are subject experts and share their knowledge throughout their own school

as well as with others. [...] They help pupils to learn how to learn and how to develop their critical thinking skills. [...]

Teachers are fully supported in building their expertise and in maximising their time. They are provided with excellent initial and in-service training and education (guided by regular and effective performance reviews and evaluations), regular opportunities for study visits at home and abroad, research scholarships and sabbaticals. Through ICT, which they use extensively, they have instant access to a comprehensive range of topical materials and support systems. [...]

(ENTEP/Holley, 2001)

The year 2007 may have seemed far away at the time when the vision statement was written, but is now in the past. However, our educational reality is still lagging behind the one described here and the vision remains only a vision.

Some of the key words from this vision statement, together with the ENTEP objectives and the work done to date, will serve as guidelines in the following attempt to identify trends and key policy issues in teacher education from a European perspective.

Issues and Trends in Teacher Education in Europe

The trends observed form two strands. The first concerns the restructuring of higher education in Europe by 2010; the second focuses on measures and initiatives designed to raise the quality of education in general and of teacher education in particular.

There are a number of reasons why European education has embarked on this difficult process of system change. In 1999 the direction was clearly marked with the goal of becoming 'the most competitive economy' and of creating a 'knowledge-based society'. Of course, the connection between good education for all future citizens and a thriving economy is obvious.

But above all, a European identity overarching our national identities must emerge so that as well as feeling that we are Austrians, Romanians or Slovenes we must also identify ourselves as Europeans. Our future competitors in the arena of education are not to be found within Europe but in the larger nations worldwide.

This means that the education of the next generation must be top priority and that quality in education will be the critical success factor. The role of teacher education in this bid for quality has been widely recognised – as is shown by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) study *Teachers Matter*, 2005.

Teacher policy is high on national agendas. The far-reaching economic and social changes underway have made high-quality schooling more important than ever before. The demands on schools and teachers are becoming more complex. [...] All countries are seeking to improve their schools, and to respond better to higher social and economic expectations. Schooling provides the foundation for learning throughout life, and for individual and national development. As the most significant resource in schools, teachers are central to school improvement efforts. Improving the efficiency and equity of schooling depends, in large measure, on ensuring that competent people want to work as teachers, that their teaching is of high quality, and that all students have access to high-quality teaching.

(OECD, 2005, 13)

Clearly there is a need for the best possible schools and the best possible teachers – and this has a bearing on the systems of teacher education as well as on teacher education policies.

Trend strand one: Bologna

Bologna and the European Higher Education Area

The European Higher Education Area is under construction and the continuing efforts of all participating nations will be required to guarantee the success of this vital enterprise.

With the goals set, we need comparability of systems, certifications, qualifications, joint research projects and degree programmes that take account of and allow for mobility. We also need a new European identity in the field of education, in addition to our national identities.

The huge differences in teacher education in the various member states were an obvious starting point for investigations. In the 1970s and 1980s, teachers in Europe were educated in universities, in pedagogical universities, in teacher training colleges and in the upper secondary sector. There was great variation in the length of study programmes: 'In Italy it takes an average of 8 years of tertiary education to train as an upper secondary teacher compared to 4 years in Australia and England' (OECD, 2005, 21). If our objective is 'comparability of systems, certifications, and qualifications', then we must continue to take steps towards this.

So after Sorbonne, it was the Bologna Declaration of June 1999 that set the ball rolling. One of the key issues that dominated the European discussion in the years following was, and still is, as follows: if we want Europe to move closer together,

and if we want to increase mobility in the teaching profession, we need to develop a new quality of trust. Trust cannot be prescribed by law: it has to be promoted and supported by appropriate measures. Just as we need to have 'easily readable and comparable' degrees, it was agreed that we also need to converge the national systems of teacher education. However, not all countries are willing to change their national systems in a way that would align them to European structures.

Comparing systems



Figure 1: Campos, 2000: Teacher Education Policies in the European Union (ENTEP)

A first attempt by ENTEP to compare national systems of teacher education was made in the publication following the first conference in Loulé, Portugal, in 2000 (Campos, 2000). Something similar was done later by Pavel Zgaga, covering 12 countries of south-eastern Europe (Zgaga, 2006). In these descriptive studies, the extent to which teacher education is a national concern – with idiosyncratic features rooted in national history and tradition – becomes immediately apparent.

In the Bologna declaration a general time structure for study programmes at higher education institutions was suggested. There were to be three cycles, taking three years, two years and three-to-four years respectively.

This general structure should make study programmes comparable on the basis of duration. Bologna allows for flexibility within the first two cycles in the system,

describing three-plus-two as the default option, but also allowing four-plus-one. The point of flexibility seems to be overstretched, however, when one component from each of the above options is selected, resulting in three-plus-one or four-plus-two. In both cases the area of comparability (which means five years for the first two cycles in higher education) has been left.

There are only a few countries where teacher education programmes that lead to Qualified Teacher Status last only three years (for example, England – and Austria for primary and lower secondary). In most countries (for example, Denmark and Cyprus), the Bachelor programmes in teacher education last four years: universities argue that initial teacher education together with extended practice in a concurrent model cannot be delivered in three.

It is interesting to observe that many of the countries that have been in the European Union for a long time are fairly slow on the road suggested by the Bologna declaration. Whereas the UK, for instance, is in the favourable position of having three-year teacher education programmes in place already, it has shown little inclination to change the existing Masters programmes from one year to two.

A number of countries that had four-to-five-year study programmes before Bologna seem reluctant to change to the two-cycle system (for example, Austria). In many cases where they do change, the new two-cycle structure is introduced without providing for employability after the first cycle (for example, Czech Republic).

Even the countries that have adopted a three-two structure have done little else to bring their programmes into closer alignment with those of other countries. This is because there is agreement on the number of credits, but on little else. There is a fundamental difference between programmes based on the *concurrent* model and others based on a consecutive model. For this reason, the three-year programmes in England, those in Austria or Poland and those in the Czech Republic are not really comparable.

Convergence and diversity

The process of convergence is a critical one, and differing interpretations in the light of the national context might well lead to a new diversity. The process is ongoing and needs to be watched closely. ENTEP has produced a paper on this issue, with the title *The Bologna process and teacher education structures in Europe: creating a European teacher education area* (ENTEPE/Dimitropoulos, 2008), which confirms an emerging new diversity. There is now agreement on the secure place of

teacher education in the tertiary sector, whereas the duration of initial primary school teacher education still varies from three to five years in different countries. In over three-quarters of countries, primary school teachers are educated in universities. This is establishing a strong trend towards an increase in the number of years of study. This may eventually lead to a Master's level degree as a requirement for qualification.

Whereas the duration of initial subject teacher education ranges from four to six-and-a-half years across countries, there is agreement that a degree is a requirement for qualification, with the majority of programmes requiring a Master's degree. Most of the subject teachers are already educated at universities, with a continuing trend in this direction. (For details see ENTEP/Dimitropoulos, 2008 and OECD, 2005.)

What seems to emerge is some convergence on a formal level; however, this does not guarantee genuine comparability. The main issue is a lack of content specifications, which opens up new areas of diversity. The work undertaken so far falls short of the objective and needs to be intensified to focus on content and competences in teacher education programmes. Only then will teacher education programmes be truly comparable across Europe, and only then will they be a sound basis for employability in all member states.

The European Credit Transfer System (ECTS)

This issue has also been addressed from another angle, namely that of student workload defined in ECTS points. When ECTS was developed into a credit accumulation system, this was a step towards making study programmes comparable. But if it only referred to student workload, only the amount of student time spent could be compared – and this is an unsatisfactory and unreliable indicator for comparison. The *Tuning Project* has done excellent work in this area, adding the components of learning outcomes and competences in addition to student workload to define ECTS in a more complex and efficient way.

Tuning develops reference points for common curricula on the basis of agreed competences and learning outcomes as well as cycle level descriptors for many subject areas. This should enhance recognition and European integration of diplomas, taking into consideration the diversity of cultures.
(Tuning website, 2009)

It is obvious that great efforts will be necessary at European, national and institutional level to move ahead and closer together in this area.

System change – are we beginning to learn from each other?

An emerging trend is that European states and institutions appear to be becoming more willing to learn from one other. David Hargreaves chose a telling title for his keynote address in Loulé in 2000: *How to design and implement a revolution in teacher education and training: some lessons from England* (Hargreaves, 2000, 75–88). ‘Good practice’, ‘best practice’ or even ‘next practice’ have been keywords in the educational discussions of the past and it is in this context that ‘lessons’ have their place.

The ENTEP conference of 2002, held in Feldkirch, Austria, focused on *Strategies of Change in Teacher Education*. At that time, Austria was in the middle of a system change that moved initial teacher education from the post-secondary sector into the tertiary sector and replaced teaching diplomas with a Bachelor of Education degree. The keynote addresses from the Netherlands, England, Ireland and Portugal gave delegates lessons to learn from, providing models to consider and take on board. This sharing of information and experience was particularly useful in the design of the new Austrian Universities of Education, with their new initial teacher education programmes.

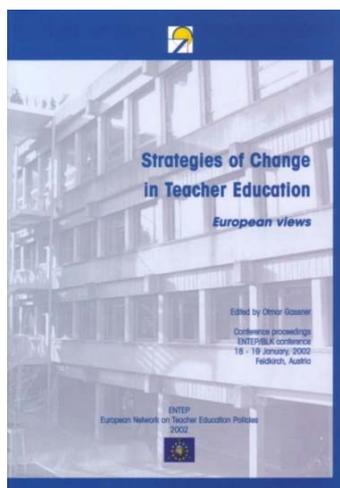


Figure 2: Gassner, 2002: Strategies of Change in Teacher Education (ENTEPE)

Although some countries, such as Ireland, had opted for keeping teacher education in teacher education colleges with strong links to the universities (Cremin, 2002), the main trend, as identified by Joao Formosinho from Portugal, was towards 'universitisation'. In Portugal, teacher education was moved to the universities – with all the uncertainties and the potential strife between state interest in teacher education policy and university autonomy that this may involve (Formosinho, 2002). A move in the opposite direction characterised the reforms in England, where there was a shift from a university-based system of teacher education to a largely school-based system of teacher training (Jacques, 2002, 63).

These are contrasting models that do not lend themselves easily to comparability. It seems obvious that the outward structures will not be the same and teacher education will continue to be organised differently in various European countries. Nevertheless, there will be more common ground in the coming years and there are good reasons for building up trust in each other's qualifications.

The European Higher Education Area has become a reality and, although it is still in its infancy, strong links have already been established, with a large number of higher education institutions in Latin America (see Tuning Latin America), strengthening the European approach.

Mobility

In a multicultural and multilingual Europe it is considered valuable for teachers to have first-hand experience of other European cultures and countries, of other school systems and systems of teacher education. Mobility is part of the European dimension and was explored in the much-debated ENTEP paper 'What is a European Teacher?' (2005).

A European Teacher experiences the benefits of the European Union in part through easy mobility. This mobility encompasses studying abroad and learning languages as well as getting acquainted with other EU countries' cultures. He/she may seek employment in other countries and use exchange programmes offered by the European Union. This contributes towards the creation of a Europe of different languages and cultures, and nurtures cultural diversity as a vision for living together in the future.
(ENTEPE/Schratz, 2005, 5)

In September 2006 the ENTEP conference in Helsinki also highlighted mobility as a feature of quality in teacher education. The Joint Interim Report of 2004 equally set great store by mobility.

Mobility for learning or teaching purposes should be increased at all levels, notably as part of the Community education and training programmes. Particular attention should be paid to mobility of teachers and trainers as part of their career development.

(Council, 2004, 29)

The various European Union programmes supporting student and teacher mobility have made a valuable contribution towards a growing mutual understanding and towards creating a truly European identity. A further important step will be to implant teacher mobility in continuous professional development activities and to ensure that these activities are adequately recognised in the national context as a crucial factor in upgrading teacher knowledge and skills. The new quality of mobility could foreshadow a more open exchange of teachers on the educational labour market in Europe and might help to counteract problems of teacher shortage in any one country.

Trend strand two: Quality

The quality of education and training is directly related to the quality of teacher education. This view is shared widely and features in a number of leading publications.

Teachers play a crucial role in supporting the learning experience of young people and adult learners. They are key players in how education systems evolve and in the implementation of the reforms which can make the European Union the highest performing knowledge-driven economy in the world by 2010.

(Common European Principles, 2005, 1)

The Joint Interim Report of 2004 states:

The success of the reforms undertaken hinges directly on the motivation and the quality of education and training staff. Member States should therefore [...] implement measures to make the teacher/trainer profession more attractive. This includes steps to attract the best talents to the profession and to retain them, including through attractive working conditions and adequate career structure and development.

(Council, 2004, 24)

The 2005 OECD study *Teachers Matter* points out that:

There is now substantial research indicating that the quality of teachers and their teaching are the most important factors in student outcomes that are open to policy influence.

(OECD, 2005, 12)

In the United States of America, the same view is expressed in the 'Action Agenda for College and University Presidents' – *To Touch the Future: Transforming the Way Teachers Are Taught*:

We know from empirical data what our intuition has always told us: Teachers make a difference. We now know that teachers make the difference. [...] The evidence [...] is clear and convincing: The single factor that is more powerful than any other in influencing student achievement gains is the quality of the teacher.

(American Council on Education, 1999, 5)

The last supporting voice on this point comes from the European Commission of August 2007:

The quality of teaching is one key factor in determining whether the European Union can increase its competitiveness in the globalised world. Research shows that teacher quality is significantly and positively correlated with pupil attainment and that it is the most important within-school aspect explaining student performance (its effects are much larger than the effects of school organisation, leadership or financial conditions). Furthermore, other studies have found positive relationships between in-service teacher training and student achievement and 'suggest that an in-service training program [...] raised children's achievement [...] (and) suggest that teacher training may provide a less costly means of increasing test scores than reducing class size or adding school hours'.

(Commission of the European Community, Communication 2007a, 3)

It is worth pointing out that the European Trades Union Committee for Education identified the same crucial areas for action in their 2006 survey (Thorslund et al., 2006, 2) and the McKinsey study also comes up with basically the same conclusions (Barber and Mourshed, 2007).

While there is general agreement that we need to increase the quality of teacher performance, there is less agreement on the measures to be taken. The buzzwords include professionalisation, selection, induction, lifelong learning, competences, teacher profiles, standards, research-based education, evidence-based practice, training the trainers, career incentives, school leadership, teacher evaluation, quality assurance, and common European principles.

Measures to improve quality

In this section, a number of quality-related policy issues are identified: some of these have been on the agenda of ENTEP conferences and others have been developed into ENTEP papers. There is widespread agreement on the priority of these issues if we are to improve the quality of education, as demonstrated in papers by the American Council on Education (1999), the OECD (2005), and the European Trade Union Committee for Education (ETUCE, 2008).

Selection into teacher education

The high priority of the selection process in the bid for quality in teacher education has been widely acknowledged by voices from all over Europe and from the United States of America.

Colleges and universities need to intensify their efforts to recruit into the teaching profession the ablest of America's college students and to set high standards for admission into teacher education programs.
(American Council on Education 1999, 8)

In Finland, rigorous selection procedures at the entry point into teacher education programmes are in place. The selection procedure has two phases, the first of which is a nationwide written test. The second phase is designed by individual universities and may include a combination of different elements. These elements may include: grades awarded in the matriculation examination and the upper secondary school leaving certificate; assignments based on set books and other material; essays; individual and group interviews; observed teaching; other group situations; psychological tests; and different types of demonstrations. A test of motivation and aptitude is an important part of the second phase.

The entry requirements for subject teacher education are the same as for class teacher education and students are selected according to their main subject. Selection criteria relate both to aptitude and to knowledge of the teaching subject.

Finnish teacher education has not found it difficult to attract well-qualified applicants. In class teacher education given by eight universities the number of applicants in 2007 was 6000 and the actual intake 900; in 2008 the number of applicants was 5513 and the actual intake 850 (see VAKAVA, 2009).

McKinsey and Co make the same point and refer to Singapore and Finland as two countries with rigorous selection procedures and, in consequence, teaching as a high-status profession. In countries where there are no selection criteria, the main problem is to attract a sufficient number of high performers into the profession (Barber and Mourshed, 2007, 17-19).

At policy level, there is little dispute about the value of rigorous selection processes. It has become a truism to say that such procedures as are carried out in Ireland and Finland lead to better quality of student teachers and, eventually, to better qualified teachers. Nevertheless, entrance selection remains rather unpopular and politically difficult in some countries.

Although there is enough evidence that this policy measure makes an essential contribution to the quality of new teachers, it is not (yet) widely adopted – and where it is adopted, the approach is often not rigorous enough.

Induction

There is evidence to support the assumption that an induction phase at the start of a teaching career improves the quality of teaching as well as increasing self-confidence and self-esteem among newly qualified teachers.

In successful programmes, mentor teachers in schools provide guidance and supervision to beginning teachers in close cooperation with the initial teacher education institution.
(OECD 2005, 135)

However, according to the latest data available from Eurybase 2002/03 on the issue under discussion, there are 16 countries in Europe that have no induction phase for their teachers (Commission 2007a, 8). In this respect, England's approach may well be regarded as good practice.

The induction period combines an individualised programme of support, which provides opportunities for NQTs [newly qualified teachers] to further develop their knowledge, skills and achievements in relation to the standards for the award of QTS [qualified teacher status], with an assessment of their performance. It takes account of the NQT's strengths and areas for development as set out in the Career Entry and Development Profile which each NQT brings from initial teacher training to their first teaching post. Such profiles summarise information about the new teacher's strengths and about priorities for their further professional development.
(TDA, 2008)

This policy measure has been recognised as effective through research and peer learning activities, but implementation is often politically difficult. From what we have seen so far, it seems fair to say that the present weakness in European education is not at policy level, but at the implementation stage, which is a national matter. There is no lack of knowledge about the measures to be taken; there is rather a lack of political will to implement policy decisions.

Profiles, competences and standards

The set of competences (and, where available, standards) used as outcome descriptions in initial teacher education programmes should be developed into teacher profiles informing job descriptions and assessment procedures.

There is widespread recognition that countries need to have clear and concise statements of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do, and these teacher profiles need to be embedded throughout the school and teacher education systems.
(OECD 2005, 13)

These profiles can be seen as threatening and as a list of things that a teacher must be able to do. In the Netherlands, however, it was the unions in close cooperation with the teaching force that developed sets of teacher competences to show publicly what teachers can do.

This measure strongly supports self-reflection, peer-evaluation and external assessment – both in the teacher education institution and on the job. If used widely, it would provide crucial information for individual continuous professional development plans and, in this respect, teacher profiles could be an essential element

in quality assurance processes. (see Dutch teacher competences and requirements, 2008)

Training the trainers

Another issue that needs to be brought to the fore is the qualifications of the teacher trainers. In a number of cases, mentors and teacher educators are appointed to the job without being trained for it. Having a certain position at university might carry with it the requirement of being a teacher educator and/or a mentor. At the 2003 ENTEP conference in Tallinn, the topic 'Training the trainers' was discussed, and it was agreed that there is still a lot of work to do in this area, across Europe. Too little is done to ensure that university staff are qualified to mentor students in school practice and provide adequate support as the trainees learn to become reflective practitioners. Profiles for teacher educators and mentors could be used to address this issue.



Figure 3: Krabi 2005: Õpetajakoolituse õppejõud - hariduse kvaliteedi võti? (ENTEP)

Research orientation

The Role of Graduate and Postgraduate Studies and Research in Teacher Education Reform Policies in the European Union was the title of a book published in the wake of the 2001 ENTEP conference in Umea, Sweden. The title emphasises firstly the significance given to the claim that teacher education must be represented in all three cycles. This is based on the conviction that teacher education is a

discipline in its own right, with a secure place in the higher education area; it cannot be considered as a training issue that might be relegated to the first cycle.

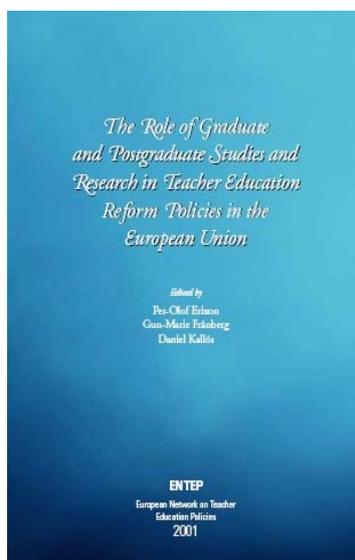


Figure 4: Erixon et al., 2005: *The Role of Graduate and Postgraduate Studies and Research in Teacher Education Reform Policies in the European Union* (ENTEPE)

The second point raised by the title of this publication is the relevance of research in teacher education. This seems to be a particularly strong tradition in Scandinavian countries, but it has been recognised across Europe as a central constituent of all teacher education programmes. Research needs to be conducted at all levels: it must inform teacher education programmes and taught content, it must actively involve the teaching staff and it must reach the students. It must be a field for doctoral dissertations and it must be an ongoing source of new knowledge in a teacher's lifelong learning.

This key function of research is acknowledged by a recently founded Scandinavia-based network on Teacher Education Policy in Europe (TEPE) as well as in *Common European Principles*, where one of the recommendations referring to the quality of teacher education states that:

the contribution of research and evidence based practice to the development of new knowledge about education and training should be promoted.

(Common European Principles, 2005, 4)

The objective must be to equip new teachers with the knowledge that they need to be able to reflect on their own practice and that of their colleagues. As reflective practitioners, these teachers will be able to approach their own classroom performance with a sound research attitude that allows the disciplined study of any classroom-related problem areas. As a result, they will be able to make evidence-based decisions about teaching and about individual professional development needs. (See Mikkola, in this volume, 115–120.)

Study programme components

Bearing in mind the points discussed above, it seems legitimate to assume that there is considerable research-based knowledge available on the subject of how initial teacher education programmes should be designed and what components they should contain. In an attempt to identify key components of successful and effective teacher education programmes, the work done in the *Tuning Project* should be considered. Attention might also be paid to the points listed by the American Task Force on Teacher Education in *Transforming the Way Teachers Are Taught*:

1. *arts and sciences faculty and education faculty have developed an effective way to combine their contributions*
2. *the program is supported by the central administration of the institution and by school leaders in the community*
3. *applicants seeking to become teachers are admitted through a thoughtfully designed process of matriculation*
4. *graduates of teacher education programs are carefully guided into and supported in a community of teachers and learners, not just cut adrift after graduation*
5. *program elements – especially subject matter learning and clinical training – are tightly articulated, with practice coupled to theory*
6. *program quality and outcomes are carefully, independently, and continuously assessed. (American Council on Education 1999, 7)*

A challenging statement on the qualities and skills that a teacher needs to acquire was formulated by ETUCE in its 2008 policy paper:

A key concept in teacher education is that of the teacher as a high status professional: qualified to higher education level, with a recognised range of professional competences, able to exercise a significant degree of professional autonomy and judgement, and expected both to take responsibility for their own continuous professional development and to contribute to the profession as a

whole and the development of educational policy and practice. Initial teacher education and induction must be expected to lay the foundations for this rounded high status career.
(ETUCE 2008, 12)

Three points made in *Transforming the Way Teachers Are Taught* summarise the issue.

A thorough grounding in college-level subject matter and professional competence in pedagogical practice are necessary for good teaching. [...] Research indicates that the best teachers know not only what to teach but also how to teach. [...] Command of the subject matter that will be taught, high overall academic performance, and sound professional knowledge, then, are the three essential competencies of effective teachers.
(American Council on Education 1999, 6-7)

It must be the aim of European teacher education institutions to assure that they provide new teachers with the best possible preparation for the job. It is well known that the learning process of teachers has only just started when they begin teaching.

Teacher education programmes in Europe and in the United States map out a large area of common ground and show little dissent in their selection of the elements that are considered essential to high-quality outcomes. These are:

- 1 close cooperation of all university faculties involved in initial teacher education
- 2 the support of university administration and headteachers in the community
- 3 selection into teacher education
- 4 subject-matter competence
- 5 professional competence in pedagogical theory and practice
- 6 professional autonomy (reflective practitioner, continuing professional development)
- 7 constructive involvement in educational policy and practice
- 8 status-related accountability.

Teacher development as a continuum

Not even the best initial teacher education programmes can deliver all the competences and skills that teachers will need for the rest of their professional lives. Therefore, the development of teacher competences must be seen as a continuous

process. Quality is process-oriented and covers the whole career of a teacher. Teacher education does not end with the initial phase, not even with the certification of qualified teacher status after induction. As far as a teacher's accountability is concerned, his or her education does not end before retirement. One of the main objectives of initial teacher education is to enable teachers to reflect on their own teaching, to identify their own learning needs and to plan their own professional development through access to the most recent research.

Teachers' awareness of their own continuous professional development needs is not strong enough to regulate the market. Thus, a great amount of continuous professional development offered is supply-driven and short term. This paradigm of professional development is outdated and will not suffice to upgrade the knowledge base of the teaching force in Europe.

As far as good practice is concerned, the Swedish government action *Lärarlyftet* is exemplary:

The Government has set aside [€ 400.000.000] for the period 2007-2010 to allow teachers to receive 80 per cent of their current pay while studying. [...] Nearly a quarter of all teachers will receive further education over the next few years. Some 30 000 fully qualified teachers will be offered a chance to study at a higher education institution.
(Lärarlyftet, 2008)

What is remarkable about this initiative is not only the amount of funding provided, but the understanding of continuous professional development as a long-term activity that can be personally designed to meet each individual teacher's requirements. The development activities may last for any time between three weeks and half a year. What is absolutely exceptional is the fact that this is a full-time study programme at a higher education institution rather than a supplementary programme that is delivered on top of the teacher's normal workload.

But this is clearly the exception to the rule. Continuous professional development is a highly problematic issue across Europe – not because related policy issues are unresolved, but because the transfer of European policies to the national level, and the resulting implementation at national level, has been only partially successful.

Career incentives – retaining effective teachers

Continuous professional development is strongly linked to personal career perspectives, which are not supported by the flat hierarchies that are characteristic of schools. The general complaint of teachers is that the reward for good teaching is only in the teaching itself: there is very little resembling promotion, which is taken for granted in the world of business. A teacher with ambitions can only move into administration and become a headteacher or leave the profession altogether.

One measure that would help to make the profession attractive and might keep effective teachers in their jobs would be to introduce adequate career structures. There are interesting developments, especially in the UK, that seek to address the problem of experienced teachers leaving classroom work for management jobs. Two schemes have been created that could serve as a model in Europe: the 'advanced skills teacher' scheme, introduced in England in 2000, and the 'excellent teacher' scheme, introduced in 2006. Both schemes create a new category of teacher and make use of the potential and expertise of experienced teachers.

Advanced skills teachers are:

teachers who have been recognised through external assessment as having excellent classroom practice. They are given additional payment and increased non-contact time in order to share their skills and experience with other teachers, within their own school and from other schools. (Department for Education and Skills, 2009)

The excellent teacher scheme was implemented in September 2006 and was from the start envisaged as 'the pinnacle of the classroom teacher's role and a distinctive part of the teaching career structure'. It is important to see how this career option is firmly linked to high-quality components.

Excellent Teacher posts will be awarded to teachers with an established track record of sustained high-quality teaching. In addition to their normal duties in the classroom, Excellent Teachers will have a distinctive role in helping other teachers improve their effectiveness, and will have a major impact on improving pupil attainment across the whole school. However, unlike Advanced Skills Teachers, they will have no outreach work — in other words, no formalised role at other schools. (Excellent Teacher, 2006)

England has found ways to open career paths to teachers that will clearly help to retain them in the teaching force and increase their job satisfaction. It can be

expected that these teachers will perform better and longer and will therefore repay the initial investment.

Efforts to break up the 'flat' career of teachers are made in a number of countries, especially in Australia, England and Wales, Ireland, Canada (Quebec) and the United States (OECD, 2005, 167). It is worth noting that in the United States, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards offers a special National Board Certification for teachers that meet rigorous standards of performance (see NBPTS, 2009). Certification of this kind, if it exists within a national system, can be used to single teachers out for outstanding career paths. Additionally, these teachers have a positive impact on the system as a whole:

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards improves teaching and student learning. [...] Teachers who achieve National Board Certification have met rigorous standards through intensive study, expert evaluation, self-assessment and peer review.

In a congressionally-mandated study, National Board Certification was recently recognized by the National Research Council as having a positive impact on student achievement, teacher retention, and professional development. [...] These teachers prepare America's diverse student population with the skills it needs to compete in the 21st century workplace.
(NBPTS, 2009)

Other quality issues

In addition to the measures discussed above, a powerful tool to ensure higher-quality teaching is to move away from lifelong teaching qualifications to renewable teaching licences. This has hardly been considered as an option in Europe, although it is common practice in the United States and was mentioned in *Teachers Matter* in 2005. This measure first of all makes sure that after an initial phase of five years' teaching the authorities can assess a teacher's performance and make an informed decision about his or her future career as a teacher. Renewable licences could provide a framework for monitoring continuous professional development, with a set requirement of a minimum number of professional development hours made compulsory within a five-year period.

In the OECD *Synthesis Report* based on *Teachers Matter*, this has already been formulated as one of the important measures:

Employment status based on a system of on-going contracts with the requirement that teachers renew their certificates after a period of time, such as every 5-7 years.

(McKenzie et al., 2004)

The report continues with a statement that might be controversial in a number of countries: 'Teachers achieve employment security by continuing to do a good job rather than by regulation.' (McKenzie et al., 2004)

The following is taken from the website of the New York State Education Department.

Initial Certificate

Description: The entry-level certificate for classroom teachers, issued in specific subject/grade titles.

Validity: Valid for 5 years.

Leads to: Professional Certificate

Professional Certificate

Description: The advanced-level certificate for classroom teachers (issued in specific subject/grade titles).

Validity: Continuously valid with completion of required professional development hours on a five-year professional development cycle.

Adapted from: New York State Education Department, 2009

Other levers that help to raise quality in schools are more effective training of school leaders and prudent use of teacher evaluation. School leadership was the topic of the Vilnius ENTEP conference in May 2007, and is high on the agenda of Scotland, Lithuania and Austria. Teacher evaluation was the focus of the Cyprus ENTEP conference in 2006 (see Michaelidou in this volume, pp. XX). Teachers themselves, and especially teacher unions, often take a negative attitude towards having their performance evaluated. However, teacher evaluation can serve to have teachers' work recognised and may even provide a basis for rewarding teachers for exemplary performance. Evaluation can also help to identify teacher's developmental needs. This view has been corroborated by the TALIS survey:

An important finding of TALIS is that teachers generally respond positively to appraisal and feedback (Table 5.7a). They report that it is fair and helpful for their work and that it increases their job satisfaction and to a lesser extent their job security. In addition, teachers report that it significantly increases their development as teachers (Table 5.7 and Figures 5.8-5.13). Teachers' positive perceptions of appraisal and feedback show that it is possible to overcome concerns that have previously been raised about such practices.
(OECD 2009b, 7)

However, in many instances appraisal and feedback cultures still fail to have the desired impact as, according to TALIS, there is not enough stringent action based on evaluation results.

Most teachers work in schools that do not reward effective teachers and do not dismiss teachers who perform poorly. Three-quarters of teachers reported that, in their schools, the most effective teachers do not receive the most recognition. A similar proportion reported that, in their schools, teachers would not be dismissed because of sustained poor performance.
(OECD 2009a, 138)

Policy knowledge and implementation problems

The discussion of issues concerning quality demonstrates that there is acute awareness of these crucial areas at policy level. The problem areas have been identified and the solutions designed, taking into account both the theoretical foundations and examples of best practice. However, the implementation stage, which is an exclusively national responsibility, is often limited in its success. Discussion of this point will be based on two ENTEP papers on the continuous professional development of teachers (Gassner, 2002, and ENTEP/ Uzerli and Kerger, 2007) and other European policy papers.

Statement 1, from Common European Principles, 2005:

Teachers' work [...] should be embedded in a professional continuum of lifelong learning which includes initial teacher education, induction and continuing professional development, as they cannot be expected to possess all the necessary competences on completing their initial teacher education. (4)

Statement 2, from *Teachers Matter: Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers. Executive Summary*. November 2004:

The stages of initial teacher education, induction and professional development need to be much better interconnected to create a more coherent learning and development system for teachers. A statement of teacher competencies and performance standards at different stages of their career will provide a framework for the teacher development continuum. As part of this there needs to be a clear set of expectations about teachers' own responsibilities for their on-going development, and a structure of support to facilitate their growth. (11)

These two statements illustrate that, at policy level, there is widespread agreement on certain priorities: one is the necessity to link the different parts of teacher education (initial teacher education, induction, continuous professional development), another is the great importance of continuous professional development for all teachers. However, this agreement at policy level has not yet resulted in the planned actions in a number of the European Union member states. Two examples illustrate this point.

Example 1: Induction

Although there is a body of evidence to support the case for the value of an induction phase on entry to a teaching career, the majority of the European countries have no induction phase for their teachers (Commission 2007a, 8; this point is discussed on p. 22 and in detail in Eisenschmidt in this volume, pp. 121-135).

Example 2: Continuous professional development

There is broad agreement on the fact that a teacher's education is lifelong and that initial teacher education should be the precursor to continuous professional development. Similarly, continuous professional development should systematically link back to initial teacher education. Nevertheless, there are still a number of countries without a systematic approach to continuous professional development that is based on, and strongly linked to, the initial teacher education curriculum. This is partly due to the fact that, in many countries, continuous professional development is still supply-driven and would have to be totally restructured if it were to be used in this

way. Introducing change in a national system meets with resistance because it destabilises existing power structures and entrenched routes for the flow of money.

Whereas continuous professional development needs an adequate time frame to be sustainable, it must also be flexible enough to cater for individual needs. It looks more than promising to go for individual profiles of strengths and weaknesses at the entry point of a teaching career (England). This should be complemented by individual professional development plans, negotiated with and supervised by the headteacher, possibly in cooperation with the inspectorate. (ENTEP/Uzerli and Kerger 2007, OECD 2005) In general, the trend should be to move away from one-day events towards medium- or long-term programmes.

If there is agreement in theory on this proposed course of action, and if it is seen as best practice, what stops European ministries of education from implementing it? Some countries delay or refuse implementation for various reasons including finance, power structures, lack of national policy and objections by teacher unions. Delayed action at the level of the Member States is a serious issue, and with reference to continuous professional development the executive summary of the *Impact Assessment of the Communication on Improving the Quality of Teacher Education* of 2007 states that:

Progress in improving school education is slow; there is a perceived shortage of skills amongst teachers; this is currently difficult to remedy because there is a lack of coherence and continuity between different, often separate, elements of teachers' education; and in any case, the amount of in-service training available to practising teachers is very limited.

(Commission, 2007b, 4)

The main function of continuous professional development is the development of teachers' competences so that the students they teach may benefit from high-quality instruction. Although the connection between learning outcomes and the quality of teaching has been made frequently (American Council, 1999; Common European Principles, 2005; OECD, 2005, Commission 2007a, Barber and Mourshed 2007) and evidence-based statements on the changing role of teachers and the high demand for new skills and competences abound in the literature and in European documents, action in Member States is slow because all decision-makers across Europe know that addressing these issues involves:

- redesigning the national systems of teacher education
- systematically interlinking initial teacher education, induction and continuous professional development

- making continuous professional development attractive and possibly mandatory.

The huge enterprise of upgrading the teaching force also involves spending money, as is recognised in the 2006 Interim Report: 'Most Governments seem to recognise that the necessary reforms cannot be accomplished within current levels and patterns of investment.' (Council, 2006, 6)

Delayed action

The policy paper *Common European Principles* of 2005, which was welcomed by ENTEP and disseminated across Europe in the *Coordination Notes* (Gassner 2005, 4) and the ENTEP website from 2005 onward, took almost three years to be implemented. It was eventually launched as a *Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament (Improving the Quality of Teacher Education)* in September 2007 (Commission, 2007a). This is particularly unfortunate as an earlier discussion of the policy issues and views expressed in the paper might have contributed to raising awareness of the policy debate among the relevant players.

It is generally acknowledged that teachers are the key players in education and particularly in the race to meet the 2010 and the 2020 targets respectively. And there is broad agreement on the measures that increase *quality*: selection into teaching, mandatory induction periods, teacher profiles, statements of job competences and performance standards. (OECD, 2005)

But there is certainly no agreement about precisely which measures need to be taken within each Member State to, for instance, improve teacher selection. There is a long way between broad agreement on general policy and national decisions to make precise policy changes. The EU's contribution is to facilitate the exchange of good policy practice through peer learning to enable Member States to go from the broad principle to practical examples of policies that work.

It can be argued that the Commission has taken all the action it could take, within the limits of its legal powers and financial resources: reviewing scientific evidence, facilitating peer learning, making policy proposals, publishing concrete advice for policymakers on key aspects of teacher education, stimulating the setting an agenda for policy reform. The Peer Learning Cluster '*Teachers and Trainers*' exists since

2005, consists of ministry representatives, and has made valuable progress in exchanging good policy practice on some of the topics in question¹.

However, only Member States are competent to change their policies and practices in the field of education. Nevertheless, the Council Conclusions of November 2007 and 2008² seem to point the way forward as there, for the first time ever, Education Ministers jointly committed themselves to taking a set of priority actions to improve the quality of Teacher Education. In the EU context, this constitutes broad political agreement, translating the views of experts and academics into an agenda for policy change that is carried into the Member States.

European Union policy and national policies

A second aspect of this issue is the failure to translate agreed policy statements into concrete policy steps on a national level as a necessary step towards implementation. 'Many – but by no means all – countries have now developed lifelong learning policy statements, for example strategy documents or national action plans.' (Council, 2006, 7) This simply means that a number of European states do not have any lifelong learning policy statements in place, let alone action plans. This shows that there is a wide gap between policy knowledge among European experts and policy awareness among national decision-makers. The gap is even wider between these groups and national teacher educators, who, in many cases, are not serious players in the national policy debate.

ENTEP perspectives and Conclusion

This brings the discussion back to ENTEP and another crucial function of the Network, which is to provide a forum that sits between the national member states

¹ See http://ec.europa.eu/education/school-education/doc836_en.htm

² See these two EU documents: EUROPEAN COUNCIL, Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 15 November 2007, on improving the quality of teacher education; Official Journal (of the European Union) 2007/C 300/07. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2007:300:0006:0009:EN:PDF>
And: EUROPEAN COUNCIL, Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 21 November 2008, on preparing young people for the 21st century: an agenda for European cooperation on schools'; Official Journal (of the European Union) 2008/C 319/20. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2008:319:0020:0022:EN:PDF>

and the European Commission. Whereas the official statistical data give one truth, ENTEP discussions and papers often uncover another. It is this search for new perspectives that is at the heart of ENTEP and is one of its principal strengths.

It has been observed in the past that a number of crucial European documents signed by the ministers of education have never been passed on and discussed on a national level. However, an intensive and disciplined dialogue between ministries of education and the teacher education institutions, and ultimately the teacher unions and the teachers themselves, is indispensable. Thus, it could have been expected that the Communication on *Improving the Quality of Teacher Education*, which was eventually published in August 2007, would be sent out to all national teacher education institutions for discussion, comment and feedback (Commission, 2007b).

Such a process would broaden national discussions, activate the think tanks and create a more widespread awareness of teacher education policy. This would, in turn, help to close the gap between theory and practice and between policy-makers, practitioners and researchers. Refusing to enter into this dialogue means missing out on the solutions that we need at national and European levels.

It is to be expected that the tremendous efforts made across Europe to change and improve the systems of education and, above all, teacher education will pay off. But while general teacher education policy development is supported by a number of activities of the European Commission, the responsibility for reforms, the setting up of a policy agenda and down-to-earth action plans are the responsibility of the individual Member States of the European Union.

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THE EUROPEAN UNION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

PAUL HOLDSWORTH

European Union support for teachers

The European Union is not a newcomer to the field of Teacher Education. As early as 1989, the European Community had established LINGUA, a cooperation programme that included, amongst other objectives, improving the in-service training of teachers and trainers. These objectives were continued and further developed by the subsequent cooperation programmes Socrates, Leonardo and Lifelong Learning.

The new Lifelong Learning Programme (2007-2013) in particular has increased support for teacher mobility and for cooperation projects between teacher education institutions¹.

- Under the **Comenius** programme, about 10,000 serving teachers every year receive financial support to undertake some form of mobility for their professional development purposes; in most cases this is for attendance at a training course held abroad, but work shadowing and other professional development activities are also eligible. Around 1,200 future teachers also receive financial support to enable them to develop their teaching competences whilst working as an assistant in a school abroad.
- The **Grundtvig** programme funds around 1,300 teachers every year to travel abroad for professional development purposes; every year, around 1,400 Learning Partnerships receive financial support to enable adult education staff to co-operate across national boundaries.
- Under the **Leonardo** programme about 15,000 professionals in vocational education and training (mostly teachers and trainers) received support to undertake exchanges.

European Union cooperation programmes such as these are designed to complement - and not replace - Member States' existing arrangements and budgets for teacher education and professional development. Designed to spread good

¹ http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc78_en.htm

practice and stimulate innovation, they fund the participation in professional development activities each year of less than 0.5% of all teachers in the Union.

In addition, about 100,000 teachers a year take part, alongside their pupils, in a school cooperation project, which may have beneficial effects on their professional development. The Lifelong learning programme also funds transnational partnerships of Teacher Education Institutions and similar bodies to devise and deliver innovative courses or modules in teacher education.

The European Social Fund is also an important instrument that Member States can use to support the modernisation of Education and Training systems, including the initial and continuing education of teachers in Member States.

All of these programmes have a direct and tangible impact upon the teachers and other educational staff that take part in them. A recent study commissioned by the European Parliament (*European Parliament, Mobility of School Teachers in the European Union*, 2008) found, for example, that European programmes

- increase teachers' motivation to teach
- improve teachers' pedagogic skills
- improve teachers' linguistic skills
- improve key teaching competencies and
- lead to greater participation in continuing professional development.

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European Union support for the development of Teacher Education policy

However, in recent years, the interest of the European Union and of the European Commission has moved beyond the funding of teacher mobility and transnational projects. The European Commission also works closely with Member States to help them develop and modernise their education and training policies.

Although the organisation and content of Education and Training systems are entirely their responsibility, Member States increasingly acknowledge the benefits of policy cooperation with European Union partners to address common challenges in these fields.

Young people's attainment in compulsory education has a strong direct impact on their later social participation, further education or training, and wages (cf. OECD 2007, 105; OECD 2001, 10-13). The knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired at this stage have important consequences for the ability of the individual to take his or her place in society and in the workforce. Therefore, in the context of its 'Lisbon

agenda' to promote growth, sustainable development and social cohesion, the European Council has increasingly stressed the key role of education and training. Member States have adopted common objectives for their education and training systems, and have developed common positions on a number of key policy areas. For example, the Council and Parliament have recently adopted Recommendations on improving Quality Evaluation in School Education and on promoting Key Competences for Lifelong Learning; and the Education Council has recently adopted Conclusions on improving the Efficiency and Equity of Education and Training Systems. Also against this backdrop, following a public consultation, the Commission in 2008 proposed an agenda for strengthening European cooperation on schools policy, which gave rise to Council Conclusions focussing on three essential areas: promoting key competences, ensuring high quality learning for every student and supporting teachers and school staff.

Towards a common agenda

The structure through which the Commission works to help Member States develop and modernise their education and training policies is the *'Education and Training 2010' Work Programme*, part of the revised Lisbon Strategy, which facilitates the exchange of information, data and good practice through mutual learning and peer review.

A group of Teacher Education experts nominated by Education Ministries met from 2002 to 2005 to share their experience and agreed upon a series of *Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications* to guide education policymakers. This text described a vision of a European teaching profession composed of well-qualified graduates who are lifelong learners and are mobile both geographically, and between different kinds of teaching post; they would work effectively with others, be skilled in managing knowledge, technology and information.

This vision was validated by a conference of ministerial and stakeholder representatives in 2005. It then served as the starting point for further policy development work both in Member States and at European level.

Recent years have seen an increase in the attention paid by policymakers to research evidence about the impact of teaching quality, and of Teacher Education. This reflects a broader trend towards more 'evidence-based policymaking'. In

August 2007, the European Commission presented to the Member States and the Parliament a *Communication on 'Improving the Quality of Teacher Education'*. This identified the quality of teaching and teacher education as key factors in securing the quality of education systems and improving the educational attainment of young people.

It noted research which suggests that teacher quality is significantly and positively correlated with pupil attainment (cf. Darling-Hammond et al. 2005; Greenwald, Hedges & Laine 1996; Rockoff 2004); that it is the most important within-school aspect explaining student performance - its effects are much larger than the effects of school organisation, leadership or financial conditions (cf. Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain 2005); and that there are positive relationships between in-service teacher training and student achievement (cf. Angrist & Lavy, 2001; Bressoux, 1996).

More recently, an analysis (cf. Barber & Mourshed 2007) of the common characteristics of the most successful school systems highlights the central role of teachers, asserting that 'the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers' and that 'the only way to improve outcomes is to improve instruction'.

The Communication also noted, for example, that, according to the data then available:

- The teaching profession in Europe has a high percentage of older workers; some 30% of teachers are over 50, and around two million will need to be replaced in the next 15 years to maintain the size of the teaching workforce.
- Countries report shortfalls in teaching skills, and difficulties in updating teachers' skills (cf. OECD 2005). Shortages relate especially to a lack of competence to deal with new developments in education (including individualised learning, preparing pupils for autonomous learning, dealing with heterogeneous classrooms, preparing learners to make the most of the ICT, and so on). Despite this, incentives for teachers to carry on updating their skills throughout their professional lives are weak.
- In-service training for teachers is compulsory in less than half of the Member States and, where it exists, training generally amounts to less than 20 hours per year (cf. Eurydice, 2005, 2009).
- Some countries have difficulty retaining young teachers in the profession. There is research evidence that induction programmes can improve teaching

At the same time, the environments in which teachers work, and the demands placed upon them by society are becoming increasingly complex. Teachers strive to equip learners with a wide range of skills that they will require to take their place in a world that is in constant evolution; this hastens the need for the development of more competence-centred approaches to teaching, together with a greater emphasis on learning outcomes. Pupils are increasingly expected to develop greater learning autonomy and to take responsibility for their own learning, and the learners in any class may come from an increasingly wide range of backgrounds and may have a very broad range of abilities.

In this context, initial teacher education - even of the highest quality - cannot provide teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary for a life-time of teaching. Teachers are called upon not only to acquire new knowledge and skills but also to develop them continuously. The education and professional development of every teacher needs to be seen as a lifelong task, and be structured and resourced accordingly. To equip the teaching body with skills and competences for its new roles, it is necessary to have both high-quality initial teacher education and a coherent process of continuous professional development keeping teachers up to date with the skills required in the knowledge based society.

Furthermore, teachers also have a responsibility to extend the boundaries of professional knowledge through a commitment to reflective practice, through research, and through a systematic engagement in continuous professional development from the beginning to the end of their careers. Systems of education and training for teachers need to provide the necessary opportunities for this.

In July 2008, following a public consultation, the Commission adopted a further *Communication 'Improving Competences for the 21st Century: An Agenda for European Cooperation on Schools'*.

In their responses to these two sets of proposals, the Ministers of Education of the European Union have committed themselves to a far-reaching agenda for cooperation and policy development on Teacher Education. In November 2007, they noted that:

'High quality teaching is a prerequisite for high-quality education and training, which are in turn powerful determinants of Europe's long-term competitiveness and capacity to create more jobs and growth in line with the Lisbon goals ...'. (Council 2007a)

One year later, they noted:

'school education is an important means of ... passing on the values, skills, knowledge and attitudes required for democracy, citizenship, intercultural dialogue and personal development, and plays an essential role in the acquisition of the key competences needed for successful integration into economic life. Schools therefore have a duty to provide their pupils with an education which will enable them to adapt to an increasingly globalised, competitive, diversified and complex environment, in which creativity, the ability to innovate, a sense of initiative, entrepreneurship and a commitment to continue learning are just as important as the specific knowledge of a given subject'. (Council 2008)

The education and training of teachers is, therefore 'a crucial element in the modernisation of European education and training systems' (Council 2007a) and Ministers agreed that: 'Member States should give high priority to sustaining and improving the quality of teacher education within a career-long perspective' (Council 2007a).

A common agenda for action to improve Teacher Education

Ministers have noted, however, that better coordination is required between the various strands of teacher education; that greater incentives are needed for teachers to carry on updating their skills throughout their professional lives, and that efforts are also required to ensure that in-service education is responsive to teaching needs in terms of both quality and quantity. In several Member States there is a need not only to attract new people - including suitably qualified people with experience from other professions - into the teaching profession, but also to persuade experienced teachers to remain in the profession rather than retiring early or moving to other professions.

In the light of this, Member States have agreed to work together on the following areas of Teacher Education policy:

A continuum of Teacher Education

Ensuring that provision for teachers' initial education, early career support and further professional development is coordinated, coherent, adequately resourced and quality assured.

Professional Values

Encouraging all teachers to be reflective practitioners, to be autonomous learners in their own career-long professional development, to engage in research, to develop new knowledge and be innovative.

An attractive profession

Making the teaching profession a more attractive career choice.

Teacher recruitment, placement, retention and mobility policies that maximise the quality of school education.

Qualifications for teaching

Ensuring that teachers hold a qualification from a higher education institution (or, in the case of those working in the field of initial vocational education, are highly qualified in their professional area and hold a suitable pedagogical qualification) which strikes a suitable balance between research-based studies and teaching practice, possess specialist knowledge of their subjects, and the pedagogical skills required.

Raising the degree of practical experience required for employment as a teacher.

Raising the level of qualifications required for employment as a teacher.

Supporting teacher mobility.

Supporting teachers

Ensuring that teachers have access to effective early career support (induction) programmes at the start of their career.

Ensuring that teachers have access to adequate mentoring support throughout their careers.

Encouraging and supporting teachers throughout their careers to review their learning needs and to acquire new knowledge, skills and competence through formal, informal and non-formal learning, including exchanges and placements abroad.

High quality Teacher Education and continuing professional development

Improving the supply, quality and take-up of teachers' continuous professional development programmes.

Ensuring that Teacher Education Institutions provide coherent, high quality and relevant teacher education programmes which respond effectively to the evolving needs of schools, teachers and society at large.

Promoting during initial teacher education, early career support and continuous professional development the acquisition of the competences that teachers need, such as teaching transversal competences, teaching heterogeneous classes, and collaborating with colleagues and parents.

School Leadership

Ensuring that teachers with leadership functions, in addition to possessing teaching skills and experience, have access to high quality training in school management and leadership.

Support for many of these ideas has also come from the European Parliament which in July 2008 adopted a report on improving the quality of Teacher Education². Amongst other things, this called for 'the provision of more and better quality teacher education combined with policies aimed at recruiting the best candidates to the teaching profession' and emphasised that 'Member States must attach greater importance and allocate more resources to teacher training if significant progress is to be made in achieving the Lisbon strategy's *'Education and Training 2010'* objectives, namely that the quality of education is to be boosted, and that lifelong learning is to be reinforced across the Union'. The report also called on Member States to ensure that the composition of the teaching workforce represents the social and cultural diversity within society and urged Member States to take further measures to promote teaching as a career choice for top achievers.

Peer Learning on Teacher Education policy

Ministers' vision of Teacher Education provides a challenging agenda for action, encompassing as it does greater efforts to: ensure a high standard of initial teacher education; provide early career support and continuing professional development

² Report 'Improving the quality of teacher education', 10.7.2008, (2008/2068(INI))

that is coordinated, coherent, adequately resourced and quality assured; attract the most able people into the teaching profession; and enable school leaders to create school environments in which teachers learn from one another and which focus on improving student learning. (cf. Council 2007a)

The Commission and Member States have already begun to explore possible policy responses to some of these challenges, notably through a series of peer learning activities on areas of shared policy concern, including:

- systems of continuing professional development,
- the school as a learning community for its teachers,
- School Leadership,
- partnership between Teacher Education Institutions and schools,
- preparing teachers for culturally diverse classrooms,
- induction of new teachers, and
- partnerships between schools and companies.

Upon each of these themes, the conclusions of national experts taking part in peer learning have been published in the form of succinct recommendations for policymakers³.

Further peer learning activities have been proposed on: improving the practical element of Initial Teacher Education; alternative pathways into the teaching profession, and quality assurance in continuous professional development.

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³ http://ec.europa.eu/education/school-education/doc836_en.htm

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TEN YEARS AFTER BOLOGNA: TOWARDS A EUROPEAN TEACHER EDUCATION AREA

ROMITA IUCU

1. Bologna Process: new education landscape – general considerations

Fundamental changes are taking place in Europe within the higher education sector. These changes are driven in part by developments within the European labour market and in part by an enhanced mobility. Under these circumstances, the discussions on qualifications frameworks, either at national or European level, became key points on national and international agendas. The Bologna Declaration (1999) reflects this growing interest and consequently it boldly declared:

“A Europe of knowledge is now widely recognised as an irreplaceable factor for social and human growth as an indispensable component to consolidate and enrich the European citizenship, capable of giving its citizens the necessary competences to face the challenges of the new millennium, together with an awareness of shared values and belonging to a common social and cultural space.” (Bologna Declaration 1999, 1)

This single quote identifies the main functions of the qualifications and of the frameworks of qualifications: economic, social, civic and cultural. Moreover, the report of the Working Group on Qualifications Frameworks included a more detailed presentation of the functions of qualifications in a European context:

- preparation for the labour market
- preparation for life as active citizens in a democratic society
- personal development, and
- development and maintenance of a broad, advanced knowledge base.

Consequently, the ministers responsible for higher education in the countries involved in the Bologna Process established the overarching framework for qualifications of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) when they met in Bergen in 2005:

“We adopt the overarching framework for qualifications in the EHEA, comprising three cycles (including, within national contexts, the possibility of intermediate qualifications), generic descriptors for each cycle based on learning outcomes and competences, and credit ranges in the first and second

cycles. We commit ourselves to elaborating national frameworks for qualifications compatible with the overarching framework for qualifications in the EHEA by 2010, and to starting work on this by 2007.” (Bergen Communiqué. 2005, 2)

At present, the Bologna system is considered by most stakeholders as the structural landmark of higher education studies (bachelor, master’s and doctorate). Thus, we cannot ignore the fact that the main goal of the Bologna Process is not the restructuring of studies, but the differentiation among the levels of qualification, in correlation with the levels of complexity of the competences developed.

In the preface of the Eurydice publication Higher Education in Europe 2009: Developments in the Bologna Process, the Commissioner responsible for Education, Training, Culture and Youth, Jan Figel, states:

“In my opinion the Bologna Process has been driving forward the most important reforms in higher education in the modern era. The European Commission remains a committed member of the Bologna Process, as we see the unique form of European inter-governmental and inter-institutional cooperation as essential to the underpinning of the dynamic knowledge societies and economies in which our citizens can achieve personal fulfilment and prosper. (...) I have no doubt that we will become increasingly grateful that, collectively, we have laid strong foundations for the European Higher Education Area as this is the space that will provide lifelong educational opportunities needed by citizens to renew, innovate and develop our societies and economies in the future.” (Eurydice 2009, 3-4)

Consequently, the Bologna Declaration of June 1999 has put in motion a series of reforms needed to make European higher education more compatible and comparable, more competitive and more attractive for Europeans and for students and scholars from other continents. For higher education institutions (HEIs) these reforms mean the actual starting point for another discussion: the convergence between the different educational systems in Europe would require adaptation of curricula in terms of structure, contents and definition of learning outcomes. Currently, discussions are ongoing at many levels and between many countries or institutions, and the main discussion points are presented in the diagram below which represents an adaptation of the ideas expressed by Volker Gehmlich, University of Applied Science, Osnabrueck, in his presentation at the ECTS workshop in Novi Sad in 2006 (*adaptation by Cosmina Mironov and Anca Borzea - 2009*).

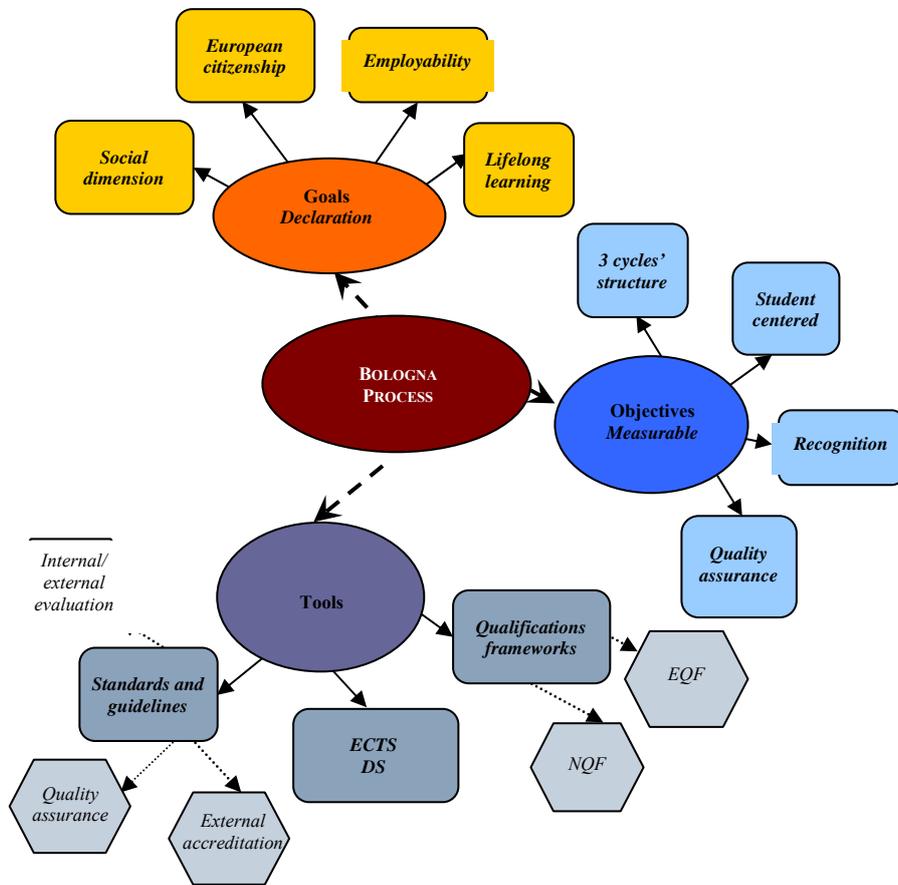


Figure 1. Bologna Process – focus points

2. The Bologna Process – a historical overview

As indicated in Higher Education in Europe 2009: Developments in the Bologna Process”, (2009), the Bologna Process is the product of a series of meetings of ministers responsible for higher education at which policy decisions have been taken in order to establish a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) by 2010. Since 1998 seven ministerial meetings have been dedicated to mapping the EHEA as follows:

- **1998 Sorbonne Declaration:** the French, Italian, UK and German ministers of education sign a declaration concerning the “harmonisation of the architecture of the European higher education system”, the mobility of students and teachers in the European area (which is the first significant

mention of the teachers in the context of the Bologna Process), and gradual convergence towards a common framework of qualifications and cycles of studies.

- **1999 Bologna Declaration:** 29 European ministers agreed to establish a European Higher Education Area by 2010 through a number of measures: two main cycles, system of credits, mobility of teachers, students, researchers, European dimension in higher education, and European cooperation in quality assurance. An important international consequence of the Bologna meeting was to increase the international competitiveness of the European higher education system.
- **2001 Prague Communiqué:** four additional countries join the process and the ministers decide to create a Bologna Follow-up Group responsible for monitoring and continuing development of the process, and convened to promote lifelong learning and enhance the attractiveness of the EHEA at international level.
- **2003 Berlin Communiqué:** this is very important historically for mentioning the inclusion of the seven new countries, including Russia, making 40 countries in all. The significant contribution of this meeting was the agreement that established the doctoral level in the third cycle in the Bologna Process and the recognition of degrees and periods of studies.
- **2005 Bergen Communiqué:** the most important contributions of this meeting were the adoption of the standards and guidelines for quality assurance in the EHEA (as proposed in the ENQA report), the recognition of the joint degrees, the reinforcement of the social dimension, and the removal of obstacles to mobility.
- **2007 London Communiqué:** is significant for the ministers' agreement on the creation of a register of quality assurance agencies and adoption of a strategy to improve the global dimension of the Bologna Process and the agreement to set up national plans for promoting the social dimension.
- **2009 Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Conference:** was dedicated to sustaining the mobility and the portability of financial support and to open the European Higher Education Area in 2010.

In a table integrated in *Higher Education in Europe 2009: Developments in the Bologna Process* (2009), the timeline of the Bologna Process is represented as follows:

Timeline of the Bologna Process

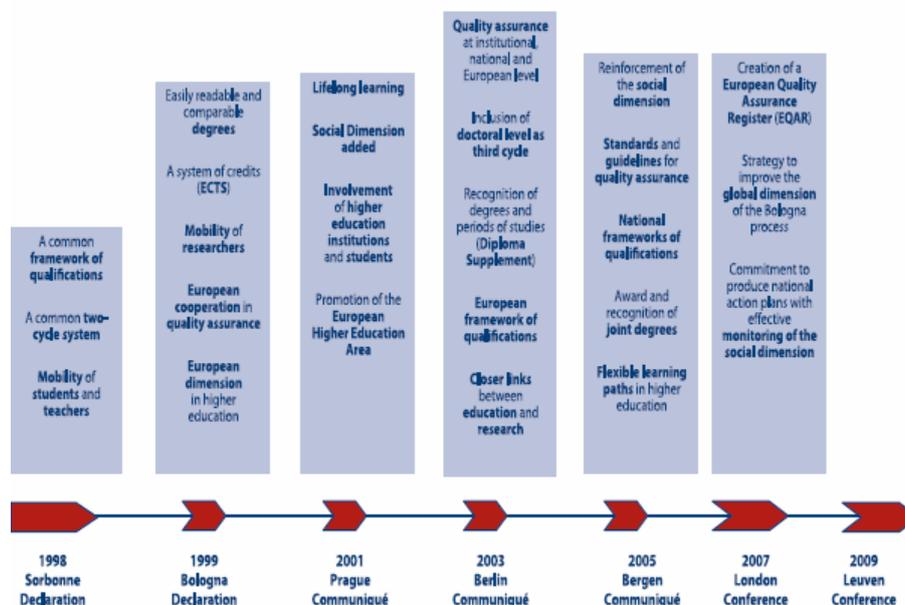


Figure 2: Timeline (Eurydice 2009, 18)

According to the EUA brochure Europe's New Higher Education Landscape (2008), "over 5,600 higher education institutions and 31 million students will be involved in this process; more than 50% of students are already studying in a Bologna Process reform programme. ...

What will have changed by 2010: ...

- a European Higher Education Area with three cycles
- a shift from a degree structure based on years of study to a credit and a term system
- from a teaching to a student-centred approach, and
- from an input-based approach to learning outcomes." (EUA 2008, 8)

3. State of the art: Bologna Process – harmonisation or standardisation?

At the heart of the Bologna Declaration lies the commitment of the signatory countries to create the European Higher Education Area by 2010 through adapting higher education systems so that they are more uniformly structured and their qualifications more understandable.

According to the *Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2009*, the overall picture in 2009 reveals that substantial progress has been made in all the areas examined, and furthermore the benefits of enhanced European cooperation brought about through the Bologna Process are evident. Yet as European higher education is dynamic and evolving in a fast changing context, the reform process itself is continually creating new challenges as a consequence of the ways in which implementation has been addressed in each country.

“Thus the need to intensify cooperation at European level is becoming ever more acute, with improved monitoring mechanisms being essential to assess the impact of reforms. While much progress has been made in structural reform, the focus of attention and cooperation must now seek to combine national policy-making and system development with the content and reality of implementation in higher education institutions.” (Eurydice 2009, 9)

3.1 *Bachelor-Master structure*

According to the conclusions of the *Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2009*, at this stage of the Bologna Process, *the new three-cycle structure is theoretically fully in place* or has at least been extensively introduced in most institutions and programmes in all countries.

However several fields of study, such as medical studies, architecture and engineering, remain outside these new structures in some countries.

Convergence in the models for the first two cycles is clearly taking place. With regard to the bachelor programmes, two main structural models have been adopted:

- *“In 19 countries, bachelor programmes have been commonly designed on the basis of 180 ECTS credits (three years). This is the case for Andorra, Austria, Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, the Holy See, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Montenegro, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Sweden and Switzerland.*
- *In 11 countries the most commonly designed bachelor programmes last 240 ECTS credits (four years) as in Armenia, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Georgia, Greece, Lithuania, Moldova, Russia, Spain, Turkey and the United Kingdom (Scotland).”* (Eurydice 2009, 18).

In the remaining countries, no single model emerges as a reference, and institutional practice tends to draw upon both of the two preceding models.

“For master programmes the 120 ECTS credit (two years) model is used in the large majority of Bologna signatory countries. In 29 countries/regions analysed, this model is the most commonly used reference to design programmes, even though some master programmes may be developed with fewer credits (90 ECTS master programmes can be found in several countries). Bulgaria, Serbia and the United Kingdom (Scotland) are exceptions to the general trend as the master programmes usually last 60 to 90 credits (one year). In the remaining countries (Albania, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Cyprus, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)), the student workload at master level may vary from 60 to 120 credits, although in the Flemish community of Belgium master programmes have been developed in veterinary science and medicine that extend to 180 and 240 credits respectively. In the Czech Republic, some master programmes also require 180 credits (three years).” (Eurydice 2009, 19)

3.2. *The European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS)*

The Bologna signatory states identified the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) as an important component of the European Higher Education Area and encouraged states to employ a ‘system of credits’ in order to facilitate international student mobility and international curriculum development (Cf. Bergen Communiqué 2005).

“The drive to use credits is primarily because they support more flexibility within education systems. They can link diverse forms and types of education. The contribution of credits to national and the overarching European framework of qualifications is that they can provide an additional dimension, an added value, to further improve mobility (student, staff and programmes of learning), recognition and transparency.” (Bologna Working Group on Qualifications Frameworks 2005, 44)

According to the *Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2009*, the introduction of ECTS is usually underpinned by legislation, although this is not an actual requirement. This process of embedding ECTS in national legislation started before 2000 in a few countries such as Austria, the Flemish community of Belgium and Romania, gathered pace between 2000 and 2005, and is now completed in almost all countries.

3.3. *The Diploma Supplement (DS)*

The Diploma Supplement (DS), which was initially introduced without legislation in several countries, has since been made mandatory in the great majority of countries. Actually, Ukraine is now the only country in the European Higher Education Area that has not yet introduced the DS.

Also, the document underlines the fact that most countries mention national incentives and support mechanisms for implementation, and more than 34 countries focus on guidance and information provided to higher education institutions.

Surprisingly, in view of the considerable action being reported to support the implementation of the DS, only a limited number of countries have undertaken any national monitoring to find out how the DS is actually being used by higher education institutions and employers.

3.4. *Implementation of national qualifications frameworks*

In connection with the Berlin Communiqué where the Bologna Process gained additional priorities, one of them was the elaboration of an overarching framework of qualifications for the EHEA. According to the *Bologna Process Stocktaking Report 2009*:

“There has been significant effort towards implementing qualifications frameworks and some progress has been made since 2007, however the deadline for completing the implementation of NQFs for higher education by 2010 appears to have been too ambitious. Measuring success against the expectations for 2010, the picture is now less optimistic than it was in 2007 when countries only had to have started implementing their qualifications frameworks.” (Bologna Follow-up Group 2009, 7).

However, the same document states that six countries – some of which already had qualifications frameworks in place before 2005 – have completed self-certification of their NQF with the EHEA overarching qualifications framework, and others are close to completion, while many are still at the early stages of development. At European level, there can still be identified a large number of countries that are just beginning or have not yet started the implementation at institutional level. Consequently, we should be aware that the full implementation of national qualifications frameworks will still take some time.

3.5. *Quality assurance*

A number of recent initiatives reflect that quality control in education is an important issue on the political agenda of the European Commission as well as in many European countries.

Within the Lisbon Process, enhancing the quality and effectiveness of education and training systems in Europe is one of the three main goals to be achieved in the period up to 2010. In this context, the European Commission set up an expert group on improving the education of teachers and trainers.

In spring 2004 a sub-group of this expert group, in cooperation with the Standing Group on Indicators and Benchmarks (also established by the European Commission under the same framework), addressed the question of ‘developing suitable indicators for measuring improvement in the education of teachers and, in particular, their continuing professional development’.

The EUA brochure *Europe’s New Higher Education Landscape*, (2008) mentions that the past decade has seen the rapid development of national quality assurance systems in Europe and, as a result, common requirements for national systems have been defined at European level to improve the consistency of QA across Europe.

All stakeholders have agreed on the following actions:

- *Quality assurance agencies in Europe will be expected to submit themselves to a cyclical review within five years.*
- *A European register of quality assurance agencies was established in 2008 to make it easier to identify professional and credible agencies.*
- *A European register committee will act as a gatekeeper for the inclusion of agencies in the register.*
- *Since 2006 a forum for quality assurance agencies, universities and other stakeholders has taken place to discuss the latest developments in the field (EUA 2008, 6).*

In conclusion, we can observe that quality assurance is a key issue of the Bologna Process which could significantly influence the European higher education institutions, universities, as traditional or modern educational organisations.

3.6. *Mobility and portability of financial support*

As indicated in the 2009 Eurydice report on *Developments in the Bologna Process*, “[after] nearly 10 years of developing the European Higher Education Area with the hope that many more citizens will benefit from higher educational experiences outside their home countries, **it is perhaps surprising to discover that so little is known and understood about the reality of student mobility ...**” (Eurydice 2009, 11). The successful implementation of the Bologna Process will be influenced by the growth of different forms of mobility – exchange programmes and work placements through Erasmus and mobility in joint degree programmes under Erasmus Mundus. There is no possibility of creating a European Teacher Education Area without mobility, trust and recognition.

“*In order to analyse and interpret information about portability of student support it is first necessary to establish some information about the nature of the costs charged to students.*” (Eurydice 2009, 45). The national support for mobility, the variety of forms of specific financial support for mobility, and the restriction of the portability (geographical restriction, restrictions linked to the type of programme) could become important issues on the mobility agenda for students and particularly for students in the teacher education segment too.

3.7. *Teacher education in the light of the Bologna Process*

Today, the professional education of teachers implies changes in knowledge, attitudes and professional conduct, stressing the idea of a proactive, efficient adaptability to totally new, unknown and hard-to-approach situations. The society of today defines, beyond the actual educational arena, new roles for the professional teacher: teamwork, mentoring colleagues, student counselling, continuous professional education, action-research, participation in organising and administrating the educational institution.

The *sine qua non* for the successful design, implementation and assessment of the programmes of studies – according to the Bologna Process principles – lies in the development of specialised programmes consisting of differentiated curricular routes for teacher education. In this sense, there is a need to initiate specific projects, for example master programmes in teacher education where they do not exist.

In the field of higher education policy, the European Commission asserts that reforming the teacher education systems by making them more flexible, more coherent and more open to the needs of society is a priority. Reforms are imperative in order to find an answer to the challenges facing the modern world: globalisation and the new approaches in the training and retraining of the European labour force. Reforms should qualify the universities to assume a more active role in building the European knowledge society and to contribute more to the Lisbon Strategy. Thus, higher education institutions become the key institutional resources of the European knowledge-based economy, while remaining the main producer of knowledge and competences.

In accordance with these reform guidelines as well as with the general lines of the Bologna Process (presented in previous sections) we can design a graphic representation comprising the main consequences of this process on teacher education systems and practices:

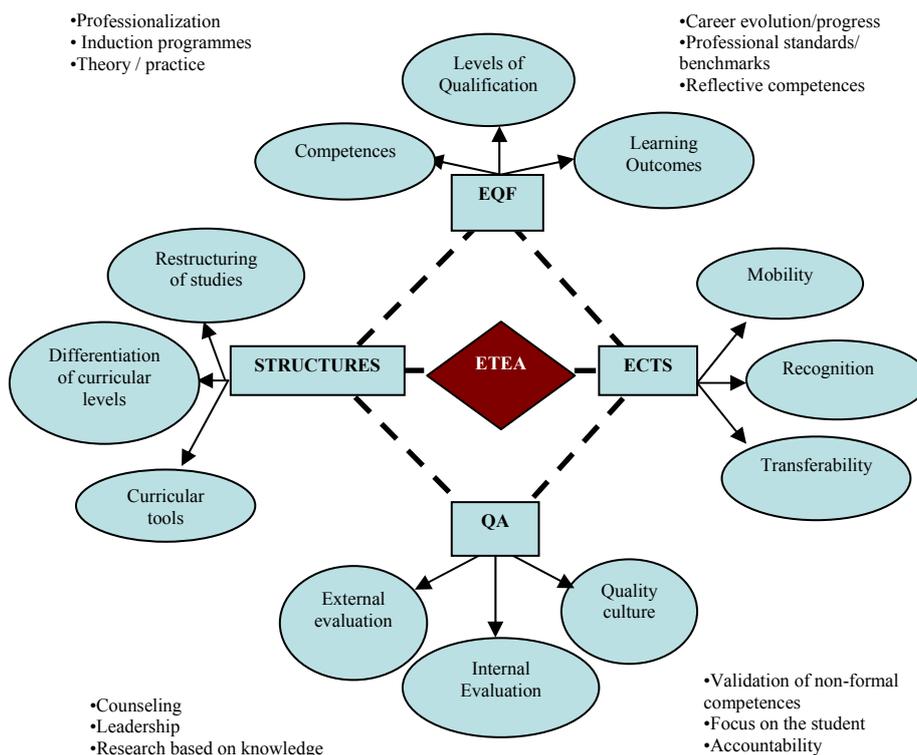


Figure 3. European Teacher Education Area (E TEA)

Brief comments on the four cornerstones of ETEA as shown in figure 3:

The structure of the teacher education systems at the level of higher education institutions is in accordance with the implementation process of the three cycles of studies and the restructuring of the training routes with an accent on the doctorate cycle. Greater emphasis should be placed on the differentiation of the curricular levels and the implementation of a set of curricular tools to design specific competences.

EQF and the national qualifications frameworks with the redesigning of competences and of the learning outcomes in the context of the qualifications levels being re-evaluated and redefined. The analysis of the qualifications levels involves the defining of standards for the teaching profession.

ECTS: The European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System has as main goals mobility, recognition and transferability both at the level of initial education and continuous development of teachers. The credit system helps to support continuity between initial and continuous education, while at the European level it eases recognition of periods of training done within community projects/programmes.

QA: The quality assurance process introduces the perspectives of ‘public accountability’ into institutions of initial and continuous teacher education. In this sense, there is an external dimension of quality assessment by means of specialised agencies (national and possibly European) and an internal one by means of the development of procedures and tools in order to create and consolidate a quality culture (the tools for evaluation/assessment can be adapted in order to increase the internal quality of educational processes).

The four processes mentioned above produce significant effects on the teacher education systems by means of reciprocal interaction. The interaction between the structures of the Bologna Process and EQF leads to effects on the level of the continuous professionalization of teachers, on the correlation between initial and continuous education by designing the induction processes, and on the redefinition of the theory/practice balance. The interaction between EQF and ECTS brings into focus the development of standards and benchmarks for the teaching profession, the re-shaping of professional growth by means of the accumulation of professional transferable credits, and the valorisation of reflexive competences.

At the intersection of EQF and QA there are the validation of non-formal competences, the focus on the student and the ethical and moral dimension, and the

one of 'accountability', while at the intersection of QA with structures there are career counselling, leadership and 'research based on knowledge competences'.

Both at European and national level, it is unanimously acknowledged that education represents the key element of a nation's progress. This idea has been generating essential reforms in the traditional model of university. Beyond the change at content level or university practices, it is imperative that HEIs adopt a change in attitude and maybe of identity affiliation.

Nowadays both society and, consequently, HEIs are facing a process of complex evolution, assuming their role as propelling forces and starting to implement adequate strategies for development, adaptation and transformation.

Thus the provision of an adaptive system for permanent development and maintenance of knowledge and skills according to the needs of society is essential. This process can be expressed in the form of restructuring the present higher education system as a proactive and reactive one, with students' effective participation that involves them embracing some problem-solving principles closely related to real economic life, as well as the problem-solving strategies based on the competences developed.

Definitely these goals imply at a very concrete level the restructuring of the system of knowledge, and the transfer of skills and competences in order to actually implement them, to promote mechanisms that further develop personal and professional skills and competences (such as teamwork, communication and self-assessment skills).

The conscious taking on of such missions by the HEIs will certainly lead to new types of knowledge, new types of learning outcomes (competences), new types of teachers and students, and new types of work relationships.

In conclusion, the HEIs have lately undergone extensive restructuring. Consequently, without abdicating from their 'mission' stated centuries ago, its goals have permanently changed within a process parallel to the political, social and economic reforms. Among the newly embraced missions that add to the old ones, we note the implementation of the research developed by the HEIs, the mobility of the labour force represented by the graduates, the tendency towards globalisation and the trend towards interculturalism and internationalism. However, the HEI continues to be "the temple of culture, science, intellectual reflection, criticism, and human development in all its plenitude." (Benedito 1995). But, at the same time, it is a fact that each time the HEIs focus on professionalization, on "the development of

specialists” who aim at seizing top-level occupations and jobs, this also includes the teaching profession.

Under these circumstances it becomes obvious why the European documents have started to explicitly support the importance of the role played by the systems of teacher education within educational reforms. It should be acknowledged that the particular conditions for the successful design, implementation and assessment of the programmes of studies specific to the Bologna Process depend on the development of specialised programmes for the training of university teachers.

As such, in relation to the field of teacher education, there can be identified a set of focus points that should involve a serious reflection and decision-making related to the new blueprints of the reforms marking HEIs:

- the teacher’s new competency profile according to the evolution in the teaching professionalism
- the principles based on which innovative syllabuses for teacher education can be designed at three levels: pre-service training, in-service training (or continuous professional development), and lifelong learning
- programmes set up by the European Commission dedicated to teacher training, and
- policy-making and educational management.

Setting up the European Teacher Education Area might represent an important step towards offering the first answers to these questions and indicate further steps for reconceptualising the teaching profession.

3.7.1. European priorities and tendencies in the field of teacher training

Education and training have become top priorities of European Union policy in the context of more extensive economic and social policies, thus becoming the subject of international preoccupations reflected in programmatic documents, especially after 1990, when the assurance of quality processes for the teachers’ pre-service education became a challenge of maximum political complexity for the European systems of education.

The European documents have started to explicitly highlight the importance of the role played by the systems of teacher education within educational reforms as it proved to have a major influence on the way future generations are modelled. One of

these documents is *Investing in Competences for All* (OECD, 2001) which made competences a strategic target. The knowledge-based societies grounded on processes of dynamic learning depend on highly trained professionals in different social contexts (e.g. lifelong learning, e-learning, inclusive education etc). Under these circumstances, the pre-service education and continuous professional development of teaching staff became subjects of rapid expansion, diversification and professionalization.

The fundamental orientation of the reform of the teacher education system cannot be other than consistent with the objectives of future social development and the development of the education system. The correspondence between the perspective of the teacher education system and its function in society needs to be taken into consideration when designing the reform.

In 2005 the European Commission organised the European Conference focused on setting out common European principles for teacher competences and qualifications. These have been devised in response to the challenges laid down in the Joint Interim Report by the European Council and the European Commission on Progress towards Education and Training 2010. At the end of this conference the document Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications was adopted.

“Teachers play a crucial role in supporting the learning experience of young people and adult learners. They are key players in how education systems evolve and in the implementation of the reforms that can make the European Union the highest performing knowledge-driven economy in the world by 2010... Therefore, to achieve its ambitious objective, the European Union views the role of teachers and their lifelong learning and career development as key priorities.” (European Commission 2005, 1)

The common European principles should provide an impetus for developing policies that will enhance the quality and efficiency of education across the union. According to this document, teaching is seen as:

- ***a well-qualified profession:*** *high-quality education systems require that all teachers are graduates from HEIs and those working in the field of initial vocational education should be highly qualified in their professional area and have a suitable pedagogical qualification.*
- ***a profession placed within the context of lifelong learning:*** *teachers should be supported in order to continue their professional development throughout their careers. [...] They should be encouraged to participate actively in professional development, which can include periods of time spent outside*

- ***a mobile profession:*** *mobility should be a central component of initial and continuing teacher education programmes. Teachers should be encouraged to participate in European projects and spend time working or studying in other European countries for professional development purposes.*
- ***a profession based on partnerships:*** *institutions providing teacher education should organise their work collaboratively in partnership with schools, local work environments, work-based training providers and other stakeholders.” (European Commission 2005, 2-3).*

3.7.2. The new teaching profession

The ‘new teaching profession’, which seems to have emerged in recent years, is characterised by the heavily increased number of roles that teachers have to play. Taking into account the complexity of teacher education, we could assert that the pre-service education should be oriented towards those areas that support the development of reflective competence, the capacity of analysis of critical situations in the classroom through action-research.

On this basis teachers will be able to develop (during in-service training) new knowledge and skills through the permanent union of theory and practice. Thus, reflective competence will be continually developed and enriched through transfer and cognitive and instrumental flexibility.

Teaching and education add to the economic and cultural aspects of the knowledge society and should therefore be seen in their societal context. According to the document Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications, teachers should be able to work in all these areas should be embedded in a professional continuum of lifelong learning which includes initial teacher education, induction and continuing professional development, as they cannot be expected to possess all the necessary competences on completing their initial teacher education (cf. European Commission 2005).

4. Comparative approach to developments in the field of Teacher Education in the wake of the Bologna Process

Through its representatives, ENTEP has been close to the reform processes of the European teacher education systems. In order to take stock of the major changes

made, ENTEP collected information about recent developments in the fields of teacher education in order “to examine how these reforms addressed and relate to the objectives of the Bologna Process: system of easily readable and comparable degrees, system of essential two cycles, system of credits”, through the survey coordinated by Apostolis Dimitropoulos. The main idea was concentrated as follows:

“Reforms in the organisation and structure of initial teacher education have been implemented in most countries since the adoption of the Bologna Declaration in 1999. The visibility, readability and comparability of teacher education structures and respective qualifications remain problematic, however.” (ENTEPE/ Dimitropoulos 2008, 1)

4.1.1. Tentative conclusions from the ENTEP survey

Concerning the impact of the Bologna Process on teacher education systems at European level, the ENTEP working group had identified, in the Ljubljana meeting in 2008, a set of conclusions based on individual country reports (ENTEPE/Dimitropoulos 2008, 2-3):

4.1.1. Pre-primary schoolteacher education

- Over half of countries introduced reforms in initial pre-primary teacher education after the initiation of the Bologna Process (1999).
- In most cases those reforms were, in some way, connected to the national implementation of the Bologna Process.
- In over two-thirds of the countries a degree at higher education level is required for pre-primary schoolteachers. Mostly this is a BA level degree. A few countries are introducing a master’s degree.
- In almost two-thirds of countries there are no alternative pathways to pre-primary teacher status. In a few countries primary schoolteachers are also qualified for pre-primary school.
- About three-quarters of countries apply the concurrent model (generally combining educational sciences with teacher education). A few countries offer both concurrent and consecutive models or combine them in different ways.
- The duration of initial pre-primary teacher education varies across countries, ranging from 3-4 years of study.

- In just over half of countries, pre-primary schoolteachers are educated at universities. In all other cases there is great variety, ranging from upper secondary level to non-university higher education institutions.
- A few countries have implemented ECTS in pre-primary teacher education.
- There is a clearly visible and longer-term trend for countries to move initial education for pre-primary schoolteachers into the university sector and to increase the number of years of study.
- There is also a somewhat weaker trend to introduce a master's level degree as a requirement for qualification as a pre-primary schoolteacher.

4.1.2. Primary schoolteacher education

- Almost all countries introduced reforms in initial primary teacher education after the initiation of the Bologna Process (1999).
- In most cases those reforms were, in some way, connected to the national implementation of the Bologna Process.
- In all countries a degree at higher education level is required for qualification as a primary schoolteacher. In most cases this is a BA level degree.
- In very few countries alternative pathways exist to qualification as a primary schoolteacher (and this is mainly for holders of higher education degrees, other than primary school teaching qualifications).
- Most countries apply the concurrent model (generally combining educational sciences with teacher education). A few countries offer both concurrent and consecutive models or combine them in different ways.
- The duration of initial primary schoolteacher education varies across countries, ranging from 3-5 years.
- In over three-quarters of countries, primary schoolteachers are educated only in universities. In a few countries primary schoolteachers are also educated in non-university higher education institutions.
- About half of countries have introduced ECTS in initial primary schoolteacher education.
- There is a clearly visible and longer-term trend for countries to move initial education for primary schoolteachers into the university sector and to increase the number of years of study.

- There is also a trend, although somewhat weaker, to introduce a masters level degree as a requirement for qualification as a primary schoolteacher.

4.1.3. Subject teacher education

- Most countries introduced reforms in the initial education of subject teachers after the initiation of the Bologna Process (1999).
- Those reforms generally were, in some way, connected to the national implementation of the Bologna Process.
- A higher education level degree is required to qualify as a subject teacher and this is generally a BA level degree plus, in some cases, a teacher education qualification. A few countries are introducing a master's level degree.
- In most countries subject teachers are educated in universities. In a few countries this is also possible in other higher education institutions.
- Some countries are moving the initial education of subject teachers into universities and increasing the length of study.
- Alternative pathways to teacher qualification are used rather rarely for subject teacher education.
- Most countries apply consecutive models in initial subject teacher education. A few countries apply the concurrent model or both models if for different subjects.
- The duration of initial subject teacher education varies across countries, ranging from 4-6.5 years.
- Most countries have introduced ECTS in subject teacher education.
- There is a clear visible trend for countries to transfer subject teacher education into universities.
- There is also an emerging trend towards the introduction of a master's level degree as a second cycle in subject teacher education.

4.2. Eurydice data on recent reforms in teacher education systems

As the ENTEP survey covered only 16 countries, data from Eurydice has also been used to create a more comprehensive picture on recent reforms in teacher education systems across Europe.

Austria

“With regard to initial training, a distinction is to be drawn between teaching staff at *kindergartens* (nursery schools), *Allgemein bildende Pflichtschulen* (general compulsory schools), *Berufsschulen* (part-time compulsory vocational schools) and at institutions of higher education.

Schoolteacher training in Austria is provided by two separate sectors.

- Compulsory school and special schoolteachers are trained at *Pädagogische Akademien* (training institutes for general compulsory schoolteachers), which will be renamed (*Pädagogische Hochschulen*) and granted higher education status.
- People who want to work as teachers at *Allgemein bildende höhere Schulen* (academic secondary schools) or to teach general education subjects at *Berufsbildende mittlere Schulen* (medium-level technical and vocational schools) or at *Berufsbildende höhere Schulen* (secondary technical and vocational colleges) are trained at universities.

Since 2004, university-level teacher training has been organised according to principles of the *Universitätsgesetz* (Universities Act, Federal Law Gazette No. 120/2002) (national framework legislation). This latest reform has thus far not brought about any changes in the contents of university level teacher training.”

Adapted from chapter 8 of *The Education System in Austria*; 2006/2007.

Belgium – Flemish part

“During 2007, teacher training was thoroughly reformed. From 1st September 2007 a distinction was made between three clusters of teacher training programmes.

- The integrated teacher training programmes, organised by university colleges, which integrate subject-specific and pedagogical teaching components throughout the entire three-year training programme.
- Specific teacher training in addition to or after a subject-specific study itinerary or professional experience, organised by university colleges, universities and centres for adult education (CVOs).
- Advanced teacher training (advanced bachelor special education and advanced bachelor special needs provision in mainstream schools and remedial teaching) which further explores or ‘fine-tunes’ basic competences. All educational staff have access to this programme.”

Adapted from chapter 8 of *The Education System in the Flemish community of Belgium*; 2007/2008.

Belgium – French community

“Initial training of teachers is described per level of education.

The professionalization of child-minding services is recent. The initial training of teaching– fundamental – teachers (nursery and primary schoolteachers) and secondary education teachers (AESI, and *agrégés de l'enseignement secondaire supérieur* (AESS)) is a preparation to teach in both ordinary and specialised education.

There is no distinct study stream that specifically prepares teachers to work in specialised education.

However, the decree of 12 December 2000 that regulates the initial training of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary teachers accommodates the possibility of organising a module for specialised education within mainstream sections for pre-primary and primary teacher training. Primary schoolteachers who have obtained a certificate of advanced proficiency in Dutch or German may become teachers of a second language in primary education. Teachers who have a certificate of competency in the duties of a primary school physical education teacher may be hired in this capacity.

Holders of AESI degrees (*Agrégé de l'Enseignement Secondaire Inférieur*) in a Germanic language section may become teachers of a second language in primary education if they have obtained a CAP certificate (teaching accreditation certificate) qualifying them to teach a foreign language in primary education. This certificate is not being issued yet. An AESI degree in the physical education section is required to become a physical education teacher in primary education.

There is no specific training to prepare lecturers to teach at university (the higher education teaching certificate is not a prerequisite) or in artistic tertiary education. However, there is a teacher training programme leading to the CAPAES certificate which is designed to train teachers in *hautes écoles*.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in the French Community of Belgium*; 2007/2008.

Belgium – German community

“In Belgium, initial training of teachers is provided in *Pädagogische Hochschulen* and in universities.

The *Pädagogische Hochschulen* (formerly called *Normalschulen*) are higher education institutions of ISCED 5B level and train teachers for pre-primary education in *kindergarten*, for primary education in primary schools and for the first three years of secondary education (formerly called *Unterstufe* – lower secondary education). They also train the auxiliary educational staff.

Initial training of teachers in the last three years of secondary education (formerly called *Oberstufe* – upper secondary education) and in higher education institutions is provided in universities and in some other higher education institutions. Arts teachers are trained in art academies or art colleges. Teachers who work with pupils with special educational needs only had little specific training during their initial training.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in the German-speaking Community of Belgium; 2007/2008*.

Bulgaria

“A teacher’s qualification is acquired through the relevant bachelor or masters university programmes. Several Bulgarian higher education institutions offer four-year bachelor and five-year masters programmes. Before the enforcement of the present Higher Education Act in 1995, there were also pre-university schools that offered teacher training outside the universities. The largest part of these pre-university schools was transformed into colleges and presently offers training programmes for the educational degree of a specialist.

The legal requirements for acquiring a teacher’s qualification were approved in 1997. (Official Gazette, issue 34, April 24, 1997).”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Bulgaria; 2005/2006*

Cyprus

“The basic training of pre-primary teachers is offered by the Pre-schoolteachers Section of the Department of Education (*Τμήμα Επιστημών της Αγωγής*), part of the Faculty of Social Sciences and Education at the University of Cyprus (*Πανεπιστήμιο Κύπρου*) (*Panepistimio Kyprou*).

The Primary Schoolteachers Section of the same department is responsible for the basic training of primary teachers.

The only exception to this are teachers of special education, who can be employed to provide services to children within mainstream schools, special units attached to mainstream schools or in special schools.

Teachers of special education must have a first degree in one of the areas of special education or a first degree as a teacher of primary/pre-primary education and a postgraduate qualification in the specialist area in which they wish to teach.

Secondary schoolteachers are required as a minimum to hold a recognised university degree at bachelor level in a subject taught in secondary schools in Cyprus. In addition, prospective teachers must attend a nine-month pre-service training course which, from September 2007, is delivered by the Department of Education of the University of Cyprus (*Πανεπιστήμιο Κύπρου*).

Members of academic staff at the tertiary level hold as a minimum a recognised university degree in their subject area and usually a postgraduate qualification in addition to a first degree. They are not required to follow any pedagogical training prior to appointment.

A newly-appointed teacher in the primary, secondary or tertiary non-university education sectors is on probation for the first two years following appointment to a permanent post.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Cyprus; 2007/2008*.

Czech Republic

“The initial training of teachers is determined by the level of education the person is being prepared for and by each individual’s area of specialisation. Depending on this, the teacher must have completed higher education (a masters or bachelor degree), tertiary professional education, secondary education or, in the case of an *asistent pedagoga*, at least basic education.

Higher education of teachers can be either concurrent or consecutive. In 2007/08 the study in a majority of study fields has already been structured (bachelor and consecutive masters study) with the exception of the teacher study for the first stage of the *základní škola* – primary level, which is usually the five-year masters study. There is no in-service qualifying phase or transitional period between training and

employment prescribed for beginning teachers at any level of education. Teacher training is a part of their study.

Teachers for the first stage of the *základní škola* are qualified to teach all subjects taught at this stage.

Teachers at other educational levels may be qualified to teach more subjects (most frequently two subjects) or just one subject (as, for example, language teachers, teachers of various artistic subjects and physical education, teachers of vocational subjects or teachers of practical training).

A teaching qualification is necessary for teachers from pre-primary to secondary levels, while specialisation is sufficient for teachers of *vyšší odborné školy*. Teachers in classes and schools established for pupils with special educational needs must have a special education qualification.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in the Czech Republic; 2007/2008*.

Denmark

- “Pre-school teachers: In order to be employed as a pre-school teacher (educator), the candidate must have completed the educator training programme. Pre-school teachers may also teach at the first to fourth form levels as well as PE, needlework and home economics at the other form levels of the *Folkeskole*.
- The teachers of the *Folkeskole*: In order to be considered for a teaching post in the *Folkeskole* a candidate must have completed the relevant training programme or other teacher training approved by the Minister of Education.
- Secondary education: In order to be appointed to a permanent post in general upper secondary education, the candidate must have completed a long-cycle university degree course within the subject range taught at this level. This is for teachers in the HHX and HTX programmes.
- Teachers in vocational secondary education: The teaching staff of the vocational colleges are characterised by a variety of different qualifications. The teachers of vocational subjects (two-thirds of the approx 9,000 teachers) will usually have a vocational qualification or similar plus five years or more of professional work experience in the subject they teach. Teachers of more general subjects (one-third of teachers) will have a university degree in the subject they teach plus at least two years of relevant professional experience.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Denmark; 2007/2008*.

Estonia

“Teachers are trained at higher education level, except in some cases of preparation of vocational teachers, where subject studies are taught according to the vocational secondary level curriculum as studies at the higher education level are not available.

Teachers of higher education institutions are prepared in masters or doctoral study. To begin teacher training, the conditions for starting a corresponding level of higher education are applied.

Teachers’ training includes three components:

- general education studies
- study related to specific subject(s), and
- education science, psychology, didactics and practical training.

The training of teachers of higher education institutions consists of studies of general education science, psychology, didactics and practical training. The contents of the studies related to specific subjects are determined in the curriculum of masters or doctoral studies as a supplement to the curriculum of the first or second level of higher education.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Estonia; 2007/2008*

Finland

“The education of teachers varies according to the level and type of education or institution they want to be qualified for. In general education class teachers have a masters degree with a major in pedagogy, whereas subject teachers major in the subject that they teach. Teachers in vocational education and training in turn take pedagogical studies after first having completed a degree in the relevant vocational field. Special needs teachers as well as guidance and student counsellors specialise after having completed their teacher education. In higher education, in polytechnics and universities, teachers are generally required to have a postgraduate research degree.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Finland; 2007/2008*.

France

“In 1990, a new category of first-level teachers was created: *Professeurs des écoles*, who are recruited at the licence level. They are required to take an exam open to candidates with a degree representing at least three years of post-secondary studies. Candidates can enter a one-year training programme in an IUFM to prepare for the exam. Once the exam is passed, the *Professeurs des écoles-in-training* are given general and vocational training in their second year at the IUFM, after which they receive the professional degree earning them the title of *Professeur des écoles*.”

The first IUFMs, created by the framework law of 10 July 1989, opened their doors in 1991-1992.

The legislation governing initial teacher training is as follows:

- Framework law on education no 89-486 of 10 July 1989. Article 17 of this law stipulates the creation of university teacher training institutes (IUFMs) to “organise and operate initial vocational training actions for teaching personnel.”
- Framework and programme law for the future of school no 2005-380 of 23 April 2005, stipulating the integration of IUFMs into one of the universities of the *académie*;
- Order of 21 September 1992 determines the conditions for training private teachers under contract.

The missions and skills expected of school, lycée and collège teachers completing their initial training are defined by the order of 19 December 2006 setting out the ‘specifications’ of IUFM teacher training courses and by implementing circular no 2007-045 of 23 February 2007.

The order of 9 May 2007 (JO of 17 May 2007) sets out the conditions under which the *professeur des écoles vocational* qualification is awarded, validating the training year spent by the candidates who passed the examinations. Orders of 22 August 2005 set out completion and evaluation procedures for the training periods of lycée and collège teachers.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in France; 2007/2008*

Germany

“Due to the principle of cultural sovereignty (*Kulturhoheit*) and for historical reasons, teacher training in the Federal Republic of Germany displays a high degree

of diversification across levels and types of schools. Additionally, teacher training has to combine subject-related studies, educational science and subject-related didactics, as well as provide for a meaningful relationship between theory and teaching practice during preparatory service. Furthermore, the subjects of the first phase of teacher training have to be adjusted to the subjects of the second, predominantly practical, phase.

A committee set up in 1998 by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (*Kultusministerkonferenz*), comprising experts from science and from educational administration (*Gemischte Kommission Lehrerbildung*), adhered to this structure of teacher training. However, taking the existing forms and institutions of teacher training as premises, the commission especially recommends that particular importance be attached to human resources development and the continuous further education of teachers. In addition to the results of the work of the *Gemischte Kommission Lehrerbildung* of 1999, the current attempts at reform are based on the recommendations for the future structure of teacher training by the *Wissenschaftsrat* (Science Council) of 2001.

The reform of teacher training is to include the implementation of the consecutive structure of study courses with bachelor and masters degrees (BA/MA), introduced in Germany with the amendment of the Framework Act for Higher Education (*Hochschulrahmengesetz*) of 1998. In June 2005, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs adopted guideline definitions for the mutual recognition of bachelor and masters degrees in teacher training courses. The structural requirements for all Länder for the introduction of bachelor and masters study courses of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs were supplemented accordingly in 2005.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Germany; 2006/2007*.

Greece

“The initial training of pre-primary, primary, secondary education teachers lasts four years for all specialities. As for music, the duration of studies is fixed at five years in the Department of Music Studies at the universities or around 9-10 years at musical academies for music teachers.

As for special education, primary education teachers receive four years of basic training in the Pedagogical Department of Primary Education and Pre-primary

Education Teachers at Volos, specialising in special education, or in the Department of Educational and Social Policy at the University of Macedonia with specialisation in disabled people. Teachers gaining a postgraduate degree in school psychology are employed as educational staff of special education schools and integration departments.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Greece; 2007/2008*.

Hungary

“Training of teachers forms part of the structure of tertiary education, and teacher training is a branch of it. As a separate branch, training of kindergarten teachers and teachers is also available. In institutions of tertiary education, teaching provided at either university (*egyetemi képzés*) or *főiskola* level, and in the multi-cycle structure system studies that provide students with bachelor and masters degrees, corresponds to the ISCED 5A level.

Teacher training suits the various stages of teaching and education work defined in Act LXXIX of 1993 on public education.

Kindergarten teachers and teachers are trained at *főiskola* level institutions. Teachers for the educational tasks in grades 5-8 of single structure education must have a *főiskola* level degree, while teachers for upper secondary school must have a university (*egyetemi képzés*) degree. Teachers with a university degree may also teach in grades 5-8 of *általános iskola*.

The development of pupils with special educational needs is ensured through a training of corrective pedagogy teachers, differing in accordance with the type of the health damage and the special requirements of pupils. That training concludes with a *főiskola* level degree.

In 2004 and 2005 after the evaluation and assessment of the Hungarian Accreditation Committee (*Magyar Felsőoktatási Akkreditációs Bizottság*), the requirements of the new education and training programme and of its outcome were accepted and accredited along with the higher education institutions that obtained permission to introduce and start this new type of education and training.

According to regulations and new standards, teacher education and training is carried out in the second cycle (master courses). The first cycle is an introductory phase. On the basis of the new legal regulation that determines the training structure of tertiary education (Act CXXXIX of 2005 on higher education), the system of

bachelor and masters education is regulated by a new governmental decree (2005/289 governmental decree; on the bachelor and master training of tertiary education, and on the procedure of launching faculties).

Since 1 September 2006, due to the multi-cycle educational system kindergarten, primary and social pedagogy teacher trainings (belonging to special teacher training) have become bachelor trainings. Accordingly, it is possible to move on from bachelor to masters level training. The previous divided high school (*főiskolai képzés*) and university (*egyetemi képzés*) training becomes homogeneous, which means that after completing introductory studies, a teacher qualification can be obtained in the second cycle. This prepares trainees to teach grades 5-12 (13) of public education and to acquire the necessary educational and teaching skills of a particular vocational training.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Hungary; 2006/2007*

Iceland

“Training to become a pre-primary schoolteacher is a three-year course (180 credits) offered by Iceland University of Education and by the University of Akureyri, which graduates students with a B.Ed degree (concurrent model). Iceland University of Education also qualifies pre-primary schoolteachers through a distance learning course that takes four years.

A general course (concurrent model) which leads to a B.Ed degree for teacher trainees who intend to teach at the compulsory level (primary and lower secondary level) takes three years (180 credits). To qualify as a teacher to work with children with special educational needs, there is a one-year diploma programme or a two-year programme leading to an M.Ed degree in addition to a B.Ed degree.

To qualify as a teacher at the upper secondary level, 60 credits in pedagogy and didactics are required in addition to a B.A or B.Sc degree as a minimum (consecutive model) or to a diploma in vocational training. Teachers who have completed these programmes are also qualified to teach at the lower-secondary level.

Most of the teachers at university level seek their education abroad. Senior lecturers and professors at institutes of higher education have a Ph.D. Other university teachers are usually required to have at least an M.A or comparable education in their subject.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Iceland; 2007/2008*

Ireland

“There are two main categories of teacher in Ireland for whom formal teacher education requirements exist. One category is primary (national school) teachers, who teach 96% of children in the age range 6-12, and the majority of children aged four and five, in state-funded national (primary) schools. The other category is post-primary teachers, who cater for the age range 12 to 18/19 in post-primary schools.

There are five colleges of education with responsibilities for primary teacher education and training. A B.Ed concurrent degree course for primary teachers lasts three years.

Teachers for second level schools are educated and trained in 13 separate institutions. More than 80% of students follow the consecutive course model in five universities. The consecutive model is the longest established and the most common form of teacher education for post-primary teachers. Graduates from a variety of undergraduate degree courses such as B.A, B.Sc, B.Comm, which they have undertaken over a three- or four-year period, embark on a one-year full-time course, the higher diploma in education, which specialises in educational studies.

The concurrent model, which is mainly taken by students with subjects of an applied character such as home economics, art, woodwork or PE, operates within a four-year course framework. The study of academic subjects proceeds alongside education studies. As is the case with the B.Ed degree and the higher diploma in education, educational studies incorporate the tripartite elements of studies in the foundation areas of education, methodological or professional studies, and the supervised practice of teaching. The four-year time frame allows more time for educational studies in the concurrent model than in the consecutive model.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Ireland; 2005/2006*

Italy

“Initial training of all teachers is carried out at university. Teachers of *scuole dell’infanzia* and primary schools have to attend the *laurea* course in primary education sciences while teachers of secondary schools, having obtained a *laurea*, must attend a specific specialisation school (SSIS) with a limited intake in both

cases. Teachers who want to specialise also in support of disabled pupils receive additional training provided within the ordinary initial teacher training. The *laurea* in primary education sciences and the *diploma di specializzazione* qualify to teach and are necessary in order to take part in competitive examinations for the teaching places (now recruitment on a permanent basis with a contract in accordance with the law and labour agreements), respectively for *scuole dell'infanzia*, primary schools and secondary schools.

Specific initial training for teachers of university and non-university higher education is not envisaged.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Italy; 2007/2008*.

Latvia

“Schoolteachers in Latvia are trained at university tertiary level. There are two groups of programmes providing teacher training, academic and professional. Thus initial teacher training is provided in the following programmes:

- second level professional higher study programmes (integrated bachelor programme)
- academic study programmes in pedagogy followed by professional higher study programme, and
- first level professional higher study programmes.

To be qualified to work in a school, all teachers must undergo study programmes leading not only to higher pedagogical education but also to a teacher qualification in the respective level of education.

Besides, most programmes prepare teachers of certain subjects. Thus completion of a certain kind of programme entitles them to teach the respective subject at the respective level of education. There are exemptions – pre-school teachers and teachers of the first stage of basic education (classes 1-4) receive a teacher qualification in the respective level of education, and are entitled to teach most subjects.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Latvia; 2007/2008*.

Liechtenstein

“Anyone wishing to teach at a public or private school in Liechtenstein must have a qualification. The qualification varies depending on the type of school and the subject area. Because it is such a small country, Liechtenstein cannot provide its own teacher training programmes for different types of school and subject area, so teachers are trained in neighbouring countries, for the most part in Switzerland and, to a lesser extent, in Austria. Liechtenstein has contracts with the Swiss institutions and authorities in particular, ensuring access for its students to teacher training programmes. These contracts also govern Liechtenstein’s contribution to the training costs.

In the Teacher Employment Act of the state of Liechtenstein the training requirements are: “Candidates must have successfully completed a course of training at a university appropriate to the requirements of the post to be filled, of at least three years in duration and conferring a diploma certificate. For the post of nursery school teacher, successful completion of a diploma training course of at least three years at a university or other nationally recognised training institute for nursery school teachers is required. The government prescribes the training standards required for the individual educational levels and special subject areas.”

Training programmes must also meet the requirements laid down by the Swiss Conference of Educational Directors or the equivalent requirements of Austria. If there are significant differences between the standards of the two systems, the government will decide on the required training criteria.

For new entrants to the profession, the Office of Education or an institution appointed by the government conducts professional development courses for probationary teachers. The training programmes consist of block sessions of 10 to 15 days’ duration and are held during the school holidays or in non-contact teaching time.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Liechtenstein; 2007/2008*.

Lithuania

“The following categories of teachers are trained for the education system: teachers for pre-school education, teachers for primary, basic and secondary education, teachers for non-formal children education, specialists in vocational

subjects, social pedagogues, special education teachers, andragogues and education management specialists.

The education reform initiated in 1989, the new Law on Education adopted in 1992, and the Concept of Education in Lithuania approved in 1992 followed by new documents on curricula (general curriculum framework and education standards), as well as other legal acts, laid down new requirements for teachers and established the basis for the teacher training reform. New teacher training structures – bachelor, master and doctoral studies – were developed, the teaching plans and programmes were adjusted, and advanced vocational schools *Aukštesnioji mokykla* of the pedagogical profile were reorganised. Also, documents necessary for the assessment (certification) of teachers' performance were prepared and qualification categories of teachers legitimised.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Lithuania; 2006/2007*.

Luxembourg

- “Primary and pre-primary teachers

The Institut supérieur d'études et de recherches pédagogiques (ISERP – higher institute for pedagogical study and research) was founded under the Act of 6 September 1983. It replaced the Institut pédagogique, founded in 1958, which ran a two-year higher education course to train pre-secondary schoolteachers and which, in turn, replaced the Ecole normale, the latter offering a four-year course of training leading to a qualification at the level of secondary school leaving certificate. The institute offers training for pre-school and primary schoolteachers, in conjunction with the Centre Universitaire de Luxembourg (Luxembourg Centre for Higher Education) in the form of a three-year course of higher education leading to the certificat d'études pédagogiques (certificate of pedagogical studies).

- Secondary and post-secondary teachers

Admission to the professional training period of post-primary teachers, which is called 'stage pédagogique', depends on a diploma criterion. The candidates must have completed a university course upwards of four years or a course of higher education qualifying for recognition under the terms of Council Directive 89/48/EEC of 21 December 1988 on a general system for the recognition of higher education diplomas. So, as Luxembourg does not have

its own university structure, post-primary teachers have traditionally studied abroad.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Luxembourg; 2008*.

Malta

“The initial training of teachers from primary level up to secondary level takes place at the University of Malta. Prospective teachers follow a Bachelor of Education honours degree course. Teachers who teach at pre-primary level follow a diploma course at the Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology. Teachers who teach in special schools follow the same course as primary and secondary schoolteachers and then specialise in teaching children with special educational needs. Academic staff at university and the Malta College of Arts, Science and Technology do not necessarily have to follow a pre-initial teacher training course, although these are encouraged to follow a teacher training course as part of their professional self-development.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Malta; 2006/2007*.

Netherlands

“Initial teacher training courses for the various types of school are part of higher education, some being provided at institutions of higher professional education (hbo) and some at universities:

- primary education *basisonderwijs*
- secondary education *voortgezet onderwijs*, grade two qualification for the first three years of HAVO and VWO, and all years of VMBO and secondary vocational education *middelbaar beroepsonderwijs*
- secondary education, grade one qualification for all levels of secondary education, including pre-higher education level, ie, the last two years of HAVO and the last three of VWO
- there are full-time, part-time and dual (ie, work-study) HBO teacher training courses
- there are also full-time, part-time and dual university training courses leading to a grade one secondary school teaching qualification (ULO courses) for all levels of secondary education, including pre-higher education. These courses are open to university students and graduates only.

Most teachers working at special schools have also completed a masters degree course in special educational needs. They may take the course after completing their initial primary or secondary teacher training, or another higher education course. Students can specialise in a particular field of work (eg. teaching children with hearing disabilities or maladjusted children) and are awarded a qualification with the relevant endorsement. The institutions providing the training decide whether or not a candidate will be admitted. This training course is not compulsory; it is still possible to work in special education *speciaal onderwijs* with an ordinary teaching qualification.

There are no specific training courses for those wishing to teach in higher education.

Generally speaking, teachers will have done teacher training. Another way of entering the teaching profession is through lateral entry. This allows people with higher education qualifications to enter the teaching profession through an alternative admission procedure. They then receive training and supervision aimed at equipping them with the necessary skills within two years.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in the Netherlands; 2007/2008*.

Norway

“The decision-making body in all initial teacher education is the Ministry of Education and Research. Important advisory bodies for the ministry are the Norwegian Association of Higher Education Institutions (UHR) and the independent Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education (NOKUT).

Different types of initial teacher education qualify for teaching at different educational levels, but all teacher education qualifies for teaching at more than one level. The following types of teacher education are:

- *Pre-primary teacher education* (three-year) qualifies for educational work in kindergartens. Addition of one year’s relevant further education qualifies pre-primary teachers to work in the first to fourth year of primary school.
- *General teacher education* (four-year) qualifies for teaching at primary and lower secondary school and adult education at the corresponding level. A full year of study of the subject is required in order to be

- *Subject teacher education* (three-year and four-year) qualifies for teaching subjects at primary and lower secondary school, at upper secondary school, adult education and for other cultural work with children and adolescents.
- *Vocational teacher education* (three-year) qualifies for teaching at upper secondary school, adult education and for subjects from the fifth year of primary school.
- One-year programme in educational theory and practice is a teacher education programme for students who have 3-5 years of university or university college education, usually covering two or three school subjects. The programme qualifies for teaching from the fifth year of the primary school, at upper secondary school and adult education.
- Integrated masters degree (five-year) qualifies for teaching of certain subjects from the fifth year of primary school, at upper secondary school and adult education.
- *Sami teacher education* qualifies for teaching Sami children in kindergartens and schools in Sami areas. The purpose of the courses is to secure qualified personnel. Sami is an official language in Norway.
- *Teacher education for deaf students* qualifies for teaching deaf children and adolescents in kindergarten and schools. It includes the subjects Norwegian sign language and Norwegian for deaf pupils. Sign language is an official language in Norway.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Norway: 2007/2008*.

Poland

The following is adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Poland; 2007/2008*.

“Initial training of teachers for the different levels and types of schools is provided within two sectors of education: the higher education sector and the school education sector.

The following types of higher education programmes provide training to future teachers operating within the higher education sector: first cycle studies (bachelor

degree or equivalent); second cycle studies (masters degree); uniform masters degree studies; post-diploma studies.

The above-mentioned studies are offered within university type HEIs (those having rights to confer the academic degree of doctor) namely in universities, technical universities, polytechnics and academies, and in non-university HEIs (with no rights to confer the academic degree of doctor). These HEIs function in both public and non-public higher education sectors.

Those functioning within the school education sector are teacher training colleges (*kolegium nauczycielskie*) and foreign language teacher training colleges (further on referred to as colleges – for the purpose of international comparison classified at the ISCED level 5B).

At present teachers who hold a higher education diploma, including mainly the holders of the masters degree, account for around 86% of those employed in pre-schools, 97% in primary schools and 98% in general upper secondary schools.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Poland; 2007/2008*.

Portugal

“Initial training for pre-school teachers, and for *ensino básico* and upper secondary education teachers, includes a scientific and pedagogic component required to obtain a specific professional qualification.

This is achieved by attending a higher education course leading to a licenciatura degree as laid down in Law No 115/97, 19 September, which altered the previous stipulations in Education Act No 46/86, of 14 October.

In line with the new wording of the Education Act in Law No 49/05, 30 August (art no 34), “the training of pre-school education teachers and teachers of first, second and third cycles of *ensino básico* is done at colleges of higher education and universities.”

Training for upper secondary education teachers is administered only in universities. The professional qualification for teachers of upper secondary education can also be acquired through licenciatura that provide scientific training in the respective area of teaching, complemented by appropriate teacher training.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Portugal; 2006/2007*.

Romania

“The minimum requirements regarding initial training of teachers depend on the teaching position that prospective teachers intend to occupy. Teaching positions (also referred to as ‘didactic functions’) are established by the Teaching Staff Statute (Law 128/1997) by education level.

The minimum initial training requirements for each teaching position are as follows:

- At present, following the implementation of the Bologna Process for kindergarten and primary education, it is necessary to attend a bachelor programme in primary and pre-primary education.
- For teaching positions in secondary education, post-secondary as well as for all higher education teaching positions, the minimum initial training requirements also include attending and passing the professional training programme provided by the teacher training departments (DPPD) organised within higher education institutions. Passing the professional training programme is recognised by a graduation certificate issued by the higher education institution. Alternatively, graduates wishing to follow a teaching career have the possibility to accomplish their professional training within a maximum of three years from the moment they have been employed.
- For any teaching positions within special education, initial training includes supplementary theoretical and practical training stages in special education, provided by institutions accredited by the Ministry of Education, Research and Innovation.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Romania; 2007/2008*.

Slovakia

“The basic structure of initial teacher training consists of two streams.

- After completing the primary school the students continue in their study in secondary pedagogical schools, and secondary pedagogical and social academies. On completing the school-leaving examination they receive qualification for kindergartens and school facilities.
- After completing the school-leaving examination the students continue in their study in faculties of education oriented at teacher training or other university faculties oriented at professional education, with the possibility

The higher education teaching qualification may be of three kinds:

- Study in faculties of education – the candidates complete higher education of the first and second level. After the defence of a thesis and completion of the state final examination, they receive the pedagogical qualification.
- Study in professional higher education institutions and supplementary pedagogical study. The candidate completes concurrently two study programmes and, besides the professional qualification, he/she also receives the pedagogical qualification.
- Study in professional higher education institutions – on completing this the candidate receives a higher education professional qualification and only afterwards does he/she complete the supplementary pedagogical study.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Slovakia; 2007/2008*.

Slovenia

“Pre-school teachers at pre-primary level qualify for the position after successfully completing at least a three-year higher professional education course. The compulsory and upper secondary schoolteachers qualify for the position after completing an academic course of at least four years’ duration.”

Adapted from information included in *The National summary sheets on education system in Europe and ongoing reforms – Slovenia; 2008*.

Spain

“The academic qualifications required to teach are uniform throughout the entire country, although they do vary according to the different levels of the education system.

The 2006 Ley Orgánica de Educación, LOE (Act on Education) establishes the academic qualifications teachers must have, as well as the initial education and the specific professional training they should have undertaken, depending on the educational level at which they are to teach. Education authorities are responsible for signing agreements with different universities so that the latter provide teacher education and training programmes for teachers.

In general terms, teachers must comply with the following requirements depending on the educational level at which they are to teach.

- As regards the first cycle of pre-primary education (0-3 years of age) provision is offered by maestros specialising in pre-primary education (a three-year degree) or holders of an equivalent bachelor degree, or by other staff qualified to work with pre-school pupils. In all cases, drawing up and monitoring the teaching plan is the responsibility of a maestro qualified in pre-primary education or holders of an equivalent bachelor degree.
- Teachers of the second cycle of pre-primary education (3-6 years of age) should be maestros specialising in pre-primary education or holders of the equivalent bachelor degree. When required they may be supported by maestros specialising in other areas.
- Primary education teachers must be qualified maestros in primary education (a three-year degree) or have an equivalent bachelor degree. Maestros are responsible for students' tutorials and are to teach all subjects at this educational level. However, music, physical education, and foreign languages are taught by maestros who are specialists in the corresponding area.
- In order to work at secondary education level (compulsory secondary education and bachillerato) teachers must hold licenciado, engineer, architect or the equivalent bachelor degree (a four, five or six-year degree). However the government, after consultation with education authorities of the various autonomous communities, may consider other qualifications suitable for teaching certain subjects or subject areas. Besides the above-mentioned university degrees, teachers must also undertake pedagogical and didactic training provided at universities to acquire the specific teacher training required for this educational level.
- As regards vocational training, education candidates must have the same academic qualifications and teacher training as those required for teaching at compulsory secondary education level and bachillerato.
- Teachers of enseñanzas de régimen especial, in general terms, are grouped along with secondary education teachers since they also have to meet certain qualification requirements and have the same employment status.
- University teachers are either career civil servants or employed on a contractual basis. Different qualification requirements have been

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Spain; 2007/2008*.

Sweden

“Teacher education is provided at 26 universities and university colleges. Some of the university colleges for arts provide teacher education in practical arts subjects. A teaching qualification is obtained after completing between three and five-and-a-half years of full-time studies – different educational levels require different amounts of credit points. There is also a short teacher education programme of one-and-a-half years for those with a previous bachelor or master’s degree. The teaching degrees comprise general and specialisation courses such as sports, foreign languages, etc. Teacher students who intend to work with pupils with special needs receive special training.

Mainly as a result of the Bologna Process, legislation for a three-cycle structure of higher education was adopted in January 2007 and applied since 1 July 2007. The new structure replaces the former system. The former degree system has been reformed and structured to fit the new three-cycle system.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in Sweden; 2007/2008*.

United Kingdom

“Arrangements for initial training of teachers vary according to the sector (schools, further education or higher education).

- Pre-school, primary and secondary schoolteachers

In England and Wales, teachers employed in maintained schools, including nursery schools, must have qualified teacher status (QTS) or be otherwise licensed or authorised to teach by the Secretary of State for Children, Schools and Families, the Training and Development Agency for Schools, or the National Assembly for Wales. Teachers of classes of pupils with hearing or visual impairments must, in addition, obtain a recognised specialist qualification within three years of appointment.

In Northern Ireland, teachers employed in grant-aided schools must have qualifications approved by the Department of Education.

- Teachers in post-compulsory and further education

This covers teachers in further education institutions, tertiary colleges or sixth-form colleges. The sector also includes adult and community education and training organisations. Where post-compulsory students (16+) are catered for in maintained schools, the regulations concerning teacher training and qualifications for the school sector apply.

Since September 2001 in England and 2002 in Wales, all new entrants to teaching in the post-compulsory sector have been required to undergo teacher training and to complete a professional teaching qualification that is endorsed by Lifelong Learning UK (the sector skills council – responsible for workforce development in the sector). Serving teachers who were employed before September 2001 are also encouraged to obtain relevant teaching qualifications through a process of continuing professional development. New teaching qualifications and a professional ‘licence to teach’ have been introduced in England from September 2007, and in both England and Wales, new professional standards for teachers have been developed.

In Northern Ireland, further education teachers who do not have an initial teacher training qualification on appointment must hold an approved qualification such as a university degree or a vocational qualification in the subject they wish to teach. They are contractually required to obtain the postgraduate certificate (further and higher education) within three years of appointment and are encouraged to extend this training to obtain the postgraduate diploma (further and higher education).

- Teachers in higher education

Higher education institutions are autonomous institutions. Each determines its own requirements concerning staff and there is no body of legislation dealing with higher education staff. Increasingly, institutions provide training for their teaching staff, especially those who are new to the profession.

National professional standards for teaching in higher education, for institutions to apply to their professional development programmes and activities, have been developed.”

Adapted from information included in chapter 8 of *The Education System in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland); 2007/2008*.

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WHAT IS A “EUROPEAN TEACHER”?

MICHAEL SCHRATZ

Introduction

Throughout society, Europe has become an increasingly important reference point. For teachers, responsible for preparing future generations of Europeans, this is perhaps even more the case. ENTEP aims at developing a European dimension of education in teacher education programmes. However, whilst European teachers work within a European context, we still know very little about their “Europeanness”, in other words what constitutes a teacher within an understanding of European professionalism.

This paper will serve as a springboard for further discussions about future roles of teachers in Europe and will contribute to raising awareness for a new expectation of what constitutes a European teacher, i.e. a teacher working within a European context of professionalism. This might help in creating a “European space” in teacher education activities, where ENTEP sees potential for professional development. The title question has been used to make this endeavour more explicit and is not intended to create a “standardised teacher model”. If there is unity in diversity through national identities, the question remains, what makes a teacher “European”?

The paper first looks at general teacher competences required to meet the challenges of the 21st century. The second part presents findings from a study into future demands on teacher competences by the Expert Group A on Teacher Education in the *Education and Training 2010* process. The third part summarises elements which the members of ENTEP have collected in view of what constitutes a “European Teacher”.

1. Teacher competences in the 21st century (a research perspective)

The data submitted by national representatives of ENTEP for this paper indicate some tension between what constitutes a “good” teacher in general¹, with skills appropriate to the 21st century, and a “European teacher”. The general view is that a European teacher must have the same basic skills as any good teacher. Firstly, he or she should have a profound knowledge of his/her subject area and have the skills to teach the students² successfully. The following skills could be expected (according to Perrenoud, 1999³):

- organizing student learning opportunities;
- managing student learning progression;
- dealing with student heterogeneity;
- developing student commitment to working and learning;

¹ Quality criteria cited refer either to research-based findings or to collections of challenges for the 21st century (such as Expert Group A in Teacher Education for the EU Objectives 2010).

² In this paper pupils and students are used interchangeably.

³ Perrenoud, Ph. (1999). *Dix nouvelles compétences pour enseigner*. Invitation au voyage. Paris: ESF.

- working in teams;
- participating in school curriculum and organization development;
- promoting parent and community commitment to school;
- using new technologies in their daily practice;
- tackling professional duties and ethical dilemmas;
- managing their own professional development.

Since a teacher's knowledge and skills depend on his/her continuous learning and development, he/she should deal with current research and be aware of general social changes.

2. Changing dimensions of the role of teachers and trainers (EU experts' perspective)

Members of the Expert Group of Teacher Education concerning the EU Objectives 1.1 2010 cited the following changes in competences formally required of teachers (and trainers) in their countries in recent years. These changes were introduced in response to issues of student intake, teaching environment, and contextual factors including general social trends and developments in the labour market. Members were also invited to identify what further changes were likely to be required in the coming years in response to these issues. The following items were summarized in a synthesis report⁴.

2.1. Impact of social changes

Promoting new learning outcomes

- Contributing to citizenship education of students/trainees
Such as
 - Living in a multicultural, inclusive and tolerant society;
 - Living according to sustainable lifestyles regarding environmental issues;
 - Dealing with gender equity issues in family, work and social life;
 - Living as European citizen;
 - Managing his/her own career development;
 - Etc.
- Promoting the development of competences of students/trainees for the knowledge and lifelong learning society
Such as
 - Motivation to learn beyond compulsory education;
 - Learn how to learn/learning in an independent way;
 - Information processing;
 - Digital literacy;
 - Creativity and innovation;
 - Problem-solving;
 - Entrepreneurship;
 - Communication;

⁴ See Synthesis report of the first homework of the Expert Group on Objective 1.1: Improving the education of teachers and trainers (WG1.1/02/002).

- Visual culture;
- Etc.
- Linking the development of new curriculum competencies with school subjects

2.2. Diversity of student intake and changes in the teaching environment

Working in restructured ways in the classroom

- Dealing with social, cultural and ethnic diversity of students
- Organising learning environments and facilitating learning processes
- Working in teams with teachers and other professionals involved in the learning process of the same students

Working “beyond the classroom”: in the school/training centre and with social partners

- Working in school curriculum, organisational development and evaluation
- Collaborating with parents and other social partners

Integrating ICT in formal learning situations and in all professional practice

2.3. Increasing levels of teaching professionalization

Acting as professionals

- Acting in an investigative or problem-solving way
Assuming greater responsibility for their own professional development in a *lifelong* learning perspective

This – by no means complete - list points to more or less general (new) competences required by any (future) teacher – with the exception of particular reference to European citizenship. These can therefore be seen as a basis for the discussion of general competences for future European teachers.

3. “Europeanness”

Teachers in the European Union do not only educate future citizens of their particular member country, but also support them in becoming future generations of European citizens. They work within a national framework, which emphasises the need for a national identity as a basis for transnational awareness within a European society. The term “European Dimension” has been used to balance national and transnational values in educational policy making.

This discussion paper goes further by looking closer at what constitutes the ‘Europeanness’ in the teaching profession. From this perspective the European dimension is made up of many different facets deeply rooted in the socio-political and cultural context of a growing European community. From a policy point-of-view this overview does not aim at creating the format of a ‘European super teacher’, but intends to point to European issues which are potentially of particular significance in future discussions.

- a) *European identity*: A European Teacher has certain values which show that he or she is not just a national teacher but one who teaches “beyond” the national curriculum. He/she would see himself/herself as someone with roots in one particular country, but at the same time belonging to a greater European whole. This co-existence of national identity and transnational awareness provides a valuable perspective on questions of heterogeneity. Diversity within unity is therefore a key aspect of a developed European identity with an open mind toward the world at large.
- b) *European knowledge*: A European Teacher has some knowledge of other European education systems and, possibly, of educational policy matters on the EU level. He/she values his/her own education system and views it in relation to other European ones. He/she has a knowledge of European and world affairs. A European teacher is aware of European history (histories) and its (their) influence on contemporary European society.
- c) *European multiculturalism*: A European Teacher engages with the multicultural nature of European society. He/she has a positive relationship with his/her own culture and is open towards other cultures. He/she knows how to behave in other cultures in a confident and non-dominant way. He/she works with heterogeneous groups, sees heterogeneity as valuable and respects any differences. He/she copes with the challenges of the multicultural aspects of the knowledge society, and works to promote equal opportunities.
- d) *European language competence*: A European Teacher speaks more than one European language with differing levels of competence. He/she experiences other languages in initial and further teacher education and is able to teach subjects in languages other than his/her first language. He/she spends some time in a country with a language different from his/her first language, and also communicates in a number of languages with colleagues and people from abroad.
- e) *European professionalism*: A European Teacher has an education which enables him/her to teach in any European country. He/she has a “European” approach to subject areas in his/her teaching and links up cross-curricular themes from a European perspective. He/she exchanges curricular content and methodologies with colleagues from other European countries. He/she pays attention to and learns from different teaching and learning traditions. He/she uses examples of research from other countries to understand and explain professional issues and teaches accordingly. Teacher education is now working towards a new professionalism with a European perspective (e.g. it does not restrict teaching practice to national boundaries). Many teaching subjects already build on the rich history of a European tradition, and this can be usefully exploited. Joint programmes and degrees offered by educational institutions in European countries can enhance the development of European professionalism, as can many of the opportunities offered by modern technology.
- f) *European citizenship*: A European teacher should act as a “European citizen”. He/she should show solidarity with citizens in other European countries and shares values such as respect for human rights, democracy and freedom. His/her critical teaching should foster autonomous, responsible and

active citizens of a Europe of tomorrow. Aspects of the school curriculum may be developed in a teaching area possibly entitled “European Studies”, or ‘Europeanness’ could be integrated across the curriculum.

- g) *European quality measures*: If there is something like a European Teacher, there must be some way of comparing the formal features of Europe’s teacher education systems. Suggestions reach from formal assessment of systems to informal exchanges and cross-cultural visits. The Bologna process is an important step towards academic comparability and achieving an overarching qualification framework across Europe. An increase in compatibility between European qualifications and in transparency of graduate achievement is central to the Bologna/Copenhagen processes, and would also remove obstacles from teacher mobility.

4. Mobility as a goal

A European Teacher experiences the benefits of the European Union in part through easy mobility. This mobility encompasses studying abroad and learning languages as well as getting acquainted with other EU countries’ cultures. He/she may seek employment in other countries and use exchange programmes offered by the European Union. This contributes towards the creation of a Europe of different languages and cultures, and nurtures cultural diversity as a vision for living together in the future.

A European Teacher facilitates mobility among his/her students by enabling them to have physical and virtual contact with peers in other European countries. Classroom or school exchanges and EU programmes are means to enrich the process of mutual learning and growing toward a new understanding of European citizenship. This helps prepare for Europe-wide employability and, eventually, workplace mobility.

In the European classroom, modern information and communication technologies (ICT) are more than just technical devices for playing and searching for superficial data. Instead, they offer effective tools for communicating across linguistic and cultural borders, enlightening the staid and predictable classroom routines produced by monocultural approaches. Virtual mobility in finding and disseminating information is seen as a vital prerequisite for physical mobility, and is also very effective in transnational communication.

5. Student competences

Although student competences are included in the extensive list of teachers’ competences in 2, some aspects will be discussed here as they were specifically mentioned in the national representatives’ reports. These submissions indicate that the European Teacher generally favours competence-oriented teaching styles as a means to achieve his/her aims and objectives. Nevertheless, students should be able to react to different teaching styles and learning traditions.

The diversity and multicultural make-up of schools can help children feel at home with Europe’s developing complexity and pluralism. It is part of the teacher’s role to prepare students for community life and work. Learning about multicultural values

means acquiring an extensive general and artistic culture, learning foreign languages, and developing some knowledge of European and world affairs. A European Teacher encourages students to develop this general culture, along with a critical perspective, so that they may become autonomous, responsible and active citizens.

This culture forms a basis for the acquisition of skills that enable students to move around, live and work in different European cultures. As well as familiarity with different cultures, a European Teacher also needs to be able to analyse complex intercultural issues in order to enhance cross-cultural learning processes.

6. Suggestions for policy making and implementations

An ENTEP discussion paper is only as good as it informs the policy discourse. Therefore this discussion paper is meant to be a starting point for further discussions about future roles of teachers in Europe and will contribute to policy issues on different levels towards a European development of teacher professionalism. The following areas can be regarded as relevant on different levels in the advancement of this issue.

6.1. European level

- European qualifications framework
- Common European Principles
- Recommendations to member states in teacher education
- European programmes (SOCRATES)

6.2. National

- Content of teacher education programmes
- Definitions of competences and how they are evaluated
- Evaluations of initial/continuing progressive development (What is evaluated?)
- Accreditations of studies in other European countries
- How to use European programmes bilaterally

6.3. Institutional

- Institutional policies on European/international cooperation
- How to ensure “ownership” of projects at institutional level
- How to promote mobility programme and ensure credits/recognition
- Joint programmes, masters/doctorates
- Content of programmes

THE CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS IN EU MEMBER STATES: NEW POLICY APPROACHES, NEW VISIONS

URSULA UZERLI and LUCIEN KERGER

*“Tell me - I might forget,
show me - I might remember,
involve me and I shall understand.”*
(Chinese proverb)

Introduction

This text, based upon reports from ENTEP members, aims to give a brief overview of the latest policy visions, approaches and possible interventions in the Continuous Professional Development¹ of Teachers in Europe. The second aim is to stimulate discussion in these countries and encourage the exchange of ideas, to promote reflection and the consideration of examples of other approaches, according to national needs in the context of various traditions in Teacher Education and Training. This text will not describe the status quo in EU Member States; such data are available in different studies from other European networks (see Eurydice, The information network on education in Europe, for such detailed data for one source)².

General Background

At the Feldkirch Conference on ”Strategies of Change in Teacher Education-European Views”, organised by Otmar Gassner, (January 2002) the focus on CPD was addressed in the opening statement: “(...) the professionalism of teachers has assumed top priority. In order to gain and renew the skills needed for their profession, teachers should be immersed in the process of lifelong learning – and should ensure that their pupils are made aware of the importance of their own learning as a lifelong process.(...)”³.

Considering the current social, cultural, economic and - naturally - educational requirements for change in the societies of all European countries, there is unanimous agreement that all teachers should be provided during their career with opportunities to update the skills they need to perform their tasks as well as possible, and thus achieve the aims of a high quality education in their working fields.

¹ In the context of lifelong learning more and more countries refer to CPD rather than ‘in-service-training’, it seems to be a more precise description of the further development of personal qualifications, profiles and competences and also seems to pay more attention to the continuity of provision throughout the various stages of professional career.

² <http://www.eurydice.org>

³ Gassner, O. (2002) Strategies of Change in Teacher Education. European Views. Conference Proceedings ENTEP/BLK conference. 18–19 January, 2002, Feldkirch, Austria. http://www.pafeldkirch.ac.at/_entep/_texte/paedag200.pdf

While teachers are regarded as experts in learning with an adequate knowledge of educational theory and subject matters on which to build their classroom skills, this expertise increasingly has to become the expertise of a reflective lifelong learner, who is willing and able to understand her/his professional career as a constantly self-evaluating process of personal and professional growth, instead of merely conserving existing classroom practices and passing them on to newcomers.

Keeping in mind the evolution of educational research in correlation with societal changes, teaching is regarded as a social activity which needs time, freedom and flexibility to respond to constantly changing circumstances. The need to redefine the role of, and the obligation for, CPD is therefore an item accorded high priority in many working groups in the European debate and is seen as very important by the public as well.

The fact that individual teachers have to take more and more ownership of their further professional development is also widely accepted. Although teachers' roles are changing, and they are expected to be self-directed learners, able and motivated to respond to change and to meet the varied requirements of their students, it must be the responsibility of all the relevant institutions and responsible bodies to respond to specific needs for further education, such as improving teaching and the actual classroom situation, learning outcomes, dealing with heterogeneity and cultural diversity, social and economic changes etc. Equally, it is the responsibility of the employer to provide appropriate working conditions and allocate sufficient resources to make such a continuum of professional development possible.

In the context of lifelong learning, CPD is a key issue, going far beyond the traditional concept of In-Service Training, which up to now has been the only place for teacher further education in some European countries. Policy makers and participating institutions in Teacher Education and Training are aware of the need to support teacher professional development which aims at the auto- and co-construction of knowledge and know-how as well as enhancing the individual choice of teachers meeting their need to further develop or strengthen their personal competences. Teachers are thus regarded as recipients of knowledge transfer as well as inventors, researchers and analysts.

Overall it can be argued that we are moving away from the concept of a receptive formation, where the decision makers (political or administrative authorities) recommend or oblige teachers to attend courses, looking for responses to questions which had not been asked. CPD on the contrary wants to encourage staff, school leaders and other partners in this field to participate in this lifelong attempt, and to conceive it as a constant dynamic process in which they themselves are active players.

Different understanding of, and conditions for, professional development in a lifelong learning context

The key phases that teachers go through during their career are more or less the same in all European countries despite different national backgrounds and traditions. They all enter the profession in institutions as academic learners (with increasing 'Universitisation' in Initial Teacher Education in all Member States); in some countries more than others this is linked to schools as the field of exemplary practice

and studies to provide future teachers with theoretical and practical insights into their future profession and to enable them to reflect emerging new requirements as well as reflecting upon their personal process of developing the skills needed.

Researchers identify different stages when referring to the multidimensional aspects of professional development. Some regard the stages as the preparation, appointment, induction and in-service, whereas others speak of career-relevant phases like pre-service, induction, competency building, enthusiasm and growth, career frustration, stability and stagnation and finally career wind-down and career exit. (Bolam 1990⁴, and Kremer-Hayon & Fessler 1991⁵)

Considering that this process of lifelong professional development and learning involves several changes, one can imagine that teachers' professional skills and work-related problems are very different when entering working life and toward the later years of their career. Those are mainly changes in thinking, in conceptions of knowledge, in conceptions of learning in general as well as in self-conceptions of their own learning process, their image of being a teacher, their command of the teaching subject with all the changes over time and environmental changes of the work available.

Many countries have up to now paid little attention to systemic approaches with a special focus on the changes in educational needs in these different phases of a teaching career. Although policies stressing the continuum of teachers' professional development are under discussion in several countries, the sometimes simplistic idea of a linear continuum seems to go along with the aim to achieve uniform educational outcomes or the political goal of being able to control the provision of teacher education in a national setting.

There are various international research findings about the modes for professional development and further learning of teachers and most of them stress the fact "(...) that teachers have not generally taken an active part in the production of knowledge about their own teaching (...)" as Day (1997)⁶ describes it.

Questions such as how teachers may become active in this field and reflective towards their own thinking, their personal theories and approaches (their personal models and schemata), their planning, their methodology in class and following actions - in other words their mind-sets, their conception of what it is to be a teacher or even a good teacher in a certain subject, a certain environment or cultural setting, a national tradition, a European context, etc. - have obviously not been subject to longitudinal studies in detail.

But on the other hand Schön (1992) comes to the conclusion that if teachers are not supported throughout their careers to develop reflective teaching at different levels "(...) teachers are cut off, then, both from the possibility of reflecting and

⁴ Bolam, R. (1990) Recent developments in England and Wales, in B. Joyce (Ed.) (1990) *Changing School Culture through Staff Development*, the 1990 ASCD Yearbook. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Virginia, USA, pp. 147-167.

⁵ Kremer-Hayon, L. & Fessler, R. (1991), *The inner world of school principals: reflections on career life stages*, paper presentation, 'Educational Development: the contribution of research on teachers' thinking. Fourth International Conference of the International Study Association on Teacher Thinking. 23-27 September, University of Surrey.

⁶ Day, Ch. (1997) *In-Service Teacher Education in Europe: conditions and themes for development in the 21st century*. *British Journal of In-service Education*, Vol. 23. No.1, 1997, p. 42.

building on their own know-how and from the conclusion that could serve them as spring-boards to new ways of seeing things (...)"⁷. One of the great challenges is therefore to achieve the overall aim that CPD is perceived as a need and as a right by all teachers.

Future challenges and visions in the field of CPD and lifelong learning of teachers

For many countries the magic reference year in the field of Teacher Education as a whole, and specifically CPD and lifelong learning strategies, seems to be 2010, corresponding with the Bologna Process and a parallel attempt to meet the requirements of the Lisbon Convention.

The growing awareness that all European citizens should benefit from an increasing quality of education and thus be able to become active members of the knowledge society requires a profile of teachers who have the skills and competences to accompany future citizens in this process of education, evolving new skills and the expected mobility.

Ensuring the improvement of quality, enhancing their assurance, promoting necessary changes, activating possible change agents and in general recognising teachers as key players in the implementation and intellectual dissemination of the reforms required, requires a high quality professional identity.

These changes are not just about changing curricula or designing certain courses and possibly making them mandatory, hoping then the required changes will eventually take place. We are dealing with a change of philosophy, actually creating a culture change in the professional development of teachers, their self concept and professional identity.

The question of how we can really make things happen in a time of ageing teaching staff and early retirement of teachers all over Europe, the risk of shortages in most countries, the lack of resources and many other obstacles, creates a constant challenge for policy makers today.

In his preview of the overall aim and agenda for the Conference on "Teacher Professional Development for the Quality and Equity of Lifelong Learning" in Lisbon (27-28 September 2007) Bartolo Campos pointed out that "(...) Improving teachers' education in order to respond to the new challenges faced by education and training systems in terms of lifelong learning, is therefore the first objective of the Education and Training 2010 programme as defined by the Council of the European Union and ratified by the European Council. It aims to promote cooperation between Member States' education and training policies so that they can become a world reference of efficiency and equity, and contribute to the objectives of the Lisbon Strategy and to the development of active citizenship.(...)". (Conference Preview, Lisbon 2007).

"Key competences for lifelong learning", as defined in the Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council in December 2006, are considered as relevant in schools across the EU member states and accordingly in Teacher Education as well:

⁷ Schön, D.A. (1992) *La formación de profesionales reflexivos*. Barcelona. Paidós/MEC

- communication in the mother tongue,
- communication in foreign languages,
- mathematical competence and competence in science and technology.
- digital competence,
- learning to learn,
- social and civic competences,
- sense of initiative and entrepreneurship,
- cultural awareness and expression.

The eight key competences are underpinned by qualities to be developed such as critical thinking, creativity, initiative, problem solving, risk assessment, decision taking, and constructive management of feelings.

The role of future CPD should, then, be to support teachers in service and provide them with the conditions and opportunities to further develop these professional and personal competences and acquire new competences like:

In the subject fields:

- acquire new knowledge in their subjects
- the structuring and restructuring of knowledge
- constructivist strategies in knowledge processing in their subjects
- learner orientation and diagnostic competence

In didactic matters:

- active learning strategies
- responding to individual learning processes and learning progression
- choosing or designing appropriate material for differentiated learning opportunities
- evaluating and documenting the different stages of progress
- promoting discovery learning opportunities

In pedagogical and social matters:

- appreciating heterogeneity
- managing diversity
- promoting cultural awareness
 - language awareness
 - learning awareness
- promoting social learning
- working with parents from different cultural or national backgrounds
- promoting respect, tolerance and collaboration in class and the wider school community

Working in teams with other teachers and professionals who are involved with the same learning groups seems to be a competence to be expected, like collaborating with parents and other social partners. Considering the constantly changing societies in a global world and the challenges that accompany these rapid changes, they undoubtedly require new competences that teachers might not have been able to develop during their initial teacher education.

Greater coherence between the different phases of teacher education

The term ‘continuous professional development’ implies that the different phases of teacher education should be designed as a system with coherence and continuity. Several countries stress the need that Initial Teacher Education, Induction and Continuous Professional Development should correspond to one consistent teacher education policy, through which teachers could build on such a foundation throughout the different stages of their process of qualification and professionalization.

While it is a great support for students in their initial phase to be in contact with experienced teachers in their practical studies at school, it is also of great benefit to serving teachers to become aware of recent findings in their subject matters or the pedagogical field in general, and it would give schools access to a wider context of intellectual life and to research developments in different fields. From this perspective, CPD is not simply a process of ‘updating’ but one of continuous growth, depth, enrichment, sharing and change.

In this respect, researchers in the field of education will benefit from cooperation and partnerships, the experiences of students with classroom situations, with the individual teacher and the whole system, and will consider these findings in their future hypotheses and development of concepts, to contribute to a higher quality in Initial Teacher Education.

Practicing teachers will probably feel re-empowered by this newly initiated “iterative process of movement between practice and performance” - as Senge describes learning in teams - and will feel newly motivated to respond to the changes initiated by policy makers, school planners and their personal needs for change, and will more likely want to catch up with new cognitive and pedagogical demands, knowing that they are active partners in this overall process.⁸

Quality development and assurance and higher levels of qualification of training and teaching staff in all institutions involved in the different phases of teacher education might be a welcome side effect of such a partnership and cooperation model, which could also include the exchange of staff in certain projects or modules.

Universities and higher education institutions should, then, be encouraged to operate as providers of demand-driven CPD programmes. In some countries regional centres to deliver CPD are planned, with a greater integration of Higher Education Institutions and Training Institutions as well as traditional CPD providers, not only for reasons of synergy but also to share experiences and research findings and to strengthen schools and participating institutions as learning and research communities.

The role of the Universities in Teacher Education, which is very ambiguous in many countries at present, is expected to be more adequately met through such partnerships and this will at the same time construct a clearer expectation that teachers - as mentors, specialised and experienced teachers - would be involved in Teacher Education and Training, as well adding value to the work of schools and

⁸ This statement was quoted in the context of the PLA on ‘Schools as Learning Communities’ in The Hague, 2006.

providing valuable insights for in depth action-research in schools, which has been neglected in many countries.

From merely individualistic engagement in CPD to a more systemic view in the learning school or school as learning community

If, as policy makers claim, teachers must engage in lifelong learning and continuous professional development, then schools must be supported to become learning organisations in which these efforts are understood as systemic challenges and not only individualistic commitments to differently perceived personal or institutional needs. At the school level, policies to encourage teachers' lifelong learning can only be effective if the responsible institutions create learning environments in which evidence-based and reflected practice are appreciated, in which continuous training is recognised as necessary and empowering, and in which a supporting system is a natural model.

In the context of the above mentioned Feldkirch Conference, at which CPD was an important topic, Gassner summarises several issues in one of his articles, addressing them as part of "the far-reaching decisions that lie ahead of us" (2002, p.136). One of the conclusions implies that schools should be made responsible for the CPD of their staff and the quality of teaching.

The expertise teachers need at one type of school or in one working or learning community (depending on regional aspects, the number of pupils, gender aspects, diversity of various factors, socio-cultural aspects of the area etc.) might not be in the least comparable with the expertise needed in another school from the same regional or national context.

The setting of explicit expectations and objectives by schools - in terms of improving School development, pupils' achievements, social cohesion and dealing with diversity - can motivate teachers to become key partners and take an active part in this collective learning process.

In an atmosphere of encouragement and the exchange of knowledge and experience, in which staff training needs may become obvious without offending anyone, and in which strategies for improvement can be aligned with school priorities, it can be expected that there will be a greater opportunity to develop new approaches and practices along with a greater effect of ownership and authenticity in personal achievements. The ability and willingness to share ideas, and the competence to work in teams are, ideally, preconditions for teachers in such an environment but they are also the results of the continuing interaction of personal and systemic needs.⁹

Future employers request that students take part in cooperative and self-directed learning, and teaching competences are required to enhance this way of learning, yet teachers themselves have to fight continuously for the time and the opportunity to

⁹ The development of a school as a learning community also requires a new role of leaders, who engage in an ongoing and reflective learning process together with their staff, school leaders who are aware of themselves as leaders and learners, who are able and anticipate environmental change, who have the energy and authenticity to activate and motivate their staff and make them understand their envisioned contribution to this process.

construct for themselves the same kind of learning situation, which should be a natural precondition in their professional environment.

Learning schools are an important contribution to school improvement in general; a situation in which pupils experience their 'learning teachers' as positive role models in lifelong learning will have a double effect: firstly on their own learning, with a great benefit for the individual, and secondly for their changing awareness of teachers as partners in the process of learning as a lifelong endeavour. Thus, collective creativity or collaborative learning and de-learning approaches, in which staff jointly analyse the school's objectives and their potential individual part in progress, can support the appreciation of diverse opinions and different personal skills and can thus enrich and re-energise the learning community and improve student learning as well.

Such a climate of trust and reliability helps teachers to relate more easily to a view of shared vision, understanding it as a chance to encompass the individual ideas of all staff in the process of continuous personal and systemic improvement. The ability to understand staff members as resources whose development is key to organisational performance, regardless of their specific role or status, is one very important competence that school leaders should have in their professional profile as the 'motor' of such a community.

As in other professions in society, school staff must increasingly be recognised as potentially active and equal partners in several important fields at school, like voluntary co-leaders, participating in decision-making circles, anticipating change and reframing problems.¹⁰

Teachers' individual development plans

In such learning communities, as well as in other systemic approaches "individual development plans" serve different functions; they are currently practiced in a few countries in Europe and are being widely considered as options for the future in many more.

An individual development plan is negotiated between the teacher and the management of the educational institution, the supervising boards or the principle of the school in cooperation with inspection boards, and can either include the whole teaching career or concentrate on further development with or without implications for promotion. In a negative way it can even be used as a penalty measure after a certain period of weak performance and resistance to further training for various reasons.

As mobility is expected of teachers and is regarded as a central component of the Initial Phase and Continuing Development Programmes, teachers with an individual development plan, and the documentation of the progress in a personal portfolio, will have easier access to opportunities for mobility in which their learning status can be better recognised, acknowledged and (after European wide mobility) valued in their

¹⁰ The Peer Learning Activity : "Schools as Learning Communities" conducted by the Cluster 'Teachers and Trainers' and the European Commission in The Hague in May 2006 has been a very interesting possibility of exchanging and sharing experiences, visions, questions and policy implications in this context.

home country. Personal portfolios also help teachers to reflect on the progress of their individual personal and professional development and such monitoring can even be conducted online with online-portfolios.

In the context of school evaluation and inspection some school supervisors have suggested that all schools should possess competence profiles for all their teachers, which would enable schools to identify the skills and competences of their staff more precisely. But within the concept of a learning organisation these profiles should only be used as an instrument for development and not for control. Here again trust is an important issue.

Such professional portfolios also provide transparency about the range of competences an individual teacher has to offer, when he or she applies for a new function or a position in the sector of Teacher Education; Personal profiles, extra qualifications in specific competence areas (such as the European Language Portfolio, a certificate on intercultural competences, on mediation, diagnosis, counselling etc.) are often preconditions for entry to certain leading posts and functions at different levels in the educational sector.

While “teachers play a vital role in enabling people to identify and develop their talents and (...) to acquire the complex range of knowledge, skills, and key competences that they will need as citizens throughout their personal, social and professional lives” effective school systems will have to provide their staff with development possibilities “to update existing skills (and competences) and/or developing new ones” to adapt to the evolving needs of learners. (European Council, 15 November 2007¹¹) The essential role of school leaders is widely accepted in this context. Further professional development in the context of career development and further qualifications for school leaders who have to meet these future expectations also have to be offered by the responsible bodies.

Different actions are being taken in several countries through strategic interventions in the field, which can include personal development plans or more general plans for certain regions, certain types of schools in a cooperation system or a whole country. Such initiatives are being planned or already established by Ministries, departments of education or at other policy levels; a few countries are even planning a system-wide change in leadership while others remain rather doubtful about the possibility of such a systemic endeavour and concentrate instead on individual further training of potential school-leaders and those in service. But distributed and shared leadership as one of the future objectives is recognised as a challenging alternative to the models of the past and best practice examples are available throughout Europe. Present structures are being changed or planned to be changed, while future leaders are already being anticipated and prepared in special CPD offers, in line with this approach.¹²

It is only possible to make school-leaders responsible for the results of school development, the outcome and success of further staff development with added quality and value, if the necessary individual opportunities and systemic conditions for learning are provided for all participants in the system. Individually, teachers can

¹¹ <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/07/st14/st14413.en07.pdf>

¹² In January 2006 a Peer Learning Seminar on ‘School Leadership’ was held in Brussels, offered by the European Commission in the context of the work of the Cluster ‘Teachers and Trainers’.

also be regarded as leaders in their field of competence, managing and realising their needs and seeing themselves as part of a team of experts of teaching and learning, in a culture of expertise at schools. This view can contribute to a challenging and a rewarding approach in CPD.

Evaluation of CPD approaches and initiatives as a means of sustainability, quality development and quality assurance

The principles underpinning School Evaluation and School Development Planning, involving school review and self-evaluation, should empower schools to take greater ownership in identifying the CPD needs of schools and of their teachers, in line with the specific objectives of each school. A system which provides for regular needs analysis should enable more efficient identification and provision of CPD concepts and programmes for whole-school development and for the development of individual teachers.

As each approach to evaluation implies a certain concept of quality, it is vital to design evaluation procedures on the basis of specific concepts of quality teaching. “If a school can justify evaluating all teachers through identical procedures, then the school is probably devoid of innovations.”¹³

Quality assurance by the evaluation of improvement in the system, as well as in the professional development of staff in correlation with school outcomes, is another important means of evaluation, which helps to govern and monitor change processes. Therefore CPD as a key factor in the effort to improve the quality of teaching must also be subject to evaluation with respect to its effective contribution to this endeavour.

By reflecting on their own work, possibly revising or even changing their self-concept and appreciating their own competences, staff should be encouraged to understand both ways of evaluation as an instrument of further developing their expertise and contributing to school development and results as a whole. They should be encouraged to clearly see this as a critical but constructive examination of their individual progress, of their own set of skills and competences, of the effectiveness of their teaching, of their classroom practice and of the school system as a whole. Such periodic reviewing and monitoring of teachers’ professional development can help internalize new attitudes toward their professional understanding and can inspire their wish to raise personal standards in the field of subject competences as well as pedagogical, social and didactical skills. Beside a positive culture of feedback among all partners in the field of school and education, this professional discussion with a detached view of the system and the individual progress can certainly be one of the empowering chances to make growth and change happen.

Becoming equal partners in dealing with their own professionalism and presenting themselves productively and creatively within the school community and to other actors such as school boards or supervision bodies ought to be a condition

¹³ This statement was quoted from Travers, 1981, in a presentation by Michael Schratz about “Teacher Evaluation as Part of Professional Development” at the ENTEP Conference in Nicosia, Cyprus, in May 2006.

sine qua non in a profession based on partnership, as outlined in The Common European Principles¹⁴.

In order to share the experiences and the effect of learning communities within schools in the context of lifelong learning, debates among schools and between schools and Teacher Education Institutions may contribute to an implicit and internal form of evaluation by stimulating interactions, individual cooperation or even long-term institutionalised partnerships.

Offering a communication structure that allows a continuous exchange of knowledge on the specific needs of staff or on the progress made within certain individual or institutional development efforts, encourages the partners involved to place greater emphasis on particular aspects of their own teaching, school development issues and classroom or school results.

Finally the following issues are regarded as especially relevant for national and European policy in improving the Continuous Professional Development of teachers:

- highly prescribed CPD programmes that do not take into account individual development needs, environmental conditions or the participating individuals, are not likely to succeed;
- teachers' professional development is more effective when there are systematic opportunities with conditions that allow change to happen, considering the dispositions of all parties involved;
- irrespective of national policy conditions such as autonomy, centralization, de-centralization, shared leadership or shared responsibilities among teacher education institutions, all partners in the school sector should want to establish a new learning culture and encourage teachers accordingly;
- this innovative learning culture should not be reduced to the staff at school; it should also include school boards, school supervisory bodies and parents;
- school leader development is vital to an understanding of partnerships within a school community in the process of collaborative lifelong learning;
- teachers as change agents and public actors should not be excluded from policy decision-making processes;
- policy makers should take advantage of opportunities to share action research outcomes and create a culture of cooperation as experts among equals.

“While responsibility for the organisation and content of education and training systems (...) rests with individual Member States (...) European cooperation has a useful role to play in helping the Member States to meet common challenges, particularly by means of the open method of coordination, which involves the development of common principles and goals, as well as joint initiatives such as peer learning activities, the exchange of experience and good practices and mutual monitoring.” This statement from the above mentioned Conclusions of the Council¹⁵ on improving the quality of teacher education should encourage all parties in the continuum of teacher education to share innovative approaches and emphasize cooperative learning on all levels and in all phases of this lifelong process of teacher education and teacher learning.

¹⁴ http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/doc/principles_en.pdf

¹⁵ Ibid.

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RESEARCH-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION IN FINLAND

ARMI MIKKOLA

National and international evaluations have shown that Finnish teacher education has four strengths: a masters level degree as a qualification requirement; research orientation in studies; teacher graduates' solid expertise in content; and teaching practice included in degree studies. The education is academic, research-oriented and, as evidenced by admissions, attractive to talented students. It stresses skills in information acquisition and knowledge management, and guides students towards a concept of learning which emphasises the learner's own activity. To a substantial degree, these strengths are built on university research relating to teacher education, within which subject didactics and learning research in particular contribute to the development of teacher education.

1. The road to university-level teacher education

Finnish teacher education has evolved gradually for different forms of education and different teaching tasks. At the time of the system of separate primary and secondary schools, teacher education was also separated. Primary school teachers were trained in teacher education colleges. Secondary school teachers studied in universities and gained their teaching qualifications in special state-run training schools.

The transition in the early 1970s from the old school system to comprehensive schools, which are intended for the whole age group, also entailed changes in the content and structure of teacher education. Under the Teacher Education Act of 1971, all training of general education teachers was transferred to universities. The administrative and structural reforms required for this were carried out in universities between 1972 and 1975. In 1995 the system of teacher education was further expanded to include kindergarten teachers, whose education was also transferred to universities. (Jakku-Sihvonen & Mikkola 2008; Kansanen 2008)

The reforms involved a certain amount of intellectual tension, partly manifested in the attitude of the academic community to teacher education. The subject faculties in universities did not internalise their role in the education of subject teachers right away. The faculties of education were seen as newcomers, and only gradually did

they establish their place as members of the research community. Similarly, it took time for the teacher training schools to be perceived as part of the entity of teacher education.

The Teacher Education Act of 1971 already meant a significant change, but the change in culture and content resulting from a decree issued in 1978 was no less significant. It provided that both class and subject teacher education lead to a masters degree, and thus are equal in terms of eligibility for postgraduate education. A masters level degree became a qualification requirement for both teacher groups. Furthermore, the decree provided additional opportunities for those with earlier qualifications to complement their education. Class teachers, who teach year classes 1-6, major in education science and subject teachers in the subject(s) they teach. Both degrees include a masters thesis, with seminars, guidance and support of the actual writing of the thesis. This guarantees that each teacher has a certain degree of evidence-based knowledge in their own field and thereby competence to use research findings in their schoolwork. Teachers' capacity for evidence-based development of their own work became an important aim in their education.

The foundation created for teacher education in the 1970s has been enhanced in many ways over the ensuing three decades. Few fields of university education have seen so many evaluations and development projects as teacher education. One significant factor has been that research into teacher education has produced a great deal of knowledge as a basis for evidence-based development. When the Finnish academic community embarked on the Bologna Process in 2003, teacher education was exceptionally well placed. Indeed, the national inter-university reform project in teacher education acted as a trendsetter in many ways for a number of other disciplines between 2003 and 2005. (Jakku-Sihvonen & Mikkola 2008).

2. Main organising theme: research-based approach

As teacher education became the responsibility of universities, it created a need to re-evaluate the scientific nature of education. The paradigm of educational research has been shifting since the 1960s and 1970s, from formal research designs conducted by researchers to more descriptive and interpretive case-studies done in the field by teachers themselves. The idea of action research has developed and the concept of the teacher as a researcher has achieved new dimensions, such as practitioner-researcher and learner-research orientations. An inquiry or research-based orientation as an organising theme for teacher education study programmes has also been adopted as a

future paradigm to educate teachers (Zeichner 1983). The idea of teachers as both consumers and producers of educational research changed the traditional idea of separating formal researchers and teachers from each other (Krokfors 2007).

A research-based approach, as a main organising theme of Finnish teacher education, is a principle that combines all the studies with research in some way. Its aim is to educate reflective teachers who understand research-based evidence and thinking and see how it is related to their own work. To achieve this aim, research method courses have been included in the study programme from the beginning. These aim to develop overall competence in research methods in the sense that teachers gain a general understanding of research methods, are able to apply one or more methods in their own everyday practice, and can justify their decisions through research-based thinking. It is especially important to have the research orientation in teaching practice. Classrooms, pupils' learning processes and curriculum development offer virtually limitless possibilities to combine theoretical knowledge with practice and practical knowledge with theoretical knowledge. The link from research to practice highlights not only cooperation between teaching practice instructors, teachers in the teacher training schools and lecturers in the subject departments, but also the role of professors in the team of educators. Each teacher educator focuses on different content aspects but their combined input forms a whole. (Kansanen 2007; Kansanen 2008; Niemi 2005).

3. The aim: investigative teacher

The three following viewpoints have been considered important in developing Finnish teacher education. The first one stresses that teachers need to be able to blend their knowledge of objectives, the subject and pupils in a mixture best suited to them and their work. For this, they have to have sufficient familiarity with the thematic scope of the teaching subject and skills in applying their knowledge of educational psychology and sociology of education to classroom situations. The teacher needs to be able to analyse objectives and pupils' needs and to synthesise these in order to be able to plan teaching processes.

The second viewpoint is that the teacher must have didactic knowledge and skills in order to operate flexibly in teaching situations while implementing the objectives. The linkage from the curriculum to this stage requires the teacher to internalise the objectives and to be familiar with the pupil's life situations and learning processes.

The third viewpoint is that teachers need to be able to evaluate their own teaching and the results they achieve objectively and comprehensively. This is a precondition for the overall evaluation and development of curricula, which requires familiarity with forms of evaluation and development processes on the one hand, and an ability to measure set aims against the implementation process and outcomes on the other.

The ultimate aim of teacher education that emerges from all this is an investigative teacher who masters – and is in control of – the methods needed to analyse different situations and to interpret them, and knows the measures needed to achieve change. (Asunta, Husso & Korpinen 2005).

The teacher's work is not, and never should be, application of ready-made models or dependence on textbooks and authorities. What teachers need in their work is open observation and capability to understand events and the causality in students' actions and in what takes place in the classroom. Teachers need to have capacity for changing their own actions based on observations. When a teacher learns to see the educational situation as a whole relating to pupils' actions and environment, a basis has been created for his or her didactic thinking. Mastery of the conceptual level of educational situations can be traced back to the classical relation between theory and practice. The idea is to reflect on one's own work.

Developments in qualitative research, especially action research, have widened the concept of research. The teacher's role is increasingly understood in terms of investigative teachership. It is important to note, however, that the teacher is not a researcher, but a practitioner researcher. The orientation in a teacher's work is similar to research orientation, although teaching does not produce research findings in the same way as research projects. An orientation like this requires two parallel approaches: learning how to conduct research and gaining practice in research on the one hand, and learning how to teach and gaining practice in teaching on the other. What is ultimately required is integration of these two approaches into one's own action. The ultimate aim for teachers is to develop their own holistic conceptions, their own teaching philosophies. (Kansanen 2008; Niemi 2005).

Surveys of students' experiences show that most teacher graduates consider the research orientation in the teacher education programmes important. They stress the process of thesis writing as a crucial cognitive process, during which they learn to search for information independently and evaluate it, as well as to think critically. Obviously, the choice of subject for the thesis is crucial. The closer it is to the student's own interests and the school, the more the process gives to the student. Similarly, students think that the long-term work required for a thesis is a valuable

learning process. According to students, writing a thesis has taught them to read other research reports critically. Another thing they bring up is that the research work for the thesis awakens interest in postgraduate studies. When students have negative opinions of the thesis process, it is often due to a failure to choose the right subject for it. The subject may have been too rigidly imposed on the student, who feels that it has little to do with what he or she finds interesting in teaching. (Niemi 1995).

Investigative teachership is not limited only to teachers' initial training, but constitutes an important element in teachers' professional development after graduation. An example of this is teachers' interest in postgraduate studies. Teacher education and educational sciences need teachers, their cultural knowledge and the theories they apply to teaching in order to build up a better theoretical knowledge base for teachership.

4. In conclusion

Educational research focusing directly on the field of education itself has proved important for the development of the discipline. At the same time, diversity and practicality are the weakness of educational research because they result in divergence. If research and development serve a practical purpose, the scientific and critical approach may remain superficial. The educational administration, local authorities and the media all expect immediate answers from researchers specialising in teacher education to any acute problems that may arise. Although it is socially significant that educational research generates up-to-date information, it does not necessarily support the long-term needs of research. The challenge of the discipline is to find issues of both scientific and international importance in studies serving national interests.

Traditionally, educational psychology, learning theory and subject didactics have played an important role in Finnish educational research and the development of teacher education. They are represented in the content of the research programmes of all eight universities undertaking teacher education. Although the significance of educational sociology for the social aspects of teacher education is essential, educational sociology as a subject is not very visible in the research activities of the universities that provide teacher education. A stronger emphasis of educational philosophy in research has also been considered important for teacher education. The volume of research directed at adult education has increased considerably, bringing new aspects to teacher education. The various learning processes, multicultural

concerns and prevention of exclusion have emerged as new, interesting subjects for research. Finnish educational research also clearly focuses on the development of new learning environments and the pedagogic adaptations of information technology.

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**INDUCTION
CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR
IMPROVING TEACHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE**

EVE EISENSCHMIDT

Introduction

Teachers' professional development is a continuous process, including initial training, induction year (socialisation, entering the profession) and in-service training (Feiman-Nemser 2001: 50). The pre-service education of teachers and their first working years have to be connected, and the transition from one role (learner) to another (teacher) should be smooth (Fullan 1991). The experience gained during the first working years has a great influence on the development of the teaching principles and values of teachers and further application of these as their teaching style, pedagogical attitudes and professional self-conception evolve (Calderhead & Shorrock 1997).

The successful countries focus on the quality of teachers. They get the right people to become teachers, they develop these people into effective instructors, and they put in place systems and targeted support to ensure that every child is able to benefit from excellent instruction. One of the measures is placing coaches in schools to support teachers in the classroom and this is strongly related to support systems for beginning teachers. The coaching becomes even more effective once schools have developed the culture of support (Barber & Mourshed 2007).

Supporting beginning teachers during their first working year(s) has an essential place in education reforms (Villegas-Reimers 2002; Britton, Paine, Pimm & Raizen 2003; Huling-Austin 1990; Tickle 2000). Support measures and special programmes such as induction programmes have been under discussion for a long time at European policy-making levels. Induction and support for new teachers is of particular importance when several countries have large numbers of young teachers who leave the profession after only a few years. Different measures have been implemented: mentoring at school and in the region, university support programmes for beginning teachers and mentors, and continuing education courses.

Developing a common European teacher education area requires a lot of discussions, mutual understanding and development. Everyone should be ready for

self-examination and ‘self-negotiation’, as well as for comparing national trends in an international context. When analysing experiences of different countries, we can learn from each other’s experiences and improve our national systems.

THE CONCEPT OF INDUCTION

The concepts and phrases connected to induction have been used and understood differently in the literature. The term induction is used to describe a system for support (induction system); a time period (induction period); a specific phase in teaching (induction phase) or a process of learning (Britton et al, 2003:3).

In the *Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 15 November 2007, on Improving the Quality of Teacher Education*¹ induction is defined like this:

‘Induction’ refers to the process in some Member States whereby newly qualified teachers during their first years of employment are provided with the additional support (eg, through mentoring, training, advice) which they need to take on their new role within the school and the profession; it thus forms a bridge between initial teacher education and actual professional practice (Conclusions 2007, 8.)

Based on the network experience of Nordic countries, Fransson (2008:39) claims that the concept of induction is used in different ways and with different meanings in different national contexts. It could be influenced by teacher education systems in general. In countries where the actual classroom experiences during initial teacher education are very limited, induction could be conceptualised as a necessary part of initial teacher education. Sometimes induction is seen as part of teacher education, and learning to teach is considered learning on the job. Britton et al. (2003) claim that “one cannot consider induction without understanding the assumptions, values and orientations of the broader culture it serves.” (p. 303).

Mentoring as the main element of induction programmes is defined as one-to-one support of a novice or a less experienced practitioner (mentee) by a more experienced practitioner (mentor), designed primarily to assist the development of the mentee and to facilitate the induction into the culture of the profession (in this case, teaching) and into the specific local context (here, the school) (cf. Hobson, et al. 2009: 207)

¹ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2007:300:0006:0009:EN:PDF>

While collecting comparative data on induction internationally, we have to evaluate contradictory information with caution because of the different understandings of the concept of induction. At European level, two previous data analyses on induction were made available in 2005, one by Eurydice and the other by OECD.

In the Eurydice report *Key Data on Education in Europe 2005*² the situation is described as follows:

Following the completion of initial teacher education and, in some countries, completion of the final 'on the job' qualifying or induction phase, teachers still face many challenges in the early years of their career. Special support measures can help them to overcome difficulties they may face as newcomers to the profession, and reduce the likelihood that these teachers will leave the profession early. Despite the potential benefits, such measures are still not widespread in European countries. In 2002, only half of all countries offered new teachers assistance during this time. Where available, assistance generally took the form of special in-class support and/or specifically designed training. A few countries such as Germany, the United Kingdom (England and Wales) and Norway have recently launched initiatives to support early professional development.

In countries where support measures exist, new teachers in primary education and (lower and upper) secondary education are supported above all through informal discussion, classroom observation of their work, and discussion of their progress or any problems at meetings with their supervisors.

One person (a mentor) is always appointed to take responsibility for assisting new teachers – in general, an experienced teacher who has completed a significant period in service and/or the school head. (Eurydice 2005, 204-208).

According to this report 16 countries have no measures to support new teachers entering the teaching profession.

The publication *Teachers Matter: Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers (OECD 2005)* provides a comprehensive international analysis of trends and developments in the teacher workforce in 25 countries around the world.

The report states:

More flexible structures of initial teacher education are proving effective in opening up new routes into the teaching career. The stages of initial teacher education, induction and professional development need to be much better interconnected to create a lifelong learning framework for teachers. ... Well-structured and resourced induction programmes for new teachers are vitally important in ensuring a good start to a career. (OECD 2005, 95)

² <http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/Eurydice/showPresentation?pubid=052EN>

This also indicates that mandatory induction programmes are not yet standard across the school systems involved in the study. Seven European countries were mentioned as having mandatory induction programmes for beginning teachers: England, Wales, France, Greece, Italy, Switzerland and Northern Ireland (OECD 2005, 119). In some countries induction is organised by schools, in other cases it is organised in collaboration between teacher education institutions and schools. Some programmes are run in partnership with teacher associations. The duration of the induction programmes ranges from seven months to two years. In most countries a mentor teacher is the main feature of teacher induction.

Development of the policy on induction at European level

At the European Commission level the discussion of induction started several years ago. The main arguments for implementing support programmes for beginning teachers and for having policy regulations have been highlighted in the following documents.

The European Commission Communication *Improving the Quality of Teacher Education* (2007)³ sets out the challenges for teacher education in Europe, summarising the changing demands on teachers and stressing the importance of coordination between initial and continuing teacher education.

Initial education cannot provide teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary for a lifetime of teaching. The education and professional development of every teacher needs to be seen as a lifelong task, and be structured and resourced accordingly.

Provision for teacher education and development will be more effective if it is coordinated as a coherent system at national level and is adequately funded. The ideal approach would be to set up a seamless continuum of provision embracing initial teacher education, induction into the profession, and career-long continuing professional development that includes formal, informal and non-formal learning opportunities. This would mean that all teachers:

- *take part in an effective programme of induction during their first three years in post/in the profession*
- *have access to structured guidance and mentoring by experienced teachers or other relevant professionals throughout their career, and*
- *take part in regular discussions about their training and development needs, in the context of the wider development plan of the institution where they work. (Communication 2007, 12-13).*

³ http://ec.europa.eu/education/com392_en.pdf

In the *Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 15 November 2007, on improving the quality of teacher education*⁴, note amongst other issues that:

... as schools become more autonomous and open learning environments, teachers assume ever greater responsibility for the content, organisation and monitoring of the learning process, as well as for their own personal career-long professional development. This in turn presents teacher education institutions, teacher educators and schools with fresh challenges when developing or implementing programmes for both student teachers and practising teachers. In order to enable teacher education systems to meet those challenges, better coordination is required between the various strands of teacher education – from initial education and through additional early career support ‘induction’ to in-service professional development (Conclusions 2007, 8).

Representatives of member states agreed among other issues to ensure that:

- *teachers have access to effective early career support programmes at the start of their career, and*
- *have access to adequate mentoring support throughout their careers (Ibid.)*

The member states agreed

... to ensure that provision for teachers’ initial education, early career support and further professional development is coordinated, coherent, adequately resourced and quality assured. (Ibid.)

On 23 September 2008, the European Parliament adopted a report⁵ on Improving the quality of teacher education which, among other things,

... urges that particular attention be paid to new teachers’ initial induction; encourages the development of support networks and mentoring programmes, through which teachers of proven experience and capacity can play a key role in new colleagues’ training, passing on knowledge acquired throughout successful careers, promoting team learning and helping to tackle drop-out rates among new recruits; believes that by working and learning together, teachers can help improve a school’s performance and overall learning environment.

The obvious need and readiness to implement support programmes for beginning teachers in European countries is clearly acknowledged in the European policy

⁴ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2007:300:0006:0009:EN:PDF>

⁵ <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?language=EN&reference=A6-0304/2008 - point 7>

documents. However, there are several doubts and questions about how to integrate the programmes into the teacher education systems in the best possible way.

Implementing induction in different European countries

In Paris in November 2008, the ENTEP members decided to collect the data and to analyse the implementation of induction programmes in member countries. The following questions were raised: (1) presence of an induction programme in national policy documents, (2) main players and responsibilities, (3) financing of induction activities, and (4) quality assurance. In the following, an overview of the implementation of induction programmes in 16 countries is given.

In **Austria** primary school teachers and general secondary school teachers are educated in three-year bachelor programmes at the Pädagogische Hochschule (PH). For these teachers there is no provision for induction.

Austrian teachers in academic secondary schools, who are educated at the university and get an MA degree after four-and-a-half years of studies, have to do a one-year programme in schools, where they take over one class in each of their subjects (usually two). They have a mentor in each subject in school and are accompanied by advisers from the Pädagogische Hochschule (PH/University College of Teacher Education). The university college is involved in mentor training, offering mentor courses as continuing professional development courses, and in the group supervision of the novice teachers.

Provisions for induction differ substantially in the various Austrian provinces. At the University of Innsbruck, for example, the portfolio that novice teachers use is linked to the portfolio in initial teacher education. Observations, reflection, and feedback by mentors are obligatory, just as is co-teaching in certain cases. The mentors are paid through their regular salary; all activities are paid for by the state (Ministry of Education). Generally participants' feedback is collected at the end of the year, and in some instances evaluations are carried out.

In **Belgium** the Flemish community does not have a nationwide programme for induction. At national level there is an agreement to outsource the content and organisation of training and coaching to the schools and the teacher training institutes. The institutes of the Flemish higher education area have a high level of autonomy – only general learning outcomes are defined at national level. The main goal of mentor preparation is to obtain the necessary competences to be able to mentor beginning teachers, like supporting their socialization in the school context,

i.e. introducing the school's routines, aligning the expectations and the values of the new teacher to those of the school, supporting the new teacher in developing their professional identity, and creating a supportive environment for the new teacher to release stress and tension. A good induction programme should increase the retention rate of new teachers. Additionally, the topics of teachers' competences are a part of mentor training, eg, classroom management, motivation, communication and cooperation with parents, etc. The organisation of mentor training programmes differs among teacher training institutes. Each year the Flemish government invests considerably in mentoring students and new colleagues.

In **Cyprus** an induction programme has been offered since October 2008. The Ministry of Education and Culture regulates the induction programme based on the decision of the Cabinet of the Ministers of July 2008. The newly appointed teachers who participate in the induction programme have the support of their mentors.

The induction programme is considered to be the beginning of the continuing professional development of teachers. There is a one-to-one mentoring system, which means that each newly appointed teacher has his/her own mentor. The mentors have to receive appropriate training which lasts 60 teaching periods on the themes of effective teaching, classroom management, pupil evaluation, psychological aspects of mentoring, reflection techniques, ICT skills and mentoring skills, whereas the newly appointed teachers have to receive appropriate training which lasts 25 teaching periods on the themes of effective teaching, classroom management and school organisation. The newly appointed teachers conduct a needs analysis (professional needs, emotional needs, administration needs) in cooperation with their mentor at the beginning of the year, and an individual development plan is prepared for the induction programme for that year, based on the results of the needs analysis, which is implemented throughout the year.

Cyprus Pedagogical Institute is responsible for implementing the induction programme offering external support to the schools. Experts at the institute provide support to the teachers (novice teachers and mentors) who participate in the programme. This support consists of school visits and using the new technologies for communication (website, Moodle platform, e-mail). At the same time, both the novice teachers and the mentors have to attend special training. Through the web-based platform that has been developed, peer networking and peer mentoring is encouraged. The whole induction programme is based on the principle of reflecting one's own practice.

The Cyprus Ministry of Education and Culture finances the whole programme. Part of the costs is expected to be covered by the European Social Fund.

In **England** there has been since 1999 an induction programme designed to ensure that all newly qualified teachers are supported in their first year of teaching after gaining qualified teacher status. It combines a programme of development, support and professional dialogue with monitoring, and an assessment of performance against a set of professional standards. During the induction period newly qualified teachers have a 10 per cent reduction in their teaching commitment. They also have an induction mentor who monitors their progress and develops an agreed personalised professional development programme. Induction must be successfully completed to continue as a full-time teacher. Those who fail have the right of appeal to the General Teaching Council for England.

Recognising that the early years of teaching can be among the most challenging of a teacher's career the Masters in Teaching and Learning, a government-funded, classroom-based qualification designed to integrate with – and build on – induction, has been introduced from September 2009. In the first year Masters in Teaching and Learning will be available to newly qualified teachers in schools in the North West government office region, as well as teachers in all National Challenge schools and schools in challenging circumstances.

In **Estonia** the induction programme was implemented at national level in 2004. According to the *Framework Guidelines for Teacher Education* the readiness to have a support programme for beginning teachers was already evident in 2000. The purpose of the induction programme is to support novices in their attempt to become new members of their professional group and in their adjustment to the organisational structures; in addition, it aims to promote the development of their professional skills through reflection. In Estonia, the responsibility for the induction year programme is shared by four stakeholders: (1) school principals, whose responsibility is to facilitate an environment that supports the novices' professional development and to appoint mentors; (2) mentors, who work directly with the novice teachers, supporting their professional development and socialisation process in a school context; (3) novice teachers themselves, who are ultimately responsible for maintaining professional development; and (4) university induction year centres, where mentor training and support programme seminars for novice teachers (10-15 novices per group) take place. The focus is on the professional development of novice teachers, which is supported by the school setting on the one hand and the support programme organised by the university induction centres on the other hand.

A web-based e-portfolio environment has been created to support the reflection processes of beginning teachers.

Mentor training and university seminars for novice teachers are financed by the government. The mentors' work is compensated for from the school budget, through the local authorities. Monitoring is carried out among all participants every year and made available to all parties.

In **Finland** there is no nationwide programme for inducting new teachers into the profession, because the local school authorities are responsible for the types and content of in-service education. However, there are induction programmes especially in larger cities. All of them are organised at the local level and funded by the local school authorities. Many of them enjoy close cooperation with universities.

According to the Teacher Education Development Programme (Ministry of Education) one of the development areas at the local level is the need to provide induction guidance for new teaching staff members. The Academy of Finland and the Finnish Work Environment Fund have funded research projects, with topics ranging from content and methods of induction programmes to the effect of induction programmes on the professional development of teachers.

In **France** the educational system is under reform. By 2010, in order to become teachers for primary or secondary schools, students will have to pass a two-year masters programme and to succeed in a competitive examination. During the first year of teaching, experienced teachers offer support for beginners.

In **Germany** the second phase of teacher education is in most states (Länder) considered as an induction period, which is only partly true. Within the implementation of the Bologna structure in teacher education in Germany, the second phase (the more pedagogical, non-university phase) is changing. The standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Culture has agreed that this two-year phase may be reduced to one year if equivalent parts of practical phases are included in the first phase at the university. Many states have done so or are planning to; others still stick strictly to the former model.

The induction phase has been under discussion in Germany for some time as an additional phase after the second state exam. So the likelihood is to continue with the present second phase without a state exam at the end but with a focus on professionalisation and support on the way to becoming a competent member of the teaching staff with the necessary subject, didactic and personal competences.

In Hungary the recent changes in the act on the legal status of civil servants introduced a three-year probation period for all civil servants, including teachers.

Throughout this period the civil servant is helped by a professional mentor, appointed by the employer. At the end of the probation period the employer's assessment – taking the views of the mentor into consideration – either confirms or denies civil servant status. However, this amendment was not specially directed towards teachers or towards induction in the sense of systematic support at the entry point into the teaching profession.

In **Ireland** all teachers are on probation for one year. At the end of the year most are recognised as qualified. At primary level they are signed off by Department of Education and Science inspectors, and at post-primary level this is done by their principal teachers. At primary level, beginning teachers must demonstrate competence to the visiting inspectors during the course of three visits, one of which lasts a full school day. At post-primary this is not required, and a principal teacher viewing a newly qualified teacher's performance would be rare.

While the main focus of teacher development centres on initial teacher education, there is a consensus that teacher education should be seen as a continuum to be viewed within a context of lifelong learning. Induction is now seen as a key element in the continuum and a vital bridge between initial teacher education and continuing professional development. As the major provider of financial support for education in the country, the Department of Education and Science has committed itself to the introduction of a national system of induction for newly qualified teachers. In 2002 it established the National Project on Teacher Induction in an effort to examine suitable models of induction in the Irish context. Since then the national project has reviewed a number of approaches to the professional needs of all newly qualified teachers and also to the needs of the system. The project is now at phase 7, and since 2002 many newly qualified teachers have undertaken induction at primary and post-primary level. A key characteristic of the programme is access to a mentor at school level, or access to a mentor in a neighbouring school. The mentor teachers undertake professional training for their role and are allocated release time from teaching in order to engage in mentoring with the newly qualified teachers who themselves are also released from teaching on these occasions.

The aim of the Department of Education and Science is to extend the induction nationwide and make it mandatory for all beginning teachers.

In **Luxembourg** a new law was passed in February 2009 for primary and pre-school teacher education. The nomination of beginning teachers as civil servants is temporary for two years. During this time the newly appointed teacher benefits from the help of the teacher-school team, as well as from the inspector. Participation in

activities such as continuing professional development courses for example is mandatory. If the evaluation by the authorities proves negative, the minister in charge may decide that the novice has to leave.

The secondary school teachers first study in the subject field. Afterwards they have to pass an examination in order to be admitted into the second phase. During this period they work half the time in schools, the other they spend at the university for lectures in methodology, didactics and educational sciences (400 hours). Having completed this period and succeeded in practical work, they are appointed as civil servants. No other induction is provided.

In the **Netherlands** the growing shortage of teachers and the fact that there are teachers who leave the profession after the earliest years of their career makes teacher induction an important area for policy development. At the same time, the education policy in the Netherlands has been deregulated. Schools are largely autonomous in a large number of policy areas, including personnel. Therefore the room for direct policies on teacher induction is limited, as schools are responsible for the support and further professional development of novice teachers.

In 2006 the Dutch government set up a contract with employer organisations and unions about the professionalisation of and support for teachers. One of the agreements of this contract is that employers should have a sort of induction programme for their personnel. In 2009 the Dutch government is carrying out a study on the way schools have implemented this agreement.

In **Portugal** the induction programme has not yet been implemented. In the recent reform of access to work in state schools (2007), it was decided that during the probation year the teacher is given didactic, pedagogic and scientific support by a qualified teacher who has preferably had specialised training in curriculum organisation and development or pedagogic supervision and mentor training. Thus, it can be said that this reform establishes the provision of an early career support period (induction) for the professional development of new teachers. The law which regulates it is *Decreto-Lei nº 15/2007 de 19 de Janeiro*.

In **Slovenia** the support programme for beginning teachers was implemented in 1996 and changed in 2006. The main aim is a smooth transition from student teacher to independent teacher. Newly qualified teachers have to pass the induction phase that lasts for 10 months. An individual programme is prepared for each novice teacher and approved by a mentor and the headmaster. The main player in the implementation of the induction policy is the National Education Institute, providing seminars for mentors and novice teachers. Headmasters are responsible for the

organisation and quality of the induction period, including the appointment of mentors for beginning teachers. Mentors should have passed a special training course, but this is not compulsory. Mentors are paid extra for their duties. At the end of the induction period the headmaster and mentor assess the novice's readiness for independent teaching. Then novice teachers pass a professional certification exam and are assessed by a national committee. In a sense, induction can also be seen as a probation period.

In **Spain**, the law establishes that: *"First-year teachers in a public school will work under the tutelage of experienced teachers. The tutor and trainee teacher will share responsibility for the trainee's teaching plan"*. In fact there is just a light programme, and only for teachers in public schools who have passed the competitive examinations to become civil servants. In reality, most of these teachers have worked in state schools on a temporary basis for some years before passing the competitive examination without having had any induction.

After the complete implementation of the new Bologna grades, discussion may increase about the need for induction. Most of the discussions currently centre on initial teacher education. Besides, in Spain the entire responsibility for the schools is on education administrations within the different autonomous communities.

In **Sweden**, there is no national induction programme, but a government inquiry is proposing a national induction system with a probation year and registration of teachers. Decisions in this matter will probably be made by the end of 2009. However, in some municipalities and schools there are local initiatives to have mentors for new teachers, partly as a remnant of the 1995 agreements between teacher unions and the Swedish Association of Local Authorities, not formally prolonged after 2003.

After analysing the collected data according to the definition of induction given in the document *Improving the Quality of Teacher Education* (*"the process where newly qualified teachers during their first years of employment are provided with the additional support [eg, through mentoring, training, advice] which they need to take on their new role within the school and the profession – Conclusions 2007, 8*), we may conclude that induction programmes have been implemented in Austria (university sector), Cyprus, Estonia and partly in England, Ireland and Slovenia. The need for the induction programmes is mentioned in the policy documents of all countries.

What can we learn from each other?

Induction is just one aspect of a broader national educational system and its implementation is influenced by a number of factors. After analysing the data, we may draw some conclusions.

Long practice period in initial education

European countries are reforming their higher education systems according to the Bologna Process and this has a strong impact on teacher education, also highlighting the induction period. For example, the question about prolonging or shortening the period of initial education has raised the issue of the induction phase in Germany and France. This seems to be connected to the amount of practical preparation in an initial programme. In some countries student teachers have a long supervised practice period, for example, in Germany and Luxembourg. In these countries they implement the so-called two-phase teacher education programmes and evaluation of the teachers' performance. This quality assurance guarantees that newly qualified teachers are sufficiently competent. It seems that the need to have an induction phase is not so strongly felt.

Probation and certification for beginning teachers

In some countries newly qualified teachers pass the probation phase, after which they are certified as fully qualified teachers. Usually in these countries the inspectorate and an external evaluation system are in charge, for example in England, Ireland, Slovenia and Spain. The probation phase is one option to support the professional development of newly qualified teachers, but this is based more on external evaluation. In some countries there are national traditions and cultural-historical reasons to regulate the teacher's position in society as a civil servant. In these countries the teaching profession has high status, for example in Hungary, Cyprus and Luxembourg. We may see the trend to move from probation to induction or at least to have more programmes that support teachers' learning rather than assess it.

Centralised versus decentralised educational systems and schools' autonomy

In countries where the educational system is strongly centrally regulated, it is easier to implement new initiatives. But at the same time the policy development needs more time for negotiations. In Germany, Portugal and Spain induction has been under discussion but not yet implemented. In Finland, the Netherlands and Sweden the schools are autonomous and personnel issues are decided locally. Of course the size of the country affects these processes. For example, in Estonia and Cyprus it is easier to implement nationwide programmes.

Final considerations

The latest studies show that more and more significance is given to organisational learning and the learning community as the setting for fostering teachers' professional development. School environments should become more supportive of beginning teachers' learning and development, and both the teachers as well as school leaders should master the skill of fostering organisational learning. Mentoring seems to be the main element in induction programmes, and in the attempt to support beginning teachers' professional development and socialisation in an organisation. Reflecting the experiences gained during the first years together with a mentor and colleagues is one of the greatest assets on the road to success in a teacher's future professional life. While implementing induction programmes, we have to focus on learning in the school context and forming schools as learning organisations. School leaders should take the responsibility for organising support programmes for novice teachers and appointing mentors. External induction programmes do not influence the school development the same way that internal programmes do.

Initial teacher education should lay more emphasis on – and create preconditions for – the future professional development of teachers. The essential task in initial education is to develop novice teachers' readiness for continuous learning. A graduate of initial teacher education should comprehend that the first years of work are important for developing professional knowledge and skills.

Induction is a phase within the continuum of a teaching career. The induction phase can only be understood fully in relation to what comes before it and what comes after. It is to complement novice teachers' preparation and promotes continuous learning throughout teachers' careers.

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TEACHER EVALUATION ACROSS EUROPE

ELENA HADJIKAKOU AND ATHENA MICHAELIDOU

Introduction

Teacher evaluation is applied in different countries in different ways, usually for monitoring and assessing a teacher's work. The outcome of teacher assessment, or even better the procedure while carrying out teacher evaluation, can be exploited as an essential input, a useful element for improving the level of educational provision. Teacher evaluation, therefore, provokes plenty of discussion and scepticism on different educational systems and settings since there are different perspectives that have to do mainly with the way the wider educational system is regarded in each case. As stated by Kyriakides et al (2006), one of the major problems that confronts most educational systems concerns the need for developing a valid personnel evaluation system based on a strong theoretical framework. Unless the criteria for evaluating teachers emerge from tested theories on teacher and school effectiveness, evaluators cannot readily be accountable for how their judgements about teacher performance have been arrived at.

The main questions related to teacher evaluation are:

- Why is teacher evaluation necessary?
- What models for teacher evaluation can be applied?
- What should be the aim of teacher evaluation?
- What possible resources and instruments and instruments can be used for collecting data?
- How is teacher evaluation applied in different countries?

Since many European countries face the problem of not having enough people who decide to follow the teaching profession, it is "important to make teaching an attractive career choice in order to recruit the best candidates, and to persuade people to switch careers in favour of teaching. In contrast to recent practice in many member states, experienced teachers will increasingly need to be persuaded to remain in the profession instead of retiring early and may therefore require additional professional development and support." (Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, 2007, p. 10). Is the way teacher evaluation is carried out one aspect that influences a person's decision to

become a teacher? Could there be, therefore, a correlation between the way teacher evaluation is applied and the way teachers are inspired to become teachers? If this is the case, then teacher evaluation gains extra value not only during a person's career as a teacher, but even before the person's career as a teacher begins.

Taking into consideration the above, the first part of this chapter is an investigation into these questions, while in the second part the policies adapted by the different member states in the area of teacher evaluation are presented.

1. Teacher evaluation

The quality of teaching is identified as a key factor in raising educational attainment levels (Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament of August 2007). But the main question is how can teacher quality be guaranteed without a way of measuring it? It is within this framework that teacher evaluation becomes an essential element for improving the level of educational provision. It should be emphasised, though, that the quality of teaching is not the only key factor in raising educational attainment. The quality of methods used for teacher evaluation is another key factor important in raising educational attainment. Teacher evaluation methods that give teachers the chance to identify their weak as well as their strong points, and to reflect on their own practice in order to become better professionals, can have an immediate impact on the educational system.

In order to maintain the quality of teaching, different countries have begun introducing in-service training for novice teachers since it is realised that novice teachers face different problems (Bezzina et al., 2005; Stanyer & Bezzina, 2005). Some of these problems can be predicted whereas others have to do with the schools where they are working (Ryan, 1986). Accordingly, different countries have begun reconsidering their teacher evaluation procedures and methods.

1.1. School autonomy

School autonomy is closely related with teacher evaluation since it becomes apparent that "changes in education and in society place new demands on the teaching profession. For example, as well as imparting basic knowledge, teachers are also increasingly called upon to help young people become fully autonomous learners by acquiring key skills, rather than memorising information; they are asked

to develop more collaborative and constructive approaches to learning and expected to be facilitators and classroom managers rather than ex cathedra trainers. (...) They are required to use the opportunities offered by new technologies and to respond to the demand for individualised learning; and they may also have to take on additional decision-taking or managerial tasks consequent upon increased school autonomy.” (Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament of August 2007, p.4). But what is the meaning of school autonomy? Many countries have moved towards decentralisation, making schools more autonomous in their decision making and holding them more accountable for results. At the same time, the requirement to improve overall student performance while serving more diverse student populations is putting schools under pressure to use more evidence-based teaching practices (OECD, 2008). Nevertheless, it should be highlighted that the broader range of options in education should not be confused with “the acquisition of greater individual freedoms. On the contrary, in many countries it is clear that these newly acquired collective responsibilities actually reduce the capacity of individual teachers to take their own classroom decisions.” (Eurydice report, 2008, p. 12).

The relationship between school autonomy and teacher autonomy is not easily defined. It becomes apparent that if the teachers have more freedom, then the schools want more control on the outcome. There is, therefore, a switch from the programme to the learner, from the input to the outcome. In this case teacher evaluation methods need to be precise and flexible at the same time, in order to give a clear insight on the outcome of individual teaching.

The 2008 Eurydice report states that school autonomy may exist at four main levels. “The term full autonomy is used when schools take decisions within the limits of the law or the general regulatory framework for education, without the intervention of outside bodies (even if they have to consult higher authorities). Limited autonomy refers to a situation in which schools take decisions within a set of options predetermined by a higher authority for education, or obtain approval for their decisions from such an authority. Schools are said to have no autonomy when they do not take decisions in a given area. Finally, a fourth level of autonomy is apparent in the organisational structures of some education systems.” (p. 17).

1.2. Types of teacher evaluation

Teacher evaluation is usually either external or internal. In the Eurydice 2008 report there is an explicit presentation on the modes of teacher evaluation that are

used by different European countries. Teacher evaluation “occurs in various forms, ranging from conventional external individual inspection focused on processes to school self-evaluation, including an analysis of teaching activity, and internal evaluation interviews conducted by the school head.” (p. 61). What needs to be highlighted is that there is now a move towards a “strengthening of individual accountability mechanisms that may have considerable consequences for them.” (Eurydice, 2008, p. 61)

How do the different countries carry out teacher evaluation? There is a presentation in the second part of this report about the practices that are followed by different countries. It must be highlighted, though, that in the past individual inspection was almost the only method used to monitor teaching activity. Nowadays teacher evaluation can take a variety of forms.

Broadly speaking, teacher evaluations take place, as seen in the Eurydice 2008 report, in the following ways:

- Some countries have external people, the inspectors who evaluate teachers’ work.
- Teaching activity may also be monitored by means of self-evaluation. There are cases when self-evaluation is not accompanied by any form of external evaluation and cases where “self-evaluation has been developed in some countries to supplement already existent external inspection, as in the Czech Republic.” (p. 62)
- Schools write a quality report each year as a way of evaluating their own activity and, in some cases, there are recommendations by the responsible bodies concerning how the report should be written and the areas it must cover (such as staff education, staff competence in relation to the subjects taught and the organisation of work, etc).
- In many cases, teachers are evaluated by their school head.
- There are cases where the school management body may be involved, as may professional staff from outside the school, such as school advisers.
- A further kind of internal evaluation “may be carried out or supported by peers. Yet this form of accountability is today still somewhat uncommon. In most cases, it arises from a situation in which curricular content is devised on an autonomous basis calling for teamwork that, in turn, involves peer supervision.” (p. 63).
- New mechanisms have emerged for appraising the performance of teachers. “These monitoring procedures with potentially significant

- A new trend is the emphasis that is placed on results-based evaluation which becomes even stronger with the growing autonomy and decentralisation. “Whether as part of internal or external evaluation, pupil results in national standard assessments are increasingly becoming a basis for judging the performance of a school and, by the same token, its teaching staff.... While results-based evaluation is tending, if not to replace, at least to strongly supplement the monitoring of processes and compliance with nationally or locally established requirements, developments are less clear-cut as regards the collective or individual aspects of monitoring teaching activity.” (p. 64). Is it always possible, though, to relate school results to pupils’ results? Perhaps in some instances this can be done but this not always the case.
- Over the last few years a collective monitoring system that incorporates external evaluation (inspectorate) and internal evaluation (self-evaluation) has been used.

In addition to the above, Toch (2008) presents some practical models for teacher evaluation that can improve teaching:

- Explicit standards: the teacher advancement programme (TAP) is a good example of a model with explicit standards. It has “three main categories – designing and planning instruction, the learning environment and instruction – and 19 sub-groups that target such areas as the frequency and quality of classroom questions and whether teachers are teaching students with such higher-level thinking skills as drawing conclusions.
- Multiple measures: the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards is using a two-part evaluation. “The first part is a portfolio that includes lesson plans, instructional materials, student work, two 20-minute videos of the candidate working with students in classrooms, teachers’ written reflection on the two taped lessons, and evidence of work with parents and peers. The second part of the evaluation is a series of 30-minute online essays that gauge teachers’ expertise in the subjects they teach.
- Peer evaluation: another way is to have teachers evaluated on a number of occasions by multiple evaluators. Peer evaluation can be the strongest form of teacher evaluation since teachers can reflect, interact, and get feedback from people who experience similar situations to themselves.

It can be concluded from the above that the monitoring mechanisms that are used have been developed widely. These “mechanisms are concerned at one and the same time with qualified professionals both as individuals and members of school teaching staff teams, the concrete outcome of their activities, the way in which they satisfy required standards, and the quality of their performance.” (Eurydice, 2008, p. 68).

1.3. Purpose of teacher evaluation

Most evaluations are often not used to help teachers improve their practice, but instead to investigate the work of the teachers. In 2005, the OECD published a major international study of policies for attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers in schools. This raises again the question about the connectiveness between attracting new teachers and the teacher evaluation methods that are used. Drawing on the experiences of 25 countries different issues arise. One of the conclusions is the fact that there needs to be a stronger emphasis on teacher evaluation for improvement purposes which, while designed mainly to enhance classroom practice, would provide opportunities for teachers’ work to be recognised and celebrated, and help both teachers and schools to identify professional development priorities. It can also provide a basis for rewarding teachers for exemplary performance. The analysis also reveals that the teaching profession can benefit from greater diversification, which would help meet school needs and also provide more opportunities and recognition for teachers. Teacher evaluations, through their focus on the quality of teaching, are at the very centre of the education enterprise and can be a catalyst for teacher and school improvement (Toch, 2008). Teacher evaluation as a means for professional development is an aspect that needs to be supported by the teachers themselves and the bodies, people or organisations that perform teacher evaluation. Teachers should have specific feedback on their work from their evaluators. This procedure followed by the evaluators should become a form of professional development.

Special attention is drawn to the school leadership, since in many cases the school leaders act as teachers’ evaluators. Research has shown that school leaders can make a difference in school and student performance if they are granted autonomy to take important decisions (OECD, 2005). However, autonomy alone does not automatically lead to improvements unless it is well supported. In addition, it is important that the core responsibilities of school leaders are clearly defined and delimited (OECD, 2008). Moreover, school leaders have to be able to adapt the teaching programme to local needs, promote teamwork among teachers, and engage

in teacher monitoring, evaluation and professional development. In addition, school leaders should be able to set strategic plans and have the capacity to develop school plans and goals and monitor progress, using data to improve practice (OECD, 2008). According to Peterson (2004) principal reports do not provide adequate information to document teacher quality. Good teacher evaluation adds multiple data sources such as client surveys, peer reviews of materials, and pupil achievement data, which vary by teacher and setting. Principals should become knowledgeable about the gain of data they gain from pupils costs of evaluation, sociology of teacher evaluation, and the problem of the bad teacher. Teacher evaluation can reassure external audiences that schools are doing a good job.

Schools should be seen as learning communities where schools are structured in such a way to enable and enhance learning among the various stakeholders. In this case teacher evaluation becomes an instrument for development through the identification of the existing situation and needs.

2. Practices of teacher evaluation in European countries

An ENTEP meeting took place in Nicosia, Cyprus, in May 2006. The theme of the meeting and the teacher conference that took place was Teacher Evaluation in Europe. Each ENTEP member contributed by providing certain information on the topic of teacher evaluation in his/her country.

As discussed in previous sections, teacher evaluation takes various forms in different countries. The Eurydice report (2008) highlighted that there is a gradual development of evaluation and monitoring mechanisms around Europe. The emphasis of the evaluation schemes used varies from externally imposed structures (like the inspectorate which exists in many countries) to internal forms of evaluation at the school level or the individual level (self-evaluation). It is worth mentioning that 'evaluation' has more than one meaning. Sometimes it refers to teacher evaluation, and bodies such as inspectorates exist in some countries to cover this need. At other times evaluation refers to school evaluation where the school is taken as a whole (including teachers, among other elements).

This section of the chapter distinguishes between external evaluation schemes and internal ones, with reference to the comparison between countries.

2.1. External teacher evaluation

In many countries a system of external evaluation is still in place ... the inspectorate. Inspectors report to the national authorities (ministries) as in France and Cyprus, or to the regional authorities (Spain or Austria). In some countries such as Sweden, both local and national authorities carry out the inspection. Classroom visits and observation are central to the process of inspection.

In many countries standard principles or indicators include pupils' results or national testing. National examinations are usually used in certain countries as an indicator for the external evaluation of school progress and as a way for individual teacher evaluation. In the UK, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Estonia, the evaluation is results-based and is related to the analysis of teachers' performance. In some countries centrally designed criteria and indicators act as both external evaluation for the ministry and also provide the space for school self-evaluation. In the Netherlands the inspectorate has to prepare a short school report (assessment) on a yearly basis and a full report about the school every four years. Most German Länder have adopted a similar approach. In some cases the inspectorate has to decide about the school evaluation and teachers' evaluation as well (like in Cyprus).

A probation period as in Portugal, Cyprus, Greece and the UK acts like an 'external' evaluation of teachers as they enter the profession. This is associated with externally set criteria. In some countries – Ireland and Cyprus among them – a probation period acts like an evaluation period for newly qualified teachers, where they are evaluated on becoming teachers or not through an induction phase.

2.2. Internal teacher evaluation

School self-evaluation has been developed to supplement existing external inspection, as in Czech Republic, Hungary and Sweden. In countries like Belgium, Czech Republic, Greece, Lithuania, Austria, Romania and Sweden, the headteacher evaluates teachers. In the Netherlands, individual evaluation by the school head is widely used. In Latvia the body responsible for evaluating teachers in school is the head of the teaching department. In large schools in the UK, the school head evaluates the management team, and the management team in turn evaluates the teachers. In several countries (eg, Ireland) a 'whole school evaluation' approach is used to ensure the development of the quality of all aspects school life.

In Sweden, all public schools prepare a school self-evaluation report yearly, based on a centrally designed framework with specific criteria and indicators. The same happens in Ireland with the use of criteria. In Luxembourg there is only a school evaluation system in secondary education, and the school head evaluates the teachers.

In Malta, schools work in accordance with the 'school development plan' which is meant to be reviewed and evaluated yearly.

In Hungary, the annual school self-evaluation is part of the school's quality assurance programme and is undertaken by the teachers' community.

2.3. Individual teacher evaluation

Individual self-evaluation is an activity promoted in several educational systems, developing 'from the inside' as a means for internal progress and evaluation. Iceland is a case where self-evaluation is the main method for teachers. In other countries this supplements other external schemes (like in the UK). In the Czech Republic and Estonia, self-evaluation includes teacher performance.

In many countries individual teacher evaluation takes place in order to support internal evaluation and progress. In some cases, for example Slovenia, schools can use the centrally designed framework for teacher self-evaluation prepared by the ministry. In Hungary the school decides on the scheme of self-evaluation as part of its quality assurance programme.

In Austria, headteachers now tend to advise teachers to focus on student achievement and not so much on teacher performance. This takes the form of advice and is not an evaluation. In Slovakia the headteacher decides about the teacher evaluation and is responsible for the whole concept of evaluation at the school level, with the cooperation of the school board. The 'autonomous teacher' is highly emphasised in Finland, where teachers should develop mainly by themselves as autonomous learners. In Estonia, teachers develop and get promoted into four stages; the novice teacher, teacher, advanced teacher, and expert teacher. For each stage in the professional career of teachers, different evaluation criteria are used.

Individual teacher evaluation includes certain schemes and uses various tools and forms for evaluation, as shown below.

Teacher portfolio is one of the means used for individual teacher evaluation, describing teachers' professional development from their initial training to

continuing professional development. In countries like Estonia it is used to promote self-reflection.

Peer evaluation is rare and happens in Greece, where school advisers evaluate teachers, and in Slovenia, where the school teachers' council (professional groups consisting of teachers of the same level and subject) evaluates teachers.

Financial incentives based on teacher evaluation with certain criteria are used in very few countries. It is regarded as a recent development and is used in different ways in Belgium, Bulgaria, Portugal, and the UK (performance management system). In Lithuania, Latvia and Romania a system of bonuses is in place.

Ongoing professional development with compulsory activities (seminars, courses, in-service training hours, etc) is another approach in some countries as a means for evaluating teachers in an indirect way (Malta, Cyprus, Portugal).

In some countries (Spain¹ and Greece) the higher education certificate is the only one needed to get into the profession and after that there is no evaluation. Years of experience count for much in the placement of the teacher.

Conclusion

It is important to note that there is a spectrum of practices to promote teacher evaluation in European countries. This goes from individual teacher evaluation to the evaluation of school teaching staff collectively. The practices in each country are associated with the educational system, the level of school autonomy and the status of the teacher. A combination of both external and internal practices seems the way to balance the irritations which exist within each evaluative approach.

Teacher evaluation should be regarded as a means for developing the various educational systems, provided that the quality of the teacher evaluation methods that are used is assured (external or/and internal). Teacher evaluation in Europe should be regarded as a means for upgrading the quality of education and a way to promote continuing professional development of teachers at different points in their career.

¹ In Spain, a teacher needs to pass a competitive examination in order to be appointed to a public school, after completing a university degree. Evaluation is required to become a headteacher or for other purposes (for example, in seeking sabbatical leave, etc).

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PARTNERSHIP AND RESEARCH IN TEACHER EDUCATION FOR INNOVATION AND CREATIVITY

CVETA RAZDEVŠEK PUČKO

Introduction

Educational Research, Innovations and Creativity of Teachers and Partnership between Schools and Teacher Education Institutions are themes, which are regularly on the agenda of EU states educational policies.

In 2008, in Slovenia two international conferences dealt with these themes.

The first one was the conference **Promoting Innovation and Creativity – the Response of Schools to the Challenges of Societies**, organized by the Slovene Presidency of EU and the European Commission at Brdo, Slovenia, in April 2008.

The second was ENTEP Meeting in Ljubljana in May 2008 where **Teacher Education for Innovation and Creativity** was the main theme, connected with **Partnership and Research in Teacher Education**.

Both conferences opened some important questions and gave also some responses. One of the responses can be formulated as awareness about the connection between these ideas. Teacher education institutions (TEI) are the place where research should be a normal part of the educational process; if the research is done in partnership with schools, with active involvement of teachers, the results will have direct impact on school work, they will stimulate teachers to implement more innovative and creative pedagogical approaches. In such a way, teachers develop pupils' creativity and curiosity, desire to learn and to work innovatively.

In this context many European countries are developing models of partnerships to involve all actors in the field of teacher education in a cooperative process and some countries are already experiencing the positive effects and the innovative power of institutional partnerships. Especially the cooperation of teacher education institutions and schools including continuous professional development can help to bridge the often experienced gap between 'theory' and 'practice' and share research based knowledge and experience to enable each partner to benefit from each other's work.

Partnerships between teacher education institutions and schools can contribute to the development of new knowledge and activate a collective learning and

researching for new/innovative teaching approaches that respond to learner needs and stimulate creativity.

The collaboration of the involved partners should not only focus on the education of student teachers, but also on the professional development of staff within schools, on curriculum innovation and the initiation and sharing of research results.

In this chapter we will present some ideas from both conferences mentioned above, as well as some examples of good practice from different EU countries in connecting the processes of partnership, research, innovations and creativity. (The synthesis are based upon the working papers of ENTEP representatives.)

Promoting Innovation and Creativity – the Response of Schools to the Challenges of Societies

The conference **“Promoting Innovation and Creativity – the Response of Schools to the Challenges of Societies”** (Zorman, 2008) tried to provide a broad societal background against which education and training should have the preferential position. The presentations showed in what way the promotion of creativity and innovation could be set into the context of the priorities in the field of education and training, whilst the workshops should define the key factors and conditions that should be fulfilled, so schools could meet these goals.

Esko Aho, one of the keynote speakers mainly touched on the European dimension of innovation and creativity. In his views the knowledge potential in Europe and in the world is far from being fully used, numerous results of the technological development remain unexploited. In the Lisbon strategy the European Union has an excellent tool for improving its competitive potential in relation to other regions of the world, but unfortunately so far its implementation has not always been very effective. To be able to achieve its goals, EU should by all means invest more in knowledge. The characteristics that should be developed by education are courage, accepting risk and failure. School should provide opportunities to those who are interested in entrepreneurship. The school can make a difference in giving pupils the opportunity to develop their potentials. Systems in Europe must connect, including the school systems – we need a change in design, in the architecture of education and training. We do not change education if we teach old things in a new way. "It is not enough to do things better, we need to learn to do better things."

To give the background why innovation and creativity is needed Jeremy Rifkin (second keynote speaker) presented the dramatic consequences of global warming

which in turn is the result of the use of fossil fuels since the first industrial revolution. Children need to be educated in the consciousness that the world is a unique living space, in which everything is interconnected and interdependent. So education is essential if we wish to achieve important goals. Information by itself is not knowledge and knowledge is not yet wisdom.

David Istance in his keynote speech quotes three arguments why more attention should be paid to innovation and creativity. He called attention to the most recent outcomes of the PISA survey on reading literacy of 15-olds. They show that in most rich countries too small a proportion of pupils attain levels of literacy needed to use knowledge in new situations, i.e. creatively and innovatively. His second argument is provided by the sciences on learning. It seems that the organization of schools is inimical to creativity. The third argument comes from the philosophy of lifelong learning. The relationship between lifelong learning and school education seems to be neglected. For many lifelong learning is about adult education and in this belief school education and lifelong learning are two separate concepts. Acquiring new knowledge in school should take place in an environment similar to the one in which new knowledge is created by researchers. Personalization of learning is in the focus of new approaches to learning – an idea known also from the memorandum on lifelong learning, but still far from being implemented in practice. The new approach to learning requires deeper professional knowledge of teachers. What schools need most is the building of a creative and innovative culture favourable to change.

Partnership and research in teacher education for innovation and creativity

ENTEP conference in Ljubljana was a rather challenging and inspiring opportunity for the discussion on mentioned problems, for the exchange of existing experience, sharing good practices and giving impulses for next practice and promote mutual learning.

Special attention was given to the role of Teacher Education Institutions in enhancing research, partnership with the schools and innovations and creativity in schools.

Why are we promoting partnership and research in teacher education?

In the document Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications the teacher's occupation is defined as an 'occupation based on partnership':

"A profession based on partnerships (as one of the common principles): institutions providing teacher education should organise their work collaboratively in partnership with schools, local work environments, work-based training providers and other stakeholders. Higher education institutions need to ensure that their teaching benefits from knowledge of current practice. Teacher education partnerships, which have an emphasis on practical skills and an academic and scientific basis, should provide teachers with the competence and confidence to reflect on their own and others' practice. Teacher education, in itself, should be supported and be an object of study and research." (http://europa.eu.int/education/policies/2010/testingconf_e.html)

Delors (1996) offers his justification for the introduction of partnership co-operation in his principles: "to learn how to live and work together". Support for partnership principles comes also from some recent discoveries in psychology on different types of intelligence (Sternberg's triarchic theory of intelligence including social intelligence, Gardner's understanding of interpersonal intelligence, Goleman's emotional intelligence). On this basis, McGilchrist et al. (2004) developed the notion of 'intelligent school' which covers nine types of 'school intelligence' including 'collegial intelligence' which among other things means trust and belief in common goals - together with some other types of intelligence (systemic, operative, reflective, emotional, educational and contextual) it is an important factor when the vision of school should be put to practice.

When discussing **partnership** and partnership links in the context of teacher education, we usually think of the partnership between schools and teacher education institutions. However, partners in teacher education are also individuals (principals and teachers mentors), students, graduates, university and other faculties, teacher unions, government agencies, other public institutions, etc.

Most relations with the mentioned partners are not formalised, hence we cannot talk about actual partnerships but in most cases about more or less formalised co-operation.

The aim of different "partnership" projects is to improve work at schools in new ways, such as dissemination of good practice, introduction of the role of a 'critical friend', encouragement of a critical discourse to empower teachers. If they have

clearly defined roles and responsibilities of all partners they are rightfully called partnerships.

Most of such projects are based on the principles of action research; partnership co-operation is frequent in the area of research. In joint research (e.g. Frost, 2000, McGilchrist, 2004,) it is necessary to take notice of the moral and ethical dimension of research. In research projects, 'academic imperialism' can very quickly impose an unequal situation and exploitation of partners (schools) by using them as a research field to collect information with the aim to write and publish papers and not to provide any feedback to the practice, thus disregarding the basic rules of partnership. The principles of action research should provide a safety switch to prevent such occurrences (Frost, 2000). For research to be called partnership co-operation, it is necessary for all partners to come to an agreement on variety of questions to prevent misunderstandings and conflict situations.

Among initiatives to promote partnership in research, there is one called 'bridging a gap', arising from the lack of contact between research in education and its practice. It is not enough to research teacher's work, teachers themselves should research it too (Thornley et al. 2004: 10). However, including teachers in research projects is not without its problems. Among them, Thornley (ibid) names an increase in teacher's workload: teachers need to achieve certain standards of knowledge and see research only as another burden. Time dedicated to research is another frequently cited problem. Another obstacle is the fact that teachers are practice-oriented and this is the perspective from which they see research priorities and the language they use («culture gap», Goldstein, 2002:158). The academic vocabulary makes teachers feel inferior; they do not believe in their own knowledge and research skills, this creates an inequality among partners in research projects in terms of power, teachers become distrustful while researchers can have their own hidden agendas (Goldstein, 2002:159). Teachers do not see research as a way to solve problems they encounter in their day-to-day work but rather as means of opening up new problems and new insecurities which erode their confidence. Teachers are used to work privately, almost in isolation, where they do not need to negotiate and make adjustments. Their communications with pupils are much more one-sided than communications in a research project (Goldstein, 2002). As they are often working in isolation, teachers feel uncomfortable co-operating with other adults (researchers, other teachers), they feel they are being scrutinised, that somebody is assessing their work even when the research is interested in the pupils' work. The presence of another person in the classroom also affects the conditions for work, what means that children also feel and

act differently in research conditions. As the following statement sums it up: "Although we all agree this work has been exciting, learning to work together has not been easy."(Goldstein, 2002:157)

Partnership between Teacher Education Institutions and Schools on Research

Despite all mentioned obstacles and problems which can mostly be overcome by establishing a true partnership co-operation, partnership in research remains the most effective method of linking theory to practice in the classroom.

In different countries we can find and observe different ways and examples of partnership in research. We are presenting some examples of "good practice".

The case from **Luxembourg** gave an insight on close cooperation between university and schools with the project "EIS SCHOUL: A Research-based Primary School in Luxembourg - an inclusive classroom approach". The concept and the mission of the project, which should consider the diversity of the children as a source of enrichment that allows to multiply knowledge and experiences, was presented. "Eis Schoul" is a state-run primary school, where research is an integral part of the multi-professional team's task. The school will develop new ways of learning, teaching and evaluation in collaboration with the University of Luxembourg. It is based on establishing and developing inclusive classroom approaches (M. Brendel and D. Scuto, 2008).

For decades, the **Finnish** orientation toward teacher education has been to the development of a research-based professional culture. The critical scientific literacy of teachers and their ability to use research methods are considered to be crucial. Accordingly, Finland's teacher education programmes require studies of both qualitative and quantitative research traditions. The aim of these studies is to train students to find and analyse problems they may expect to face in their future work. Research studies provide students with an opportunity to complete an authentic project, in which students must formulate a problem in the educational field, be able to search independently for information and data related to the problem, elaborate on them in the context of recent research in the area, and synthesise the results in the form of a written thesis. They learn to study actively and to internalise the attitude of researchers as they do their work. (Mikkola, 2008).

In connecting teacher education, research and school development The Teacher Researcher Net (TRN), as a forum for pedagogical dialogue between teachers, student teachers and teacher educators, plays important role. It consists of teachers

working in different schools around Finland. The Teacher Researcher Net was founded in the beginning of 1994 at the Department of Teacher Education in the University of Jyväskylä. The range of the network's activities cover subject didactics, science teaching, mathematics teaching, village schools, assessment developing, in-service education and inclusive teaching. The TRN works as a resource for developing teacher education, and a forum of collegial learning and empowerment. (Mikkola, 2008).

For **Estonia** (Eisenschmidt, 2008) all educational researches support the development of teacher education either directly or indirectly. However, some problems related to the area of educational research were identified together by teachers, school leaders and academics:

- A lack of systematic analyses of development needs in teacher education. The existing individual researches do not meet the needs of the consolidated field.
- Interrelations between teacher education, research and development activities in universities are weak; research results are not applied.
- Research results are not inserted into a unified database; cooperation between the representatives of different research groups, institutions and fields of science is insufficient.
- Orders placed for educational researches are neither purposeful nor coordinated.

The researches that directly support the development of teacher education are closely connected and interrelated with the different fields of educational research – educational policy and economy, sociology, psychology, educational science, health studies, educational technology and researches on curriculum development.

A national programme for educational research is generated in order to determine national priorities in the field of educational research including the topics essential for the development of educational system including teachers' professional development. The most meaningful and powerful reform implemented in the Estonian school system is an internal evaluation system as the self-evaluation of schools as organizations. The main objective of the internal evaluation is to promote the development process in educational institutions. Educational institutions carry out the internal evaluation and present the report in three years. This reform focuses on teachers' and schools' individual development needs.

All these reforms are developed and supported by university staff.

At the University Kassel (**Germany**) the cooperating partners of all phases in the Centre for Teacher Education and School Research were convinced that the outcome of common projects could be more effective if teacher education institutions and schools (including CPD) were able to bridge the often experienced gap between 'theory' and 'practice' and were able to take advantage of the fruitful contributions that each party can make to the other. To include educational policy makers at regional level (considering the federal system in Germany) in order to be able to promote intentional steering in specifically identified fields is a very important component of the partnership model. (U. Uzerli, 2008)

The view that schools should play a central and active role 'in research in action' (classroom research etc.) and that teachers as 'experts of learning' should be equal partners in research was verified by first experiences in the more 'informal testing phase' and lead to a wide range of initiatives to include teachers as experts in their field and institutionalise this cooperation. Thus teachers were not only anticipated as potential change agents and multipliers but also as 'leaders of initiatives' with clear visions and key roles for specific research to be undertaken. The research projects planned as a collective process were meant to contribute to the development of new knowledge about learning (learning to learn) and consequently to the design of teaching approaches that respond to learner typology, leading to curriculum improvements both in schools and in teacher education and training.

Involved universities thus increasingly regard teachers as inventors of knowledge transfer as experts as well as researchers and analysts not only in the practical field, but also in subject matters and didactics with new holistic approaches. Teachers being taken serious in their work then become more interested in latest developments in research and are more eager to match their experiences with 'first hand' researchers and respond to the new challenges in a dispute among partners, rather than being regarded as mere recipients of that knowledge, often having the impression the research hypotheses and designs are far off their real classroom and school situations.

Such projects are successful if teacher education institutions and the Centre for Teacher Education and Research manage to encourage staff, school leaders and other partners in this field to participate in this challenging attempt, and to conceive it as a constant dynamic process in which they themselves are active players. (U. Uzerli, 2008)

The **Dutch** ministry of education started a pilot research on school teaching. The ministry funds so-called 'academic' schools that work on research in the field of

school teaching and that link this phenomenon to innovation and fundamental knowledge development. Today there are 22 'academic' schools working on different projects in cooperation with different teacher education institutes. Teachers do research in their own school and are counselled by researchers from teacher education institutes.

The strength of such projects is that initiatives come from the schools and are not dictated by the government. Research done, at the schools or at the teacher education institutes, comes from a research question formulated out of real school experience. In most projects teachers are highly involved and have freedom to use innovation in their own school practice (M. Segers, 2008).

Better quality and more systematic connections coming close to partnership co-operation have been appearing in **Slovenia** only in the recent years as part of the Partnership project encouraged by the Ministry of Education and supported by the European Social Fund.

A large project of **the Faculty of Education, Ljubljana University**, (Devjak T., ed., 2005) titled *Partnership Between the Faculty and Educational Institutions* and financed by the European Social Fund and Ministry of Education, Science and Sport of the Republic of Slovenia (2004-2005), aims to develop and test models of partnership in all areas of teacher education (3 I: initial, induction and in-service), as well as joint research; it not only includes schools but also other education related institutions. Other teacher education institutions from Slovenia, Austria and Croatia have also been included in the project.

The project has followed objectives in four areas, in this context we are mentioning only the fourth goal, which was to examine the model of joint research projects relating to teaching practice and the application of its results directly back to practice.

In order to devise a *model for joint research* and to complement the top-down with bottom-up projects, an analysis of research needs was made (Tancig and Dekleva, 2005). The questionnaire on the research needs in practice was answered by 54 schools and institutions: the most frequently expressed needs were the school educational concept, teacher's position, co-operation with parents, social integration and assessment.

Dissemination of the educational researchers' results

As one of the problems concerning the partnership between Teacher Education Institutions and schools on research, mentioned quite frequently, is the **dissemination of the results of educational research** among teachers and generally within the school practice.

The dissemination is a weak point of academic research practice. The problem can be not always appropriate relevance of the educational researches' problems and results. On the other hand, publishing the results in books and scientific journals, as one of the frequent ways of dissemination, have a very limited domain. Specialised research journals are not very often on the "reading menu" of teachers. Only when the teachers are actively involved in the research (not only as respondents), their interest is much greater and they read the research reports.

Very common way of dissemination are CPD activities and several seminars for teachers (reported from Austria, Denmark, France, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain and Slovenia). To reach more teachers and some real changes in school work, school oriented CPD activities are the best way. As reported from France, on the national level seminars could be organised to spread new devices decided by the ministry or to share experiences upon a specific matter. But it depends upon each participant when he comes back in his region or school if and how he or she will inform the colleagues.

The results are often presented at various conferences, as sharing the research results and published as conference proceedings for teachers and school authorities (Austria, Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, Slovenia).

But, concerning the effects of researches on school practice, Lundberg (2008) describes the great differences:

- "the teachers can find the results of great use for themselves and make use of them in their own planning;
- the school/the principal can decide that results being of importance for hers or his school and make it as a part of the development plan for the school;
- the local community school authorities could decide to make the results part of the local 'school policy'. This way is becoming more and more important, because the local communities are putting more emphasis on school development and school policy."

The reciprocal model of educational research (action research) seems to be an ideal solution for better dissemination of the research results.

In **Slovenia**, as in many other countries, the dissemination of research findings to practitioners is also one of the main problems of educational research conducted by academics (Krek, Juriševič, Vogrinc, 2008). Teachers often complain about a lack of access to the findings of educational research, and this is one of the main reasons for educational research failing to have an adequate influence on the improvement of practice. One way to change educational research in a way which improves the practice of teachers in schools, is changing the research agenda and research process. Changing the research agenda and research process means adopting as an essential prerequisite of improvement, the involvement of practitioners in all aspects of the research process, creating partnership between research in education and its practice (Juriševič, 2005), from the creation of strategic research plans, the selection of research priorities and the funding of projects through to the dissemination and implementation of policies and practices arising from or influenced by research findings.

The role of teacher education institutions in innovating school practice

Some countries see the role of Teacher Education Institutions (TEI) as important agent in innovating school practice (e.g. Luxembourg), but there are some countries with high level of school autonomy, so TEI do not have any or very little role on this issue. Some of TEI act as “centres of excellence” and stimulate innovations in school practice (Schratz, 2008). Innovative projects are sometimes developed within the partnership with TEI, in the context of school autonomy (Portugal). The schools are encouraged to implement new pedagogical methods – as long as they fulfil the national and local goals (e.g. Denmark). Educational authorities usually invite schools to innovate their own practice, it is stimulated more or less morally, sometimes with accumulating professional credit points for the career promotion (Romania, Slovenia).

On the other hand, it was mentioned the case, where the school practice is quite strictly prescribed with little room for individual innovation at all (Austria).

Are innovations always creative?

ENTEP representatives mentioned quite a variety of different innovations, while the most frequent are from the area of foreign language teaching (e.g. in Germany

they have a project with improving language proficiency of pupils with migration background).

Another frequent innovations concern the theme “*to teach pupils how to learn*” (Germany, France, Slovenia); using ICT *in the classroom* (Spain, Cyprus, Dutch, Slovenia), *environmental studies* (Cyprus, Slovenia); *inclusive education* (Cyprus, Denmark), *distance learning* (Cyprus), *e-portfolio* (Estonia) and some others.

From those examples we can see that in most cases innovations are not always creative ones, quite often they concern some new initiatives, connected with new educational policies (inclusive education, distance end e-learning, early foreign language teaching). Some creative school innovations are often initiated bottom-up at schools, some are carried out as the result of innovative projects within the framework of EU projects Socrates and Leonardo da Vinci.

In Slovenia, a growing number of innovative development projects take place within these framework. Teachers’ creativity is encouraged by some head-teachers (not all), with possibility to publish the experiences in special books or journals, to present innovations at different meetings and school exhibitions. In May 2008 there was a “Festival of creativity and innovations” in Ljubljana and all schools have had a possibility to present their work.

In the book *School and kindergarten* (2008) a number of such project are presented, most of them presented examples of good practices of partnership between schools and kindergartens in Slovenia and many other EU countries. Many projects concerned about the ecological issues, promoting ecological awareness, tourism, healthy life, international understanding and tolerance; some were oriented on personal growth of pupils, strengthening self-confidence and promoting new way of teaching and learning.

Conclusion

As we stressed at the beginning, **Educational Research, Innovations and Creativity of Teachers and Partnership between Schools and Teacher Education Institutions** are important themes in all EU states. Many examples of good practice could be observed in all EU countries. Research orientation should become a normal part of teacher education programmes, especially with implementation of second (bologna) degree of teacher education. The dissemination of research results is still a weak point of academic research practice, although all countries are looking for ways of improving it.

Many innovations within the school practice are in the process of implementation, for many of them we have no evidence. Some of them can be described as creative ones, some are just the reproduction of the already experienced at other schools or in other countries. Teacher education institutions are not always involved as partners in these processes. Sometimes we can identify the lack of evaluation and also not enough taking care about the “cost/benefit” effects. Is the benefit of pupils stressed enough? Are there some innovations which are more or less in the interest of school management only? Is there any sharing of good practices? There are many questions without clear answers.

As concerning the level of autonomy of teachers in the context of innovating their school practice we registered differences from country to country, which are mainly corresponding to the general level of schools’ and teachers’ autonomy.

We can identify that teacher education policies are not enough connected with other areas of educational policies, sometimes also due to different ministers, concerning for different levels of educational system. Lack of connections is evident also from the reports, prepared by ENTEP members. Therefore the ENTEP should have as one of the future goals also the (re)establishing and increasing those connections, to reach more coherence in educational activities and to join all the richness of existing knowledge on this field for better education at all levels.

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QUALITY ASSURANCE IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

LIESBETH HENS AND MARILYNE RÉMER

1. Introduction

Getting good value for money is a common and widespread economic principle that also applies to teacher education. Teachers are the axis of all education systems. Governments all over the world are investing heavily in teachers and their education, which needs to be of high quality. Besides this economic principle, there is another reason to demand teacher education of the highest quality. Different sources indicate that the quality of teacher education is directly linked to pupil achievement (EC 2007).

At first glance, quality assurance in initial teacher education seems a common practice. But on closer inspection, there appears considerable diversity among the systems used. The European Commission indicated the improvement in quality of teacher education as an important goal for Europe's education systems if swifter progress is to be made towards meeting the common objectives that have been established under the Education and Training 2010 programme (EC 2007).

This chapter describes and discusses several aspects of quality assurance in initial teacher education in various European countries.

2. Scope

Before starting to describe and discuss different systems it is important to define the scope of what we understand by quality assurance of teacher education. This chapter deals with processes for evaluating and accrediting institutions and programmes for initial teacher education. These evaluations should lead to reports, recommendations or conclusions for each institute or programme being evaluated. Since the scope of this chapter is restricted to initial teacher education itself, induction periods or postgraduate in-service training are not taken into account.

Quality assurance could have different meanings, depending on national points of view and the position accorded to initial teacher education within the general framework of higher education. This chapter focuses on the quality assurance process of the initial teacher education programmes themselves. Some countries

may define the quality of their teacher education programmes by the results of new teachers taking state exams (eg, Germany, France) or on the evaluation of the work of individual teachers (see chapter III, 77-88: Teacher evaluation across Europe). These indirect measurements will not be part of this chapter.

For the purposes of this chapter, the terms 'evaluation' and 'accreditation' are used as defined by Eurydice (2006):

Evaluation is the general process of systematic and critical analysis leading to judgements and/or recommendations for improvement regarding the quality of a teacher education institute or programme.

Accreditation is a process by which an institution or a programme is judged by relevant legislative and professional authorities as having met predetermined standards in order to provide teacher education or training and to award the corresponding qualifications (where they exist). The accreditation procedure presupposes that the programmes or institutions to be accredited are evaluated.

3. Organisation and Structure

Quality assurance has become an important part of higher education since the start of the Bologna Process. The ministers of education agreed in Bergen in 2005 to encourage leaders in higher education to continue their efforts to enhance the quality of their activities through systematic introduction of internal quality assurance mechanisms and their direct correlation to external quality assurance (Bergen Communiqué).

In most European countries only general regulations for the evaluation of all higher education apply to the evaluation of teacher education. There are no specific regulations dealing with quality assurance of teacher education. Six countries (Germany, France, the UK, Ireland, Portugal and Poland) defined specific regulations for the evaluation of teacher education, although they seem to apply only at a specific stage of initial teacher education (Eurydice 2006).

A quality assurance system may consist of an internal evaluation and/or an external evaluation. By internal assessment or self-assessment, we are referring to institutions or programmes devoted to initial teacher education who accomplish their assessment themselves. External evaluations involve people outside the institution or programme. An external evaluation can be followed by a formal decision for accreditation, resulting in a three-step system, but this is not a necessity.

Sometimes internal and external evaluations are interwoven, but in certain countries they exist separately. This may be because some countries choose to evaluate different components of the teacher education programme separately, or different bodies are involved.

The quality assurance process can be undertaken within a fixed timescale, which will most often be the case when accreditation is to result, while in certain places it is structured to meet a country's particular needs.

4. Internal evaluation

One of the most important goals of a quality evaluation process is the constant improvement of the educational programme. To reach this goal, it is important that the whole quality process is embedded in the programme or the institute. Quality is the responsibility of all educators, researchers and the management staff of an institution. This infiltration can be achieved by carrying out an internal evaluation.

An internal evaluation or self-evaluation is an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of a teacher education programme or institute, processed by those working in this programme or institute. The people who actually take part in the internal evaluation may vary between countries and even institutions. The management and the academic staff are always present. Students can be involved, according to ENQA (the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education) guidelines (see www.enqa.eu). Unfortunately these important stakeholders are not involved in all countries. Logically, employers and labour market representatives should also have an opportunity to contribute to the teacher education programmes (Eurydice 2006).

Almost all European countries have regulations dealing with internal evaluation, except Luxembourg. In most of these, internal evaluation is compulsory. It is recommended in Spain, France, Cyprus and Slovenia and is optional in Malta (Eurydice 2006).

The scope of this evaluation can be wide. ENQA guidelines stress the importance of topics such as quality in student assessment, teaching staff, and support and learning resources available to students. The evaluation may be conducted by collecting data, and analysing use of resources and results, while questioning students, alumni, teachers and other staff can also be part of it. The result of this evaluation is mostly a report indicating an overview of both structural elements and processes of the programme or institute concerned. In some countries

the indicators for reporting in the internal evaluation are fixed. Most of the time this regulation is linked with the decision of using the internal report as a basis for an external evaluation process (see next section).

5. External quality assurance

This form of evaluation involves, by definition, bodies and/or individuals not linked to the programme or institute being evaluated. Different information is gathered by this group, resulting in an objective statement on the quality of the teacher education programme/institute.

Most of the countries that have implemented a compulsory internal evaluation system also have a compulsory external evaluation system. Exceptions are Germany, where it is recommended; Austria, where it is optional; and Italy, where there are no regulations concerning external evaluations. The responsibility for the external evaluation may lay with the ministry, but some countries (Flemish community of Belgium, the Netherlands, Slovenia) have transferred this task to an independent body, which acts on behalf of the public authority. In other countries (eg, Ireland, Scotland) the inspectorate for school education is responsible (Eurydice 2006).

The profile of an external evaluation can differ between countries. In most countries peers (academics of the same discipline) and/or experts in evaluation are involved. A few countries (United Kingdom, Poland, Ireland and Germany) involve inspectors with a teaching or an administrative background. Also, the involvement of students and foreign experts is not common throughout Europe at this moment (Eurydice 2006). ENQA strongly recommends engaging these two groups, which can act as an eye-opener to the external evaluation team.

As the scope of the internal evaluation may vary, the same is true of the external evaluation. It is common practice to include, either as compulsory or recommended, topics such as the internal evaluation process, the content of the teacher education, teaching methods, assessment practices, the balance between professional training and general education, school placements, partnerships with schools, human resource management, student performance, and infrastructure (Eurydice 2006).

The frequency of external evaluations in teacher education programmes ranges from annually (Ireland) to every 12 years (Czech Republic). In some countries the law defines a fixed term between external evaluation; in others only a maximum period is spelt out (Eurydice 2006).

6. Results of the evaluation process

Most countries are obliged to publish publicly at least the results of the external evaluation. However, this is not the case in Spain, France, Estonia, Iceland, Lithuania and the French community of Belgium (key indicators 2006-2007). These results may be useful to future students and policy makers and can contribute towards the accreditation process.

It is important that an evaluation – internal or external – is conducted in a thorough way. But even more important is how institutes, ministries and stakeholders deal with the results of the evaluation process.

Most obviously, a teacher education institute or programme uses the outcome of the evaluation process to improve its own quality, to learn from mistakes, and incorporates it into its internal quality process

In many countries the results of the evaluation process are taken into account for (re)accreditation and funding. When the evaluation procedure delivers a poor result, measurements are taken to grant the programme or the institute a second chance by developing and implementing a plan of improvement and a (re)evaluation (Eurydice 2006).

7. Case-study: Flemish community of Belgium

Teacher education in Flanders is a 180 ECTS bachelor course leading to a teaching qualification for pre-primary, primary and lower secondary schools. The quality assurance for these programmes, like all bachelors and masters programmes in Flanders, has three consecutive levels, joined together in a three-step programme for quality assurance:

1.1 Internal quality assurance: self-evaluation

By law, individual institutions are responsible for internal quality assurance (QA). Within their internal QA procedures, the institutions take into account the demands of the external QA procedures. This external QA procedure is characterised, among others, by the self-evaluation report (SER) that needs to be provided for as basis of the external QA procedure. The SER documents an analysis of the programme in the light of the criteria of the external QA decision framework and highlights strengths and weaknesses of the programme involved. The SER's set-up

has to comply with the guidelines set out in the VLIR/VLHORA (respectively the Flemish inter-university council and the Flemish council of university colleges) assessment manual.

1.2 External quality assurance: visiting process

VLIR and/or VLHORA coordinate a three-day visit by the assessment panel to the programme(s). The assessment panel usually consists of peers: one education expert, three experts from the professional field (eg, school directors, teachers, teachers' union, school inspectors) and a student involved in the programme.

In the accreditation framework theme 5: internal quality assurance, there is a standard dealing with involvement of staff, students, alumni and work field in the internal QA system. For the assessment, the programmes are grouped according to the discipline. The visit of the assessment group results in a public report on the quality of the programmes involved, stating the assessment panel's judgements, motivations and recommendations. In the report, the assessment panel also provides a comparative overview of all programmes involved. The programmes involved are given the chance to comment on the report before it is published.

1.3 Accreditation

An institution applies to the NVAO (Dutch-Flemish accreditation organisation) for accreditation of a specific programme. It is the NVAO that decides formally whether a certain programme meets standards and reaches the generic quality level as laid down in the 2004 Flemish Higher Education Act. When accredited, the institution will continue to receive funding from the government for the programme involved. The degree will be recognised and students enrolled on the programme will continue to receive scholarships. The NVAO's decision is based upon an evaluation of the assessment procedures, the assessment methodology and the conclusions, motivations and recommendations set out in the assessment report. The NVAO can also ask for additional information from the programmes involved or organise additional hearings. Appeal procedures are in place in case an institution does not agree with the NVAO's decision. The accreditation decision is published in an accreditation report.

Indicators

Study programmes are assessed in the light of the themes and standards below. Every standard is completed with one or more criteria, and altogether this constitutes the accreditation framework.

1. Aims and objectives
 - 1.1. Level and orientation
 - 1.2. Subject-/discipline-specific requirements
2. Curriculum
 - 2.1. Correspondence between the aims and objectives, and the curriculum
 - 2.2. Requirements for professional/academic orientation
 - 2.3. Consistency of the curriculum
 - 2.4. Credits
 - 2.5. Workload
 - 2.6. Admission requirements
 - 2.7. Coherence of structure and contents
 - 2.8. Masters thesis (if applicable)
 - 2.9. Learning assessment
3. Staff
 - 3.1. Requirements for professional/academic orientation
 - 3.2. Quantity of staff
 - 3.3. Quality of staff
4. Services
 - 4.1. Facilities
 - 4.2. Tutoring
5. Internal quality assurance system
 - 5.1. Periodic evaluations
 - 5.2. Measurements for improvement
 - 5.3. Involvement of staff, students, alumni and professional field
6. Results
 - 6.1. Achieved learning outcomes
 - 6.2. Study progress

For each group of similar programmes a discipline-specific reference framework is developed by the assessment panel. In the case of the integrated teacher education,

it will be based on the basic competences a beginning teacher should have, as defined by the Flemish Government.

8. Conclusions

Every quality assurance process, internal and external, has two common goals. The first goal is always to improve the programme or institute that is the subject of the evaluation. The second goal is that evaluation processes are used to demonstrate accountability to ministries and society.

The importance of quality assurance in teacher education is beyond debate. Nevertheless, we can see throughout Europe a large variety of different forms of the quality assurance process. The European Commission has indicated the quality of teaching as a key factor in determining whether the European Union can increase its competitiveness in a globalised world (EC 2007).

Today, it appears that not all European countries are as well-equipped as others for this task. It seems that quality in initial teacher education has an important role to play in theory, because everyone is preoccupied by education. And it is a priority, especially at European level and the ambition of building a knowledge society by 2010. If quality is improving, then everyone will notice big differences. In reality, structures are stressed by quality assurance. Things are improving but slowly, and because of the subsidiarity principle, it depends on the different priorities of the different governments.

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**EIS SCHOUL:
A RESEARCH-BASED PRIMARY SCHOOL IN LUXEMBOURG –
AN INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM APPROACH**

MICHELLE BRENDEL AND DENIS SCUTO

1. Introduction

This chapter describes a specific school development project that is taking place in a European Union member state. On the one hand the example is specific and particular, and on the other hand it might represent the future for education within the European Union.

The aim of the project has been to set up a research-based and inclusive primary school. To set the scene, it is useful to consider the prevailing conditions in Luxembourg, where this school is based.

More than 40 per cent of the population in Luxembourg are non-nationals; by comparison, non-nationals represented only five per cent of the European population in general (this figure is based on data from 2005). The non-nationals of Luxembourg speak French, German, English, Portuguese, Italian, Serbo-Croatian or Polish. In primary school, both nationals and non-nationals have to learn German, French and Luxembourgish.

If we look at current trends in migration into and within the European Union, it becomes apparent that other countries are facing similar situations to those experienced in Luxembourg. In Western Europe, the foreign population increased by about 30 per cent between 1995 and 2005 (Salt, 2005). In presenting the specific case of Luxembourg, we have therefore to bear in mind the possibility that this country's approach to the issue of heterogeneity may in future be needed elsewhere in Europe – as other European countries slowly evolve in a similar way.

2. The context of the project

Before explaining the concept, it is worth describing further the context and societal framework within which the idea for the project was born. In recent decades, Luxembourg has made a rapid transition from being an industrial society, shaped

essentially by the steel industry, to a service society; it is now known abroad as a financial centre and is home to the headquarters of several European institutions. Although the population remains relatively small it has grown rapidly: from 375 000 in 1989 to 450 000 in 2007. The proportion of migrants increased from 28 per cent in 1989 to 40 per cent in 2005. Of nearly 200 000 immigrants, more than 70 000 come from Portugal, 26 000 from France, 20 000 from Italy, 17 000 from Belgium, 12 000 from Germany and 11 000 from the countries of the former Yugoslavia (STATEC, 2008). If we add to these residents the French, Belgian and German commuters that cross the border every day to work in the banks and other companies of Luxembourg, then we find that nearly 70 per cent of the working population are non-Luxembourgers.

In the academic year 2007–2008, approximately 56.1 per cent of the school population in Luxembourg were children of Luxembourgish nationality and 43.9 per cent were of other nationalities (MENFP, 2009). Schools in Luxembourg are characterised by their multilingual context. Even in primary school, children must learn three languages: Luxembourgish as the language of integration, German and French as written languages. The introduction to literacy is given in German, but more than 70 per cent of the children come from countries where Romance languages are spoken, including French.

In many respects, Luxembourg can be seen as a heterogeneous society. Our school is part of a story characterised in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries by growing social, cultural and ethnic diversity –and represented today by a reality that no-one can deny. That is the starting point and the challenge for our project.

For about 10 years, and especially following the publication of the PISA studies of 2000 (MEN, 2002), 2003 (MEN, 2004) and 2006 (MENFP, 2007), a consensus has been emerging both in politics and in other parts of society about the challenges facing the Luxembourg school system, which lacks both efficiency and equity (Martin, 2008).

The PISA studies showed that students' socioeconomic differences account for a significant part of the variation in school performance in Luxembourg. Luxembourg has special difficulties in giving equal opportunities to migrant and socially disadvantaged students, the socioeconomic aspect being vital to school success. It has also been shown that there are considerable differences between the performance of students who speak Luxembourgish – a Germanic language – at home and those who speak some other language there. However, experiences in other countries show that it is possible to reduce the performance gap between different language groups.

In the last decade, the role of partnership and research in promoting innovation and creativity in school has become more and more apparent (Ainscow et al. 2006; McLaughlin et al. 2006; Schratz et al. 1995, 2002). According to the Salamanca declaration and framework for action (UNESCO, 1994), Luxembourg's Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Formation Professionnelle (MENFP) has developed directives for public schools and promoted school projects to increase the participation of people with special needs. These efforts have promoted interaction between schools and encouraged them to develop shared objectives. However, as in other countries (Haug, 2000), the results are rarely evident in schools.

There is consensus in Luxembourg society that its schools have to deal with the following problem areas:

- inclusion
- novel ways of handling heterogeneity
- differentiation of teaching
- multilingualism.

In addition there is a desire for:

- the active involvement of students as authors of their own learning
- a rethinking of evaluation methods
- better information for, and involvement of, parents
- better extracurricular care structures
- whole-school partnerships, where all staff are centred on a common school project
- multi-professional teams.

(MENFP, 2005; Conseil de l'Europe, 2005-2006)

In response to these difficulties and challenges, a group of teachers and researchers have developed the concept of a research-based primary school ('Eis Schoul') based on inclusive pedagogy: this school considers differences as opportunities for learning.

The concept of Eis Schoul is based on two essential points:

- the principles of the inclusive classroom approach (Ainscow and Booth, 2002)
- the fact that this school, unlike mainstream schools which are under the responsibility of local authorities, is a state-run research primary school, which will develop new ways of teaching and assessment (in close cooperation with the University of Luxembourg).

3. From a shared vision to conceptual work in cooperation

Our vision started here, with these challenges and accompanied by a strong desire to bridge the gap between theoretical analysis and solutions in the practice of teaching and learning. The idea of an inclusive research primary school goes back to an initiative of the Groupe Luxembourgeois d'Education Nouvelle (GLEN), which was founded in 2004. This association brought together teachers from early years education and primary school, educators, psychologists, researchers from the University of Luxembourg, university students and parents (Brendel *et al.*, 2008). They were united by their belief in the 'new education' ('éducation nouvelle' in French, 'Reformpädagogik' in German) – the common denominator of many international education movements. The key principle of the 'new education' is that every student is able to learn if we rethink and transform school philosophy and above all the organisation of learning. School failure and social exclusion should be regarded as unacceptable (GFEN, 2001).

Three years ago, we began a productive and continuing exchange of ideas between teachers and GLEN members. Encouraged by the University's former dean (now vice-rector) and officials of the MENFP, researchers from the University of Luxembourg have been working day-by-day in pre-primary and primary schools. In February 2006, we presented our proposal to the Education Minister, who decided to designate this school, by law, a public research school. From September 2006, she charged a work group composed of teachers – including primary school teachers, and students and researchers at the University of Luxembourg (all members of the GLEN) – with the task of finalising the concept and writing a preliminary draft of the legislative document. This document, which we wrote during six months of intensive work, was delivered to parliament on 24 August 2007 and voted in on 30 April 2008 ('Loi du 13 mai 2008', 2008).

Eis Schoul may be viewed as a model of how an educational community school can manage effectively the heterogeneity of the Luxembourgish school population. The idea of heterogeneity is also applied to the adults in the learning community. Eis Schoul is a community where all participate in every aspect of school life, regardless of their sociocultural, physical, sensory and socioaffective peculiarities. The specific mission of Eis Schoul is:

- to consider the diversity of the students as a resource for learning

- to recognise and to take into account the students' various needs, whatever their disabilities, their differences or their difficulties
- to develop collaborative practices of teaching, learning and evaluation and their transferability to other schools.

Eis Schoul will welcome a heterogeneous group of students representative of the general school population of Luxembourg (50 per cent will be Luxembourgish nationals, 50 per cent other nationalities, 38 per cent the children of workers, 30 per cent the children of private employees, 17 per cent the children of civil servants ...).

At least 10 per cent of students will have special educational needs (disabilities). Special attention is given to the basic educational adaptations that inclusion requires; these will affect, for example, the organisation of the school, the composition of the staff team, school practices and the design of the school building. Careful thought will also be given to the means by which the conclusions drawn from the research process may be generalised to the whole of the Luxembourg education system. In order to facilitate this, an exchange network consisting of teachers, educators and psychologists from the Luxembourg school system is being set up by members of the Eis Schoul community. One focal point will be collaborative research.

A multidisciplinary team of people with different educational and professional backgrounds (including teachers, graduate educators, educators, a psychologist, a curative pedagogue, a secretary and a cooking team) collaborate, learn together and set the psycho-pedagogical framework for all the students in Eis Schoul. The work of this team ensures a consistent pedagogical approach throughout the school. The team's multiprofessional composition, with multiple and complementary competences, is supposed to make it unnecessary for the school to import special needs assistance from outside the school.

The teaching at Eis Schoul is personalised, differentiated and takes into account the multiple abilities and needs of all students. It diversifies the school activities by adapting them to each student and by respecting the individual learning paths and contexts of the students. At the same time, the teaching also favours cooperation between students. Education and teaching take place in multi-aged groups, which offer the students opportunities to integrate autonomy, responsibility and helping others into daily life.

4. Collaborative research-in-development

As a state-run research primary school, Eis Schoul examines how practices are being transformed and developed in order to promote inclusive teaching and learning among children aged from three to 12 years. Special attention is given to the evaluation process, which is necessary for the management of the heterogeneity of the students: educators need appropriate tools that will enable them to provide differentiation in their teaching. Another focus will be on the acquisition of literacy and the use and learning of languages in a multilingual context. This is particularly important as our linguistic situation is very different from that in other countries; it also represents a priority research area in the current four-year plan of the University of Luxembourg (Université du Luxembourg, 2006).

For the University of Luxembourg, Eis Schoul is an interdisciplinary project and fits into one of seven priority research programmes, namely the one that focuses on 'Building excellence in education' (P6). This programme aims to develop forms of learning and assessment methods adapted to Luxembourg's multilingual context and to supervise and support the institutional development of schools in Luxembourg. For the Luxembourg government, Eis Schoul is one essential element of a long-term strategy that aims to make schools in Luxembourg more efficient and fair. A strong partnership between the two institutions is therefore necessary. The Convention of 25 September 2007 states that cooperation between the MENFP and the University of Luxembourg concerning Eis Schoul centres on:

1. the development of quality education
2. research on Eis Schoul
3. the continuous professional development of all team members
4. the publication and dissemination of research results
5. the sustainable development of Eis Schoul.

The research in Eis Schoul is of four different types, as follows:

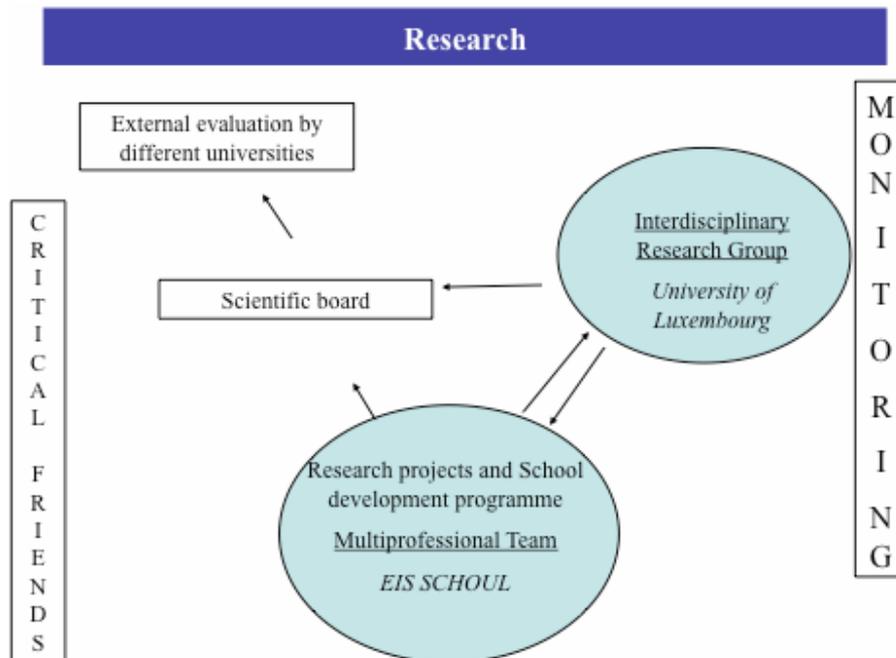


Figure 1: Research in Eis Schoul

First, research is an integral part of the multiprofessional team's task. Educators and researchers will develop common research projects looking at the learning processes of students and at the school development programme; these projects will take the form of 'bottom-up' teacher research (Altrichter and Posch, 2006). The school will develop new ways of learning, teaching and evaluation in collaboration with the University of Luxembourg, and these new methods will seek to establish and develop inclusive classroom approaches. The school's aim is to find out the extent to which these methods lead to better results in learning. Special attention will be given to the transferability of the practices developed and the conditions that promote effective transfer.

In the initial phase of development (started in September 2008), the research team at Eis Schoul is examining how members of the multiprofessional team progress from formal project definitions to the realisation of the project activities. In our exploration of the basic educational changes that inclusive pedagogy requires, we will compare and contrast evidence concerning the same actions and activities

provided by different people (members of the multiprofessional team, parents, students and researchers).

At the second level, a scientific board, composed of representatives of the University of Luxembourg, the school, the students' parents and the MENFP, will coordinate the school's research and development projects and reports. These projects and reports will be evaluated by recognised experts from universities around the world.

On a third level, the students' development is supported by an external evaluation, which is based on the monitoring of output. In this area, the project is cooperating with the research unit of the University of Luxembourg – Educational Measurement and Applied Cognitive Science (EMACS). At present, more and more education and training systems are heading towards output-oriented systems. Therefore the existence and availability of high-quality instruments that will assess the ever-growing range of measurable competencies becomes increasingly important. As these assessment instruments will be extremely important in steering output-oriented systems, their quality – and also the quality of the assessment process – must be established. The exchange between our project and EMACS enables us to develop assessment tools that are adapted to an inclusive school context.

The fourth level looks at the research from the perspective of transfer to the whole of the Luxembourg school system. The conclusions drawn from the research are discussed by a network of critical friends, the challenge being the dissemination of the results, the development of recommendations for mainstream class teachers and the contribution to the definition of inclusive pedagogy in Luxembourg.

5. Getting into research: A first project

When preparing for the launch of Eis Schoul, we became aware of the need to include research activities right from the beginning of the planning process. Since the main challenge for Eis Schoul is the management of heterogeneity, new evaluation tools and methods have to be developed. In this area, a key role will be played by the compilation of portfolios of students' work.

To prepare for the start of Eis Schoul in September 2008, a first research project began in July 2007. This research project was conducted jointly by the University of Luxembourg and the Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Formation Professionnelle (MENFP), working in partnership together. It looked specifically at

the portfolio of work as a tool for innovative practice in learning and assessment in primary schools.

We believe that portfolios are good indicators of what a student knows, showing how schoolwork fits best into that student's personal universe of knowledge. The portfolio should include whatever is significant in the student's eyes or reflects the student's actual experience, thus enabling students to reflect on and auto-regulate their own learning. Portfolios are substantial tools for qualitative assessment, providing powerful and genuine insights into a student's learning. They therefore provide educators with the information they need to manage the heterogeneity of the group, to adapt the curriculum and to plan for differentiation. (Brunner, Häcker and Winter, 2006; Carr, 2000, 2001; Häcker, 2007; Leu et al., 2007).

The multiprofessional research team first met on 20 June 2007. The research strategy was presented and discussed, and during an initial exploration of existing data the researchers helped the practitioners to get acquainted with various research instruments. The first research results were presented to critical friends in a workshop, where they were discussed in the light of participants' own experiences. In September 2008, members of the multiprofessional team at Eis Schoul were joined by colleagues from public schools. The tools will be tested and their transferability will be verified.

This example shows how, in order to ensure that the research results are both valid and useful, the following aspects of triangulation (Denzin, 1970) are implemented:

- comparing and contrasting evidence about the same actions and activities emanating from different people (members of the multiprofessional team, parents, students, researchers)
- examining events using a variety of data collection methods
- using critical friends.

Our theoretical framework is based on the concept that all learning takes place in a structure of participation (Lave and Wenger, 1991). The research approach is thus defined as a collaborative effort and all participants (the multiprofessional team, students and parents) are considered full partners working together with the researchers from the University of Luxembourg. The research methodology adopted draws on the principles of critical collaborative action research (Macpherson *et al.*, 1998) and on the teacher research approach of Mel Ainscow and colleagues (2006). It also makes use of inclusive research methods (Goeke and Terfloth, 2006; Wamsley and Johnson, 2003).

The heterogeneity of those involved – encompassing diversity in educational levels and including people with special needs - implies that there are very different competences in documenting work and reflections and in verbalising one's thoughts. In order to give people opportunities to express themselves, we need to construct research methods that they do not favour spoken and written language only, but are open to the multiple languages of human communication (Edwards, Gandini and Forman, 1993 ; Malaguzzi, 1997; Boal, 1999). In the context of their involvement in ITE at the University of Luxembourg, two colleagues have developed an approach to working with students based on their representations of themselves as would-be teachers (Bourg and Gretsche, 2007), using methods from the field of aesthetic biographical research (Kämpf-Jansen 2002; Seydel 2005). These colleagues have presented their approach to the research team and they support us in integrating their methods into our approach.

For the specific work with portfolios we refer to the works of Allal *et al.* (1998) and Mottier-Lopez (2006), and for the evaluation of school innovation we refer to the work of Cros (2004). For report writing, we plan to use the method of collective biography developed by Davies and Gannon (2006).

The cooperation and co-development of Eis Schoul and the University of Luxembourg corresponds perfectly to the institutional development of teacher education in our faculty. The student teachers are asked to undertake a personal project during their field activities and to document classroom activities. Some of them may benefit from the educators researching their practice and thus be initiated into scientific research methods as required by the University's rector. Because undergraduate students are now getting involved in research activities, stronger links between research and teaching may be established.

The challenges of the twenty-first century demand fundamental changes in pedagogical practices and a transformation of the role of teachers. The cooperation of Eis Schoul, the MENFP and the University of Luxembourg will contribute to the reform of the Luxembourg school system and to the development of the teacher education at the University of Luxembourg.

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SCHOOLS AS LEARNING COMMUNITIES

MARIEKE DRESEN and LEO TILLMANN

Introduction

The main focus of this chapter is the role of schools in teacher education and, more specifically, schools as centres of learning communities – not only for student teachers but also for teachers. One case study is provided, in which schools work together to educate student teachers, with the focus on learning to perform and support research.

During the 1980s, there was some criticism concerning teaching practice, the quality of teaching and the education of teachers; this resulted in the introduction of new forms of teacher education (Swennen and van der Klink 2009). Two important concepts underlying the new approach are school-based teacher training and professional development schools. As to the first concept, all teacher education programmes in the Netherlands now include teaching practice or ‘field experience’ in schools.

The project ‘Towards an Educational Partnership’ (EPS) was subsidised by the Dutch Ministry of Education and resulted, in 1999, in a plan for reform. The teacher education institutes made recommendations on how to improve the quality of teachers, strengthen the relation between schools (which provide practice) and institutes (which deliver theoretical perspectives), and organise field experience (including mentorship and the implementation of competence-based education). This plan was approved and between 2000 and 2002 several nationally-coordinated projects were completed.

This project has contributed to a bridging of the gap between theory and practice: student teachers have been able to experience real-life, authentic situations, and by this means they have developed professional identities. Student learning within the school is supported by both a lecturer from the teacher education institute and a teacher within the school. The student teacher therefore receives guidance from both an institute-based mentor and a school-based mentor. All this requires close cooperation between the teacher education institute and the school, and a partnership based on trust and shared responsibility. In the project described, some schools extended this further learning support not only to student teachers but also to all new

teachers. The schools that embedded teacher education in the overall development of the school (by making it a part of human resource development, for example) came to be known as professional development schools.

From 2002 to 2006, the Dutch government subsidised a number of professional development school initiatives. In doing so, they had two goals in mind: to develop an infrastructure and to define the rules and responsibilities. In total, 1288 primary schools, 235 secondary schools and 20 senior secondary vocational and adult schools participated.

During this four-year period, workplace learning became a hot topic – as did the issue of ensuring quality within the workplace. In order to guarantee the quality of professional development schools, a better understanding was needed of the various ways in which quality could be assessed and monitored. Discussion arose concerning various issues.

Regarding the quality of the workplace, the point for debate was whether or not the professional development schools should be identified by means of a set of specific standards or by a cluster of general qualities. Goodlad (1994) argued that the good schools are those that pay attention to their own development; others suggest that a rigorous set of standards is needed.

The next issue was how to set up learning communities that would build bridges not only between the teacher education institute and the school but also within schools and across schools. Learning communities have their basis in collaboration. To truly cooperate, a high level of cognitive involvement is required as well the willingness to contribute to the building of a shared value system, shared goals and shared understanding (Shrage, 1990). The idea of learning communities is built on the view that 'knowledge is commonly socially constructed, through collaborative efforts towards shared objectives or by dialogues brought about by difference in people's perspectives (Pea, 1993, p.48). Before teachers can collaborate they need to trust both their management and their colleagues. Only then is it possible to cultivate a climate of openness that promotes this sharing of knowledge. Without a 'culture of trust', teams of teachers will not dare to experiment, make mistakes or put forward new ideas (Taylor, 2002, p.43 ff). Learning communities flourish in a professional learning culture that values professional development.

The debate on evidence-based education is another issue. Some people think educational research should be based on traditional scientific experimental design, involving large-scale quantitative studies with experimental and control groups.

Others are more in favour of descriptive research, such as case studies that explore the complex learning context. No-one disputes the importance of research, and all parties agree that student teachers should be involved in research within schools. There is therefore a need for teachers and teacher educators to be fully involved in the topic of research, either by doing research, reading scientific articles or implementing research.

All these points gave rise to new subsidised pilot projects from 2005 to 2009, in addition to the subsidised professional development schools. The focus was on innovation and development in the schools, combined with research and training of the student teachers. On the basis of a selection process, 37 projects were chosen. The schools participating were designated academic professional development schools. The aim was to identify the conditions (for example, quality, cooperation, finances) in which both professional development schools and academic professional development schools could succeed. The outcome was clear: to develop success criteria. However, since the process was decentralised, each participating academic professional development school developed a different approach – which resulted in a variety of experiences and concepts based on an enormous amount of information.

In this chapter, we will describe one of these pilot projects. Since every pilot has its own approach and context, this description serves as one example only.

A case study: Academic School Limburg

Academic School Limburg is one of the pilot projects in the Netherlands that is investigating the concept of academic professional development schools. Limburg is the southernmost province of the Netherlands, and has Maastricht as its capital. This pilot is a collaborative project in which 12 secondary *schools*, four teacher education institutes and two universities are participating; nearly all of these educational institutions are located in Limburg. The Academic School Limburg identified six educational issues for investigation; these included, for example, internationalisation and ICT in schools.



Figure 1: Limburg, province in the southern part of the Netherlands

The gap between practice and theory, between schools and teacher education institutes and universities

The Academic School Limburg found a strong need and willingness to cooperate, both in schools and in teacher education institutes. Yet this collaboration has not gone without a hitch. At the core of the problem lies the fact that there is a gap between schools and the academic world, including the teacher education institutes. In addition, the university focuses on academic subjects and research, whereas the higher professional education institutes place more emphasis on professional areas and field experience.

The Dutch Ministry of Education defines an academic school as: ‘... a school that combines teacher education and innovation with research and development’. Based on this definition, the Academic School Limburg has developed a model that provides a solid basis for academic study. The school integrates research, education, innovation and development within one or more educational domains. In this way, it concentrates on educating teachers who can stimulate and integrate research within their own school settings. In our view, it is of primary importance that a well-structured cooperation between teacher education institutes and academic professional development schools is established.

At the start of this pilot project, the Ruud de Moor Centre of the Open University conducted an initial research project with the aim of obtaining an overall picture of the research competencies of the teachers involved in the project. This gave the Centre a better insight into the real-life divisions between practice and research, and between schools and the academic world. The results were also used to give further direction to the concept behind the Academic School Limburg. The key to minimising the gap between theory and practice, between teacher education institutes, university and schools, is to include teachers in the education of student teachers, research, innovation and the development of the school.

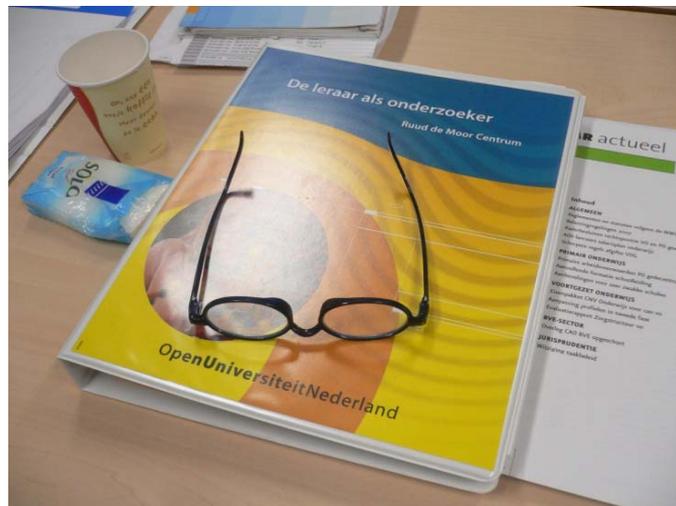


Figure 2: Report on the results of the research by Ruud de Moor Centre

The experience of academic hospitals

As shown in the table below, there are some similarities between the APSs and academic hospitals.

Academic professional development school	Academic hospital
<i>Primary task</i> teaching students using modern techniques and knowledge	<i>Primary task</i> ensuring the appropriate healthcare of patients using modern techniques and knowledge

Academic professional development school	Academic hospital
<i>Specific tasks</i>	<i>Specific tasks</i>
Research: examining general educational techniques in relation to students' learning processes	Research: examining healthcare techniques in relation to processes in the human body
Training/education: training teachers and school staff	Training/education: training doctors and nurses
Innovation: testing and using innovative educational and didactical practices	Innovation: testing and using innovative medical techniques and protocols
Development: developing ways in which professional / educational techniques can be improved and made useful for other schools	Development: developing professional medical treatment in a way that is useful for other hospitals

Academic professional development schools, like academic hospitals, work in close cooperation with others in their field. In the case of academic professional development schools, a structure of cooperation with other schools, teacher education institutes and universities is essential. Another crucial element of both academic professional development schools and academic hospitals is the internal and external exchange of knowledge; in other words, learning communities must be places where learning takes place.

The Academic School Limburg has learned from the experience of academic hospitals (which are also known as university medical centres or university hospitals). The academic hospitals see themselves as operating at the intersection of education, research and patient care. To bridge the gap between these three worlds, students are exposed to patients as well as to basic research. Almost every doctor and nurse is involved in this process, thus forming learning communities. The results from basic research can be taken further to more extensive research – and this results in carefully documented and evaluated innovations in the process of patient care. These innovations are thoroughly researched and critically assessed before they are adopted as standard practice – and this requires a good research infrastructure. The medical world benefits from academic hospitals and everyday practice benefits

from academic findings, thus bridging the gap between practice and theory, hospitals and universities.

There are also some key differences between academic professional development schools and academic hospitals and between healthcare research and educational research. For example, some medical research is about investigating the effects of new drugs, and testing a new medicine will never be the same as trialling a new educational concept. Another difficulty is that when research is looking at the effects of an educational intervention, many variables come into play, which cannot be controlled. For example, one teacher works in one class using the strategy of cooperative learning; in another class he does not use this strategy. Setting aside the fact that it may be impossible to control all aspects of learning, the success or failure of an educational strategy is often due to the teacher and/or the framework in which the teacher operates rather than to the strategy itself. So a balance needs to be found between strict methodological research designs that are difficult to apply in schools and simple evaluations that can hardly be called research. In addition, education is more context bound than medicine. What works for one teacher or student does not necessarily work for another. Therefore the whole notion of evidence-based education needs to be further discussed.

At present there is a call for the reorganisation of educational research and large experiments financed by the government, the most successful of which are tested further and refined. Only then can the educational world benefit from the research in daily practice in schools. And for this we need academic professional development schools.

The Academic School Limburg sees itself functioning at the intersection between education, research and student care. In order to function properly at such an intersection, communication is a key factor. This communication will focus on the concrete task in hand (research), whilst also giving each participant the opportunity to begin to understand the other partners, to know more about their work and to develop a sense of trust, respect and interdependence. The Academic School Limburg has invested not only in teacher education but also in establishing learning communities, conducting basic research and thus investigating the possibility of a research infrastructure.

The learning communities stimulated by the Academic School Limburg

ASL is a remarkable experiment because the project, and in particular the educational research, is not implemented from the top down, but from the bottom up. Teachers from various schools work together in small learning communities to carry out research in their own educational settings. These learning communities have been formed across schools. They are supported by experienced researchers from universities and teacher education institutes.



Figure 3: Teachers involved in a learning community at Fontys PTH Eindhoven

Because of the decision to work across schools, responsibility for the process lies for the greater part with the self-governing teams of teachers themselves, resulting in greater commitment and shared concerns and goals. Long, profound and generally fruitful debates have taken place. The teachers, working in teams, have had enormous freedom to work on the set research task and results, and these learning communities across schools have broadened the minds of participants. Teachers have visited other schools with different or similar problems and have been able to see the various problem-solving activities undertaken by the schools.

There was another challenging task for the teachers involved, which was to convince the managers and colleagues of the choices, content, tasks and results of the research. This led to small communities within a particular school discussing the implementation within it. It has not been easy to create support for research within a school. For example, although most other teachers supported the research, and understood the relevance of interviews or questionnaires, participation was sometimes low due to pressure of work. Moreover, not all teachers are convinced of

the necessity of research in schools. This varies across schools, and is perhaps an indication of the academic culture of the school. Most teachers focus primarily on their everyday practice, which requires immediate action, whereas doing research requires a different kind of preparation and training. Some teachers thought they could do without; however, they learned by bitter experience that this was not the case. This was another learning experience which participants shared in their learning community.

Apart from all this, the cooperation with experts from various fields has resulted in knowledge acquisition and raised awareness, giving a quality incentive to the process. There was substantial debate with the teacher education institutes and universities, which brought new insights.

Another goal of the ASL was the dissemination of knowledge. In the beginning the focus was on the formation of learning communities across and within the participating schools. Later on, the spotlight was on informing other teachers who were not participating. For this reason, newsletters have been published and a website was created. This website is frequently consulted.

After this, the attention shifted to reach a larger audience within the nation as a whole. Articles have been published in Dutch educational magazines which are read nationally. These articles were written by teachers involved in the pilot project, together with the teacher education institutes and universities. The Dutch government also launched a website for all pilot projects. By using this platform, schools could learn from other national pilot projects in this field.

ASL has now started an international exchange with the network of research schools belonging to the International Mind, Brain and Education Society (IMBES) run by Professor Kurt Fischer of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Through research schools, Fischer wants to create a model of collaboration between schools and universities – based on two-way interaction between research and practice. Ultimately, the goal is for research to directly affect the education process, and at the same time, for educational issues to shape the research agenda. (Fischer, 2007) In our effort to make academic schools successful, it is important to learn from other similar projects, such as the research schools in the United States. Our respective experiences will facilitate learning from each other, thereby continuing and deepening our relationship. This exchange has already resulted in an international publication about ASL (Tillmanns, 2008). Both national and international learning communities can be of great value.

Research in the schools participating in the Academic School Limburg

Investigating teacher competencies in innovative educational projects is one of the main goals of the Academic School Limburg. It has been necessary to do this in order to establish the academic quality of academic professional development schools.

A provisional profile of the teacher researcher was prepared by Professor Wim Gijsselaers of Maastricht University and discussed with members of the advisory council, the project manager and other participants. The key competencies formulated were:

- competence in judging recent developments on the basis of scientific knowledge and best practice, the relevance of which has been demonstrated in certain contexts
- competence in critically testing one's professional judgement in discussions and debates, whether verbally or in writing
- competence in setting up and supervising research
- competence in assessing the results of research for their relevance to and possible application in school practice
- competence in judging whether or not interventions in schools are useful given recent developments in practice or research
- competence in evaluating interventions and reporting findings to colleagues and school management.

As mentioned earlier, a research project was carried out by the Ruud de Moor Centre of the Open University. This was a baseline measurement (37 teachers and a reference group of 57 teachers, $n = 94$) designed to elicit the opinions, experiences and attitudes of teachers at the start of the pilot project. The most important findings were as follows.

As to experience with conducting research and other aspects of research:

- Most of the teachers sometimes read specialist journals, but never academic journals; they rarely or never consulted the internet concerning educational research
- Regarding experience with various research methods, the teachers mentioned that they had some experience with observation and devising questionnaires
- They generally acknowledged that they had hardly any experience of the different aspects of research. Some science teachers had conducted research

Attitudes to research varied, as follows:

- Some teachers did not see the need for research
- Other teachers saw hardly any relevance of research for school practice
- Some teachers had some affinity with doing research themselves
- Other teachers were rather doubtful about doing research themselves
- In general, teachers considered themselves as reasonably skilled in doing research.

So the results indicated that there was limited research experience among the teachers who participated in the project, and the need for research was hardly felt at all.

Our project started in September 2006, when we began training the first group of 37 teachers in formulating a hypothesis regarding educational issues; this took five sessions. The first group was followed in January 2008 by a second group of 110 teachers, who were also trained in how to begin a research project and in how to go about the mentoring of student teachers. The first group started to work in six teams across schools around six educational issues (these included ICT in schools, and internationalisation); the second group joined in later.

Most teams have now published their first results, which will be followed by the implementation of their results in practice. They have been supported by researchers and experts of the Ruud de Moor Centre of the Open University and Fontys University of Applied Science – and other institutes too. In the view of ASL, it is crucial that during the research process, and when the need is felt by the participants, support for the next step should be given. In other words, the favoured approach is when the need is learning by doing and ‘scaffolding’. In this case, the scaffolding was customised to the content and method used, and experts gave the support. The teachers themselves were in charge of the whole process.

There are some problems with this method of working, however. For example, the teams found it difficult to formulate their need for support. Nevertheless, quite a few topics were covered: these included the setting up of interviews, questionnaires and a database, and analysing data. Gaining access to the scientific literature also proved to be difficult for schools. Another problem was the availability of the experts and researchers. Since these experts had their own work to do, it was not

always possible for them to provide the necessary support at the time when it was requested by the teachers. Organisational skills were needed to ensure that the support was given.

All in all, the teachers have found that research requires academic thinking but also academic debate and writing. Many of them have carried out their research throughout the whole pilot project with enthusiasm and perseverance. All the teachers involved indicated that it has been a valuable learning experience.

In general, teachers who examine their own activities are more open to professional development and new ideas. As a result, they tend to be more prepared to accept and implement research results in their daily work.



Figure 4: Teachers of a learning community testing their online questionnaire

The specific outcomes of the teachers' research have been considerable and include research results, professional development trajectories and new material to be used in schools. More information can be found on the Academic School Limburg website (see References).

It is useful in evaluating the project to look beyond the teams of teachers and their achievements and focus on the opinions, attitudes and competencies of individuals. In June 2008, a year and a half after the baseline measurement had taken place, the teachers were again asked to fill in the questionnaire. A few of the results are summarised below.

As to experience with conducting research and other aspects of research:

- Most of the teachers now read academic journals sometimes and consult the internet concerning educational research

- As to conducting research, the teachers now realise the complexity of the whole process.

As to research:

- More teachers felt the need for research, though not necessarily conducted by themselves
- More teachers showed an affinity for the research process
- More teachers saw the relevance of research for school practice
- In general, the teachers now had a better understanding of what research actually is.

These responses indicate a somewhat more positive attitude towards research in schools, and a better understanding of research in general.

In June 2007, participating teams presented their research design and process to other teams, who then evaluated it: this proved to be fruitful. In June 2008, the teams were invited to describe their research in a portfolio, and to present the portfolio to a team of educators and academic staff members. All teams were quite open about both the pitfalls and the successes and showed enormous improvements in their ability to conduct research.

The concept of academic professional development schools, based on the experiences of the Academic School Limburg

During the whole process, the concept of the academic professional development schools continued to develop. In the view of the Academic School Limburg, academic professional development schools distinguish themselves from ordinary professional development schools by following an integrated approach that employs four key processes:

- They are pioneers in the field of educational **innovation**. Their innovations cover a number of different topics: education, teaching methodology, staffing policy, organisation and training.
- They are involved in all aspects of the **education** of teachers. These aspects include supervision, training, mentoring and assessment. Both full- and part-time student teachers and teachers in the school are involved. Academic professional development schools have a policy that reflects and encourages professional development among current teachers and which is linked to job evaluation. It also involves experienced teachers in educating students and junior colleagues. Furthermore, academic professional development schools

- They create an environment where **research** can be undertaken in a variety of ways. This not only requires practical resources: first and foremost, it needs active involvement from staff. This research is carried out not only by students during their study or by teachers within the classroom; it is also initiated by teachers but carried out by academic professionals – who also educated staff on a wide range of research topics.
- They develop educational programmes, with reliable and useful information that can easily be implemented by other schools. This **development** of material can cover various areas: teaching methodology, educational procedures, new teaching material (using ICT, for example), supervision, assessment models, curricula and school projects.

Academic professional development schools show successful implementation of these four key processes. This means that innovations are automatically linked to teacher education and professional development initiatives, as well as being research-based.

In addition, it is crucial that the dissemination of knowledge takes place. Academic professional development schools both collect and generate knowledge – and this fact must be made known to all partners in the field of education.



Figure 5: Teachers discussing the results of their research programmes with teacher educators and university staff

This whole process requires a solid research infrastructure in which teacher education institutes and universities play a role. With this in mind, the Academic School Limburg is about to draw up an agreement together with its partners in

teacher education, schools and universities, in which the research focus, responsibilities, roles, organisational and financial matters are set out. This agreement will be implemented during the follow-up period, in 2009 to 2011.

To ensure the academic character of an academic professional development school, a variety of structural measures are needed – as well as measures regarding the contents. These measures need to be taken at school level, but also across schools and by mutual agreement.

At school level:

- the academic character of the school needs to be incorporated in the school policy
- a team of teachers needs to be set up, to read and discuss scientific research, conduct research, supervise research and disclose and discuss findings.

At cross-school level:

- the continuity of the academic process in academic professional development school is better guaranteed in a structure that stretches beyond the school alone, collaborating with other schools
- in order to ensure long-term quality, a solid infrastructure is needed: this will include schools, teacher education institutes and universities.

Some further findings of the Academic School Limburg

The Academic School Limburg has turned out to be a remarkable experiment. After a hesitant start, with teachers, partners and management unsure as to the exact conditions in which an academic professional development school might flourish, a unique superstructure arose, bringing about the integration of school practice, teacher education and academic knowledge. We observed some interesting effects.

Teachers learned to look beyond the confines of the classroom; they worked together with other schools and with experts from within, across and outside schools. At first, the teachers felt keenly the gap between theory and practice. However, by studying the relevant literature, doing research themselves and discussing problems and outcomes, they were able to bridge this gap. The teachers now realise that conducting research is a serious and complex matter and are less refractory in their attitudes towards to it. Also, since learning to work in self-governing teams, the teachers have grown in their ability to take initiative and organise learning processes. For some teachers, either the strain of combining

research with teaching or with challenging personal circumstances or the complex nature of conducting research across schools proved to be too much, and they dropped out. Remarkably, dropping out was not due to problems with the educational level of the work but more to the teachers' willingness or otherwise to contribute and to learn (see Introduction).

Teacher educators from institutes or universities now know more about everyday school practice because they visit schools more often and communicate more extensively about educational issues. There is a true desire for collaboration to improve the learning of student teachers.

Strong relationships have been established between teachers and partners from universities and teacher education institutes and it is in this relationship that the potential for sustainable collaboration lies. It is the task of every academic professional development school to help create this infrastructure and to form lasting relationships: only then can the project be successful.

Conclusion: what exactly is a successful academic professional development school?

In this chapter, one of the many pilot projects taking place in the Netherlands has been described. The findings, views and results of the pilot project described here (and those of all other pilot projects) are gathered by KPMG, which is a large firm providing, among other things, professional advisory services. The aim of the Ministry of Education was to find out under what conditions an academic professional development school can become a success. However, it is too early to give a precise answer: firstly because the findings of KPMG are not yet known, and secondly because some aspects of the academic professional development school concept are still a matter for debate – for example:

- the difference between a professional development school and an academic development school
- the criteria for the two types of professional schools
- the consequences for teacher education institutes and universities
- the consequences for the professional development of teachers

- the roles and responsibilities of schools and teacher education institutes and universities.

The Academic School Limburg has been successful in decreasing the gap between theory and practice, in establishing learning communities and in conducting research in schools. However, the concept of the APDS needs to be explored further. For this reason, the Dutch government has decided to continue the pilot project. During the years 2009 to 2011, schools may apply for a new subsidy only when they have been accredited by the NVAO – a Dutch–Flemish institute that guarantees the quality of higher education. Since academic professional development schools also educate student teachers they need to meet various quality criteria.

In September 2009 the pilot projects will be evaluated – both those involving the professional development schools and the academic professional development schools. This aim of this evaluation will be to initiate the formulation of a number of quality criteria and limiting conditions, and also to set out the financial implications.

A few tentative suggestions as to the conditions required in order to establish academic professional development schools can already be specified. One such condition is a solid infrastructure, with all participants sharing a common view on teacher education, which is incorporated into the school plans. Another prerequisite is a school culture in which development based on research is generally acknowledged as positive. However, the most important condition is that teachers are willing and able to communicate among themselves, both within and across schools – because teachers in learning communities can act as strong catalysts for school improvement.

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MICHELLE BRENDEL



Michelle Brendel is Lecturer at the University of Luxembourg. She studied psychology at the University of Strasbourg in France. Trained in family therapy and Gestalt-therapy, she worked with behaviorally disturbed children in Luxembourg (1986-1996). She joined the initial teacher training for preschool and primary school in 1996, which was integrated in the University of Luxembourg in 2003. Her research interests are collaborative teacher research, inclusive education, portfolio approaches.

MARIEKE J. E. DRESEN



Drs. Marieke J.E. Dresen, is a former teacher of English. From 1990 - 2003 she worked for Fontys University of Applied Science as a teacher educator. From 2003 she is a senior consultant at the Ruud de Moor Centre of the Open University, which supports schools in the professional development of teachers. The support is in co-creation i.e. developing products, projects, etc. through collaborative execution of developers, researchers, stakeholders.

EVE EISENSCHMIDT



Eve Eisenschmidt is director of Tallinn University Haapsalu College in Estonia. She led the expert group who prepared the implementation of the induction year for novice teachers in Estonia. Her doctoral thesis Implementation of the Induction Year for Novice Teachers in Estonia. She is also a member of the Newly Qualified Teachers in Northern Europe Research and Development Network (NQTNE). She has been a member of ENTEP since 2006

OTMAR GASSNER



Otmar Gassner is Professor of English at the University of Education in Vorarlberg, Austria. Educated at the Universities of Vienna and Oxford, he worked as a teacher of English and German for seventeen years before he was appointed Head of the English Department at the Feldkirch College of Teacher Education in 1995. From 1999 to 2001 he was the Vice President of the College. He has been a member of ENTEP since 2000 and was the coordinator of the network from 2004 to 2007.

ELENI HADJIKAKOU



Eleni Hadjidakou is Head of the Teacher In-Service Department at the Cyprus Pedagogical Institute. She is a graduate of Cyprus Pedagogical Academy. She continued for her postgraduate studies (M.A.) and her doctoral studies (Ph.D) at the University of Reading, UK. She has worked as an in-service teacher trainer for many years. She teaches topics on the area of Information and Communication Technologies (I.C.T.) in Education.

LIESBETH HENS



Liesbeth Hens works as a deputy director at the Higher Education Policy Unit of the Flemish Ministry of Education and Training. At present the most important topics she's working on, are teacher education , profession higher education: including, associated degrees and funding She represents the Flemish community different European networks en clusters. Before working at the ministry, she was employed at several universities and university colleges in Flanders.

PAUL HOLDSWORTH



Paul Holdsworth is responsible for the coordination of policy in the field of Teacher Education in the Directorate-General for Education and Culture at the European Commission. After studying Modern and Medieval Languages at the University of Cambridge, he spent his early career in local government in the UK. He has been a European civil servant since 1996 and has represented the European Commission on ENTEP since 2006.

ROMITA IUCU



Romita Iucu is ph.D. professor at the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences. He studied at University of Bucharest, “Freie Universität” of Berlin and at University of Lausanne. He was General Director at the Ministry of Education, Director of the Teacher Education College and Vice-Rector of the University of Bucharest. At the European level he was member of the EU Group Teachers and Trainers, member of Cluster Teachers and Trainers and since 2006 is member of ENTEP.

LUCIEN KERGER



Lucien Kerger is Academic Vice-rector at the University of Luxembourg. Specialist in the field of educational psychology and teacher education, he worked in several functions for the Ministry for education, especially as a director of the institute for educational research and teacher education. Appointed by an international committee as professor at the new University of Luxembourg (2003), he was elected as dean of the faculty of literature, humanities, arts and educational sciences (2003-2007).

ATHENA MICHAELIDOU



Dr Athena Michaelidou has graduated from the Cyprus Teachers' Academy and continued her studies in the U.K. where she has been awarded her Master's and PhD. She has worked as a teacher trainer and her area of interest is educational research and evaluation. She is currently responsible for the Centre for Educational Research and Evaluation in Cyprus. Her research work has been published in various educational journals and books.

ARMI MIKKOLA



Armi Mikkola, MA, studied Educational and Social Sciences, Ethnology and History at the University of Helsinki. She is Counsellor of Education at the Ministry of Education. She has been a chairperson or a member in many national and Nordic projects for development of teacher education. She has published several articles and books on school improvement and teacher education. She has been a member of ENTEP since 2000.

CVETA RAZDEVŠEK-PUČKO



Cveta Razdevšek-Pučko is Associated Professor for Educational Psychology at the Faculty of Education, University of Ljubljana. Her main fields of interest are teacher education and assessment within primary school. As an expert she was involved in different projects within educational changes in Slovenia, she is the author of numerous articles about these issues. Within the period 2004-2008 she was a Dean of Faculty of Education.

MARILYNE RÉMER



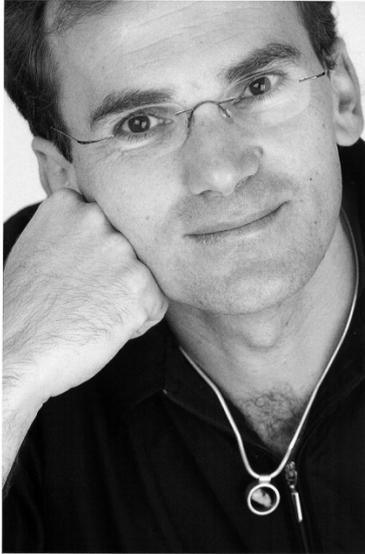
Marilyne Rémer is an educational inspector. Holding the french degree “agrégation de lettres modernes”, she worked as a teacher of French litterature in secondary schools and was involved in initial teacher education and in teaching research before becoming a member of the Department in charge of initial teacher education in the Ministry of Higher Education and Research. She has been the french representative at the ENTEP for the last two years before becoming inspector in Lyon Education area.

MICHAEL SCHRATZ



Michael Schratz is Professor of Education at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research at the University of Innsbruck, Austria, and is presently Dean of the Faculty of Education. He has been an Austrian representative for international cooperations such as EU, ENTEP (since 2000), OECD. He is the scientific co-director of the Austrian Leadership Academy. He has been involved in research projects on educational leadership and policy development and his publications have been translated into several languages.

DENIS SCUTO



Denis Scuto is lecturer and researcher of history and educational sciences at the University of Luxembourg. Educated at the Université Libre de Bruxelles, he worked as a teacher of history in a Luxembourg Gymnasium for fourteen years before he became lecturer at the University of Luxembourg in 2003. Research interests are collaborative teacher research, portfolio approach, history didactics, inclusive education and the “education nouvelle” movement.

LEO J. J. TILLMANNNS



Drs. Leo J.J. Tillmannns, a former geography teacher with long experience in secondary education. 1982 he received a Fulbright grant to study at the Univ. of Minnesota. From 1984 until 1990 he was a member of the Board of Education of the Royal Dutch Geographic Society. In cooperation with Marieke Dresen he published “Academic schools in the Netherlands”. IMBES Volume 3 number 1 2008. His position as Programme Manager in Academic School Limburg includes the role of innovator of ideas and programs.

URSULA UZERLI



Ursula Uzerli is the head of the department 'EU Koordination / Internationales' at the Amt für Lehrerbildung in Hesse, Germany. She studied English, German and Theology at the University of Mainz and after a three-year stay in the US at the University of Kassel. In the field of European Teacher Education she is a member of the Cluster 'Teachers and Trainers' in the Education and Training 2010 work programme at the European Commission for Germany; she is also the present ENTEP Coordinator.

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